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JAMES I.

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THE DICTIONARY
OF
ENGLISH HISTORY

BY
SIDNEY J. LOW, M.A.
(Fellow of King's College, London)
AND
F. S. PULLING, M.A.
(Late Professor of History, Yorkshire College, Leeds)

With Fourteen Full-page Plates

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PREFACE TO FIRST EDITION

AT a time when the systematic study of English history is every day attracting the interest of an ever-widening circle of readers, it is somewhat remarkable that there should be no convenient handbook to the whole subject. The present publication is an attempt to supply this deficiency, so far as it can be supplied by a work which is intended to be useful rather than exhaustive. It is scarcely possible that everything relating directly or indirectly to a subject so vast and so ill-defined as the history of a great people and a great empire could be included within the compass of eleven hundred moderate-sized pages. The compilers of a concise historical dictionary must be content to make a selection from the materials at their command. The present work is not an encyclopædia, and the editors are aware that many things are omitted from it which might have been included, had its limits been wider, and its aim more ambitious. But they hope that the general reader, as well as the special student of the history of the British Empire, will find this volume a convenient auxiliary to his studies; and they are sanguine enough to anticipate that it will fill a gap on his bookshelves not at present occupied by any single book of reference. Dictionaries of biography already exist in abundance; handbooks of dates and chronology are common and familiar things; manuals of English history, political and constitutional, of all sizes and all degrees of merit, are at the easy command of the reading public; and it is possible, by diligent search, to discover works on English bibliography, and even on the bibliography of English history. But if a great book is a great evil, a great many books are assuredly a greater. The most earnest student cannot be expected to read his history with a dozen manuals and works of reference at his elbow, in case he should be in doubt as to a fact, or should require to verify a date, to gain some information on a constitutional point, to satisfy himself as to the sequence of events at one of the epochs of our annals, or to find out the authorities for a particular period. To produce a book which should give, as concisely as possible, just the information, biographical, bibliographical, chronological, and constitutional, that the reader of English history is likely to want, is what is here attempted.

In deciding what should or should not find a place in these pages, the Editors have tried to keep in view the probable needs of modern readers. Practical convenience has guided them in the somewhat arbitrary selection they have been compelled to make; and with a view to this end they have not hesitated to make some slight changes of plan which suggested themselves in the course of the work. In the biographical department names of purely personal and literary interest have been omitted, and the biographies have been written throughout from the historical standpoint. No attempt is made to supplant other Dictionaries devoted solely to biography; but the reader will, it is hoped, find sufficient information about every prominent personage to be of use to him in his historical studies, while the references to authorities which accompany all the more important articles will show him where to go if he desires to pursue his inquiries further. In the older "Helps to English History," such as that of Heylin, space equal to the whole of this work is devoted to genealogies and to the lists of the holders of public offices and dignities. In the present volume relatively

little space is given to these subjects. The genealogies of the great families and the order of official succession are very fully worked out in many well-known and easily accessible works. A modern student is likely to have more occasion for the accounts of the growth of English institutions, and for the summaries of great epochs in our history, and of the relations of the country with foreign powers, which occupy a considerable portion of these pages. In these instances it is hoped also that the bibliographical notes, supplemented by the special article on AUTHORITIES ON ENGLISH HISTORY (page 105), will be found of considerable value, even by those who can lay claim to some historical scholarship.

It is perhaps necessary to say that though "English" on the title-page of this work is to be understood in its widest and least exact sense: and though the doings of Englishmen, Scotsmen, Irishmen, and Welshmen at all places and periods *nostri est farrago libelli*, yet that very much more attention is devoted to the history of England than to that of Scotland, Ireland, Wales, and the Colonies. Selection being inevitable if the book were not to sacrifice its chief recommendation, that of practical utility, it is felt that the rule adopted, though illogical, is the one likely to promote the greatest convenience of the greatest number of readers. It has been thought advisable to bring the book down to our own day; but very recent events have been treated more briefly than those of more remote periods, and only those living and recently deceased statesmen have been included, concerning whom there can be no reasonable doubt that their names have a right to appear in a Dictionary of English History. For obvious reasons no articles on living historians have been given, though it is hoped that full justice is done to their works in the bibliographical notes.

To save space, and to secure somewhat more adequate treatment, it has often been thought better to group the various divisions of a large subject into one article, rather than to discuss them separately in a number of short ones. Here, again, the rule followed is somewhat arbitrary. But a reference to the Index will generally show the reader where to look in case he does not find the title he is in search of in its proper place.

Such merits as this volume may be found to possess are due in great measure to the able staff of contributors who have given it their invaluable aid. To all of them the Editors have to render their grateful thanks. For many useful suggestions and much kindly interest displayed in the progress of the work, they have to acknowledge their obligations to Dr. Mandell Creighton; Professor Rowley, University College, Bristol; Mr. Arthur L. Smith, Fellow of Balliol College, Oxford; Mr. Lloyd Sanders, M.A.; Mr. W. J. Ashley, M.A.; and Mr. T. A. Archer, B.A. Their special thanks are due to Mr. T. F. Tout, M.A., whose assistance throughout has been of the greatest value, and who has constantly and most kindly placed the benefits of his extensive knowledge of modern history at the service of the Editors.

MAGNA CARTA

Translation of the Great Charter of King John, granted June 15th, A.D. 1215, *in the seventeenth Year of his Reign.*

JOHN, by the grace of God, king of England, lord of Ireland, duke of Normandy and Aquitaine, and earl of Anjou, to all his archbishops, bishops, abbots, earls, barons, justiciaries, foresters, sheriffs, commanders, officers, and to all his bailiffs and faithful subjects, *wisheth* health. Know ye, that we, from our regard to God, and for the salvation of our own soul, and of the souls of our ancestors, and of our heirs, to the honour of God, and the exaltation of holy church and amendment of our kingdom, by the advice of our venerable fathers, Stephen archbishop of Canterbury, primate of all England, and cardinal of the holy Roman church, Henry archbishop of Dublin, William of London, Peter of Winchester, Joceline of Bath and Glastonbury, Hugh of Lincoln, Walter of Worcester, William of Coventry, Benedict of Rochester, bishops, master Pandulph, the pope's sub-deacon and familiar, brother Eymeric master of the knights-templars in England, and of these noble persons, William Marischal earl of Pembroke, William earl of Salisbury, William earl of Warren, William earl of Arundel, Allan of Galloway constable of Scotland, Warin Fitz-Gerald, Peter Fitz-Herbert, Hubert de Burgh, steward of Poitou, Hugh de Nevil, Matthew Fitz-Herbert, Thomas Basset, Allan Basset, Philip de Albany, Robert de Roppel, John Marischal, John Fitz-Hugh, and of others of our liegemen, have granted to God, and by this our present charter, have confirmed, for us, and our heirs for ever:—First, That the English church shall be free, and shall have her whole rights, and her liberties unhurt; and I will this to be observed in such a manner that it may appear from thence, that the freedom of elections, which was reputed most necessary to the English church, which we granted, and by our charter confirmed, and obtained the confirmation of it from pope Innocent III. before the rupture between us and our barons, was of our own free will. Which charter we shall observe; and we will it to be observed, with good faith, by our heirs for ever.——We have also granted to all the freemen of our kingdom, for us and our heirs for ever, all the underwritten liberties, to be enjoyed and held by them and their heirs, of us and our heirs.——If any of our earls or barons, or others who hold of us in chief by military service, shall die, and at his death his heir shall be of full age, and shall owe a relief, he shall have his inheritance for the ancient relief, viz. the heir or heirs of an earl, a whole earl's barony, for one hundred pounds; the heir or heirs of a baron, a whole barony for one hundred pounds*; the heir or heirs of a knight, a whole knight's fee, for one

* This is *marks* in Matthew Paris, which is probably the right reading. M. Paris, p. 178, col. 1.

hundred shillings at most; and he who owes less, shall give less, according to the ancient custom of fees.——But if the heir of any such be under age, and in wardship, when he comes to age he shall have his inheritance without relief and without fine.——The warden of an heir who is under age, shall not take of the lands of the heir any but reasonable issues, and reasonable customs, and reasonable services, and that without destruction and waste of the men or goods: and if we commit the custody of any such lands to a sheriff, or to any other person who is bound to answer to us for the issues of them, and he shall make destruction or waste upon the ward-lands, we will recover damages from him, and the lands shall be committed to two legal and discreet men of that fee, who shall answer for the issues to us, or to him to whom we have assigned them: and if we granted or sold to any one the custody of any such lands, and he shall make destruction or waste, he shall lose the custody; and it shall be committed to two legal and discreet men of that fee, who shall answer to us, in like manner as was said before.——Besides, the warden, as long as he hath the custody of the lands, shall keep in order the houses, parks, warrens, ponds, mills, and other things belonging to them, out of their issues; and shall deliver to the heir, when he is at age, his whole estate provided with ploughs and other implements of husbandry, according to what the season requires, and the profits of the lands can reasonably afford.——Heirs shall be married without disparagement, and so that, before the marriage is contracted, it shall be notified to the relations of the heir by consanguinity.——A widow, after the death of her husband, shall immediately, and without difficulty, have her marriage goods and her inheritance; nor shall she give any thing for her dower, or her marriage goods, or her inheritance, which her husband and she held on the day of his death. And she may remain in her husband's house forty days after his death, within which time her dower shall be assigned. No widow shall be compelled to marry herself while she chuses to live without a husband, but so, that she shall give security that she will not marry herself, without our consent, if she holds of us, or without the consent of the lord of whom she holds, if she holds of another.——Neither we nor our bailiffs shall seize any land or rents for any debt, while the chattels of the debtor are sufficient for the payment of the debt; nor shall the sureties of the debtor be distrained, while the principal debtor is able to pay the debt: and if the principal debtor fail in payment of the debt, not having wherewith to pay, the sureties shall answer for the debt; and if they please, they shall have the lands and rents of the debtor, until satisfaction be made to them for the debt which they had before paid for him, unless the principal debtor can show that he is discharged from it by the said sureties.——If any one hath borrowed any thing from the Jews, more or less, and dies before that debt is paid, the debt shall pay no interest as long as the heir shall be under age, of whomsoever he holds; and if that debt shall fall into our hands, we will not take any thing, except the chattels contained in the bond.——And if any one dies indebted to the Jews, his wife shall have her dower, and shall pay nothing of that debt; and if children of the defunct remain who are under age, necessaries shall be provided for them, according to the tenement which belonged to the defunct; and out of the surplus the debt shall be paid, saving the rights of the lords *of*

whom the lands are held. The same rules shall be observed with respect to debts owing to others than Jews.——No scutage or aid shall be imposed, except by the common council of our kingdom, but for redeeming our body,—for making our eldest son a knight, and for once marrying our eldest daughter; and for these only a reasonable aid shall be demanded. This extends to the aids of the city of London.——And the city of London shall have all its ancient liberties, and its free customs, as well by land as by water. Besides, we will and grant, that all other cities and burghs, and towns and sea-ports, shall have all their liberties and free customs.——And to have a common council of the kingdom, to assess an aid, otherwise than in the three foresaid cases, or to assess a scutage, we will cause to be summoned the archbishops, bishops, earls, and greater barons, personally, by our letters; and besides, we will cause to be summoned in general by our sheriffs and bailiffs, all those who hold of us in chief, to a certain day, at the distance of forty days at least, and to a certain place; and in all the letters of summons, we will express the cause of the summons; and the summons being thus made, the business shall go on at the day appointed, according to the advice of those who shall be present, although all who had been summoned have not come.——We will not give leave to any one, for the future, to take an aid of his freemen, except for redeeming his own body, making his eldest son a knight, and marrying once his eldest daughter; and that only a reasonable aid.——Let none be distrained to do more service for a knight's fee, nor for any other free tenement, than what is due from thence.——Common pleas shall not follow our court, but shall be held in some certain place.——Assizes upon the writs of Novel desseisin, Mortdancester (death of the ancestor), and Darrein presentment (last presentation), shall not be taken but in their proper counties, and in this manner.—We, or our chief justiciary when we are out of the kingdom, shall send two justiciaries into each county, four times a-year, who, with four knights of each county, chosen by the county, shall take the foresaid assizes, at a stated time and place, within the county.——And if the foresaid assizes cannot be taken on the day of the county-court, let as many knights and freeholders, of those who were present at the county-court, remain behind, as by them the foresaid assizes may be taken, according to the greater or less importance of the business.——A freeman shall not be amerced for a small offence, but only according to the degree of the offence; and for a great delinquency, according to the magnitude of the delinquency, saving his contenement: a merchant shall be amerced in the same manner, saving his merchandise, and a villain, saving his implements of husbandry. If they fall into our mercy, none of the foresaid amerciaments shall be assessed, but by the oath of honest men of the vicinage. ——Earls and barons shall not be amerced but by their peers, and that only according to the degree of their delinquency.——No clerk shall be amerced for his lay-tenement, but according to the manner of others as aforesaid, and not according to the quantity of his ecclesiastical benefice.——Neither a town nor a particular person shall be distrained to build bridges or embankments, except those who anciently, and of right, are bound to do it.——No sheriff, constable, coroner, or bailiff of ours shall hold pleas of our crown.——All counties, hundreds, wapontacks, and trithings, shall be at the ancient rent, without any

increment, except our demesne-manors.——If any one holding of us a lay-fee dies, and the sheriff or our bailiff shall shew our letters-patent of our summons for a debt which the defunct owed to us, it shall be lawful for the sheriff or our bailiff to attach and register the chattels of the defunct found on that fee, to the amount of that debt, at the view of lawful men, so that nothing shall be removed from thence until our debt is paid to us. The clear overplus shall be left to the executors to fulfil the last-will of the defunct; and if nothing is owing to us by him, all the chattels shall fall to the defunct, saving to his wife and children their reasonable shares.——If any freeman shall die intestate, his chattels shall be distributed by his nearest relations and friends, at the view of the church, saving to every one the debts which the defunct owed to him.——No constable or bailiff of ours shall take the corn or other goods of any one, without instantly paying money for them, unless he can obtain respite from the free will of the seller.——No constable (governor of a castle) shall distrain any knight to give money for castle-guard, if he is willing to perform it by his own person, or by another good man if he cannot perform it himself, for a reasonable cause. Or if we have carried or sent him into the army, he shall be excused from castle-guard, according to the space of time he hath been in the army at our command.——No sheriff or bailiff of ours, or any other person, shall take the horses or carts of any freeman, to perform carriages, without the consent of the said freeman.——Neither we, nor our bailiffs, shall take another man's wood, for our castles or other uses, without the consent of him to whom the wood belongs.——We will not retain the lands of those who have been convicted of felony, above one year and one day, and then they shall be given up to the lord of the fee.——All kydells (weirs) for the future shall be quite removed out of the Thames, the Medway, and through all England, except on the sea-coast.——The writ which is called *Precipe* for the future shall not be granted to any one concerning any tenement by which a freeman may lose his court.——There shall be one measure of wine through all our kingdom, and one measure of ale, and one measure of corn, viz. the quarter of London; and one breadth of dyed-cloth and of russets, and of halberjects, viz. two ells within the lists. It shall be the same with weights as with measures.——Nothing shall be given or taken for the future for the writ of inquisition of life or limb; but it shall be given *gratis*, and not denied. ——If any hold of us by fee-farm, or soccage, or burgage, and holds an estate of another by military service, we shall not have the custody of the heir, or of his land, which is of the fee of another, on account of that fee-farm, or soccage, or burgage, unless the fee-farm owes military service. We shall not have the custody of the heir, or of the land of any one, which he holds of another by military service, on account of any petty sergeantry which he holds of us, by giving us knives, arrows, or the like.——No bailiff, for the future, shall put any man to his law, upon his own simple affirmation, without credible witnesses produced to that purpose.——No freeman shall be seized, or imprisoned, or disseised, or outlawed, or any way destroyed, nor will we go upon him, nor will we send upon him, except by the legal judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land. ——To none will we sell, to none will we deny, to none will we delay right or justice.——All merchants shall be safe and secure in coming into England, and

going out of England, and staying and travelling through England, as well by land as by water, to buy and to sell, without any unjust exactions, according to ancient and right customs, except in time of war, and if they be of a country at war against us. And if such are found in our dominions at the beginning of a war, they shall be apprehended without injury of their bodies and goods, until it be known to us, or to our chief justiciary, how the merchants of our country are treated in the country at war against us; and if ours are safe there, the others shall be safe in our country.——It shall be lawful to any person, for the future, to go out of our kingdom, and to return, safely and securely, by land and by water, saving his allegiance, except in time of war, for some short space, for the common good of the kingdom, except prisoners, outlaws according to the law of the land, and people of the nation at war against us, and merchants, who shall be treated as is said above.——If any one holdeth of any escheat, as of the honour of Wallingford, Nottingham, Boulogne, Lancaster, or of other escheats which are in our hands, and shall die, his heir shall not give any other relief, or do any other service to us, than he should have done to the baron, if that barony had been in the hands of the baron; and we will hold it in the same manner that the baron held it.——Men who dwell without the forest, shall not come, for the future, before our justiciaries of the forest, on a common summons, unless they be parties in a plea, or sureties for some person or persons who are attached for the forest.——We will not make men justiciaries, constables, sheriffs, or bailiffs, unless they understand the law of the land, and are well disposed to observe it.——All barons who have founded abbeys, of which they have charters of the kings of England, or ancient tenure, shall have the custody of them when they become vacant, as they ought to have.——All forests which have been made in our time, shall be immediately disforested; and it shall be so done with water-banks which have been made in our time, in defiance.——All evil customs of forests and warrens, and of foresters and warreners, sheriffs and their officers, water-banks and their keepers, shall immediately be inquired into by twelve knights of the same county, upon oath, who shall be chosen by the good men of the same county; and within forty days after the inquisition is made, they shall be quite destroyed by them, never to be restored; provided that this be notified to us before it is done, or to our justiciary, if we are not in England.——We will immediately restore all hostages and charters which have been delivered to us by the English, in security of the peace, and of their faithful service.——We will remove from their offices the relations of Gerard de Athyes, that, for the future, they shall have no office in England, Engelard de Cygony, Andrew, Peter, and Gyone de Chancell, Gyone de Cygony, Geoffery de Martin, and his brothers; Philip Mark, and his brothers; and Geoffrey his grandson; and all their followers.——And immediately after the conclusion of the peace, we will remove out of the kingdom all foreign knights, cross-bow-men, and stipendiary soldiers, who have come with horses and arms to the molestation of the kingdom.——If any have been disseised or dispossessed by us, without a legal verdict of their peers, of their lands, castles, liberties, or rights, we will immediately restore these things to them; and if a question shall arise on this head, it shall be determined by the verdict of the twenty-five barons, who shall be mentioned below, for the

security of the peace. But as to all those things of which any one hath been disseised or dispossessed, without a legal verdict of his peers, by king Henry our father, or king Richard our brother, which we have in our hand, or others hold with our warrants, we shall have respite, until the common term of the Crusaders, except those concerning which a plea had been moved, or an inquisition taken, by our precept, before our taking the cross. But as soon as we shall return from our expedition, or if, by chance, we shall not go upon our expedition, we shall immediately do complete justice therein.——But we shall have the same respite, and in the same manner, concerning the justice to be done about disforesting or continuing the forests which Henry our father, or Richard our brother, had made; and about the wardship of lands which are of the fee of some other person, but the wardship of which we have hitherto had, on account of a fee which some one held of us by military service; and about abbeys which had been founded in the fee of another, and not in ours, in which abbeys the lord of the fee hath claimed a right. And when we shall have returned, or if we shall stay from our expedition, we shall immediately do complete justice in all these pleas.——No man shall be apprehended or imprisoned on *the appeal of a woman*, for the death of any other man than her husband.——All fines that have been made with us unjustly, or contrary to the law of the land; and all amerciaments that have been imposed unjustly, or contrary to the law of the land, shall be remitted, or disposed of by the verdict of the twenty-five barons, of whom mention is made below, for the security of the peace, or by the verdict of the major part of them, together with the foresaid Stephen archbishop of Canterbury, if he can be present, and others whom he may think fit to bring with him; and if he cannot be present, the business shall proceed notwithstanding without him: but so, that if one or more of the foresaid twenty-five barons have a similar plea, let them be removed from that particular trial, and others elected and sworn by the residue of the same twenty-five, be substituted in their room, only for that trial.——If we have disseised or dispossessed any Welshmen of their land, liberties, or other things, without a legal verdict of their peers, in England or in Wales, they shall be immediately restored to them; and if a question shall arise about it, then let it be determined in the marches by the verdict of their peers, if the tenement be in England, according to the law of England: if the tenement be in Wales, according to the law of Wales: if the tenement be in the marches, according to the law of the marches. The Welsh shall do the same to us and our subjects.——But concerning those things of which any Welshman hath been disseised or dispossessed without a legal verdict of his peers, by king Henry our father, or king Richard our brother, which we have in our hand, or others hold with our warranty, we shall have respite, until the common term of the Crusaders, except those concerning which a plea had been moved, or an inquisition taken, by our precept, before our taking the cross. But as soon as we shall return from our expedition; or if, by chance, we shall not go upon our expedition, we shall immediately do complete justice therein, according to the laws of Wales, and the parts aforesaid.——We will immediately deliver up the son of Lewelin, and all the hostages of Wales, and charters which have been given to us for security of the peace.——We shall do to

Alexander king of Scotland, concerning the restoration of his sisters and hostages, and his liberties and rights, according to the form in which we act to our other barons in England, unless it ought to be otherwise by charters which we have from his father William late king of Scotland, and that by the verdict of his peers in our court.——But all these foresaid customs and liberties which we have granted in our kingdom, to be held by our tenants, as far as concerns us, all our clergy and laity shall observe towards their tenants, as far as concerns them.——But since we have granted all these things aforesaid, for God, and to the amendment of our kingdom, and for the better extinguishing the discord arisen between us and our barons, being desirous that these things should possess entire and unshaken stability for ever, we give and grant to them the security underwritten, viz. That the barons may elect twenty-five barons of the kingdom, whom they please, who shall, with their whole power, observe and keep, and cause to be observed, the peace and liberties which we have granted to them, and have confirmed by this our present charter, in this manner. That if we, or our justiciary, or our bailiffs, or any of our officers, shall have injured any one in any thing, or shall have violated any article of the peace or security, and the injury shall have been shown to four of the foresaid twenty-five barons, these four barons shall come to us, or to our justiciary if we are out of the kingdom, and making known to us the excess committed, require that we cause that excess to be redressed without delay; and if we shall not have redressed the excess, or, if we have been out of the kingdom, our justiciary shall not have redressed it, within the term of forty days, computing from the time in which it shall have been made known to us, or to our justiciary if we have been out of the kingdom, the foresaid four barons shall lay that cause before the residue of the twenty-five barons; and these twenty-five barons, with the community of the whole land, shall distress and harass us by all the ways in which they can, that is to say, by the taking of our castles, lands, and possessions, and by other means in their power, until the excess shall have been redressed, according to their verdict; saving our person, and the persons of our queen and children; and when it hath been redressed, they shall behave to us as they had done before: and whoever of our land pleaseth, may swear, that he will obey the commands of the foresaid twenty-five barons, in accomplishing all the things aforesaid, and that with them he will harass us to the utmost of his power: and we publicly and freely give leave to every one to swear who is willing to swear; and we will never forbid any man to swear. But all those of our land, who, of themselves, and their own accord, are unwilling to swear to the twenty-five barons, to distress and harass us together with them, we will compel them, by our command, to swear as aforesaid. And if any one of the twenty-five barons shall die, or remove out of the land, or in any other way shall be prevented from executing the things above said, those who remain of the twenty-five barons shall elect another in his place, according to their pleasure, who shall be sworn in the same manner as the rest. But in all those things which are appointed to be done by these twenty-five barons, if it happen that all the twenty-five have been present, and have differed in their opinions about any thing, or if some of them who had been summoned, would not, or could not be present, that which the major part of

those who were present shall have provided and decreed, shall be held as firm and valid, as if all the twenty-five had agreed in it. And the foresaid twenty-five shall swear, that they will faithfully observe, and, to the utmost of their power, cause to be observed, all the things mentioned above. And we will obtain nothing from any one, by ourselves, or by another, by which any of these concessions and liberties may be revoked or diminished. And if any such thing hath been obtained, let it be void and null; and we will never use it, either by ourselves or by another. And we have fully remitted and pardoned to all men, all the ill-will, rancour, and resentments which have arisen between us and our subjects, both clergy and laity, from the commencement of the discord. Besides, we have fully remitted to all the clergy and laity, and as far as belongs to us, we have fully pardoned **all** transgressions committed on occasion of the said discord, from Easter, in the sixteenth year of our reign, to the conclusion of the peace. And, moreover, we have caused to be made to them testimonial letters-patent of my lord Stephen archbishop of Canterbury, my lord Henry archbishop of Dublin, and of the foresaid bishops, and of Mr. Pandulf, concerning this security, and the foresaid concessions. Wherefore, our will is, and we firmly command, that the church of England be free, and that the men in our kingdom have and hold all the foresaid liberties, rights, and concessions, well and in peace, freely and quietly, fully and entirely, to them and their heirs, of us and our heirs, in all things and places for ever, as aforesaid. An oath hath been taken, as well on our part, as on the part of the barons, that all these things mentioned above shall be observed in good faith, and without any evil intention, before the above-named witnesses, and many others. Given by our hand, in the meadow, which is called *Runingmed*, between Windsor and Staines, this fifteenth day of June, in the seventeenth year of our reign.

DICTIONARY OF ENGLISH HISTORY.

Abbeville, TREATY OF (May 20, 1259), was concluded between Louis IX. of France and Henry III. of England, after the abortive attempt of the latter to recover the provinces which John had lost. By this treaty the English king relinquished all claims to Normandy, Anjou, Touraine, Maine, and Poitou; but was guaranteed the possession of Guienne, which he was to continue to hold as a fief from the French crown. His territories in the south of France were to be further increased by the three bishoprics of Limoges, Perigueux, and Cahors; and he was to receive from Louis a grant of money sufficient to maintain five hundred knights for two years.

The text of the treaty is given in Rymer, *Fœdera*, i. 675 (ed. of 1704). *See* also *ib.* 688; and Pearson, *Hist. of Eng. during the Early and Middle Ages*, ii. 192, 228.

Abbey. [MONASTICISM.]

Abbot (abbas, literally "father") was a title of respect applied in early times to all monks, but was afterwards specifically restricted to the superior of a monastery. The abbot was elected by the brethren of the monastery, subject to varying and ill-defined rights of the crown and the bishop; but, on the whole, as the position of abbot was one of comparatively small political importance, freedom of election was allowed to a degree very rare in bishopries, and the power and influence of the great orders freed them also in most cases from episcopal jurisdiction. Thus chosen, the abbot held office for life, unless canonically deprived by the bishop. In the earliest days of the English Church, the abbots, like other monks, were very commonly laymen, but later it became usual for them to receive priest's orders; and an early instance of a series of presbyter abbots is to be found in the great foundation of Iona. In Ireland, abbots were either themselves bishops, or usurpers of episcopal functions. In the monastic cathedrals which form such a peculiar feature in English Church history, the bishop was also abbot. The power of the abbot varied with the order to which he belonged, but it was always very high. In theory, as the name denotes, it was paternal; and, in early times, this paternal authority is the same as absolute power. The abbot was to be feared as lord as well as loved as father. No one was allowed to act without his orders and the whole management of the monastery ultimately depended on him. But Benedictine abbots were restricted in various ways by their obligation to observe the rule of their founder. The practical limitations to the power of the abbot were: (*a*) the *prior*; (*b*) the *decani* and *centenarii* chosen by the monks; (*c*) the general *chapter* of the monastery (by the rule of St. Benedict, the abbot was obliged to take counsel with all the monks, junior as well as senior, though the final right of decision rested with him, and not with the brethren); (*d*) the *bishop*, though exemption, after the 12th century, generally took away this check; (*e*) the *advocatus*, an influential layman, who was appointed owing to the inability of the abbot to interfere in person in civil suits, and who consequently largely limited the power of the abbot over the property of the abbey and secular matters generally. But, with all these deductions, the abbot held a most imposing position. As practical landlord of a large district, he had much social influence and political consideration. In England the position of the abbot was especially important; for, introduced by monks, English Christianity had from the first a monastic aspect. Thus half the English cathedrals became Benedictine abbeys, of which the canons were monks and the bishop abbot. As magnates, or as king's chaplains, a few abbots sat in the Witenagemot; and, after the Conquest, many of them attended the Great Council, as holders of feudal baronies, and were ranked after the lords spiritual. Under the early Norman kings, Norman abbots were set over the English monasteries, and in many cases met with determined resistance from their monks. They organised the monastic system more strictly than before; and each new order found a home in England during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. Some abbots were called *mitred*, because they received from the Pope the right of wearing the mitre and other vestments proper to the episcopal office. This did not, however, affect their constitutional position, for abbots were summoned to Parliament as holding baronies under the Crown. The smaller

abbots felt attendance at Parliament to be a strain on their resources, and during the fourteenth century many of them exented deeds declaring that they did not hold their estates by any tenure that involved the duty of parliamentary attendance. In Edward I.'s model Parliament of 1295 there were present 67 abbots and priors; but this number rapidly declined, and in 1341 the number had become 27, which seems to have remained fixed. The abbots summoned in 1483 may be mentioned as showing the chief amongst the body. They were: Peterborough, St. Edmunds, Colchester, Abingdon, Waltham, Shrewsbury, Cirencester, Gloucester, Westminster, St. Albans, Bardney, Selby, St. Benedict of Hulme, Thorney, Evesham, Ramsey, Hyde, Glastonbury, Malmesbury, Crowland, Battle, Winchcombe, Reading, St. Augustine's, St. Mary's York, and the priors of Coventry and St. John of Jerusalem. As the average number of lay lords attending Parliament was about 40, the proportion of 27 abbots was large. The monasteries, however, represented the influence of the papacy as against the bishops, and were left unmolested both by pope and king. The elections of abbots were rarely interfered with by the crown, and in the later middle ages abbots did not take much part in political affairs. They were chiefly busy with the administration of the secular business of their monasteries. When once the work of civilisation had been accomplished, monasticism drifted apart from the general current of national life, and its abuses became increasingly manifest. The religious reformers found little difficulty in calling attention to the sloth and uselessness of the smaller monasteries, and in 1536 the temporalities of all that did not exceed £200 a year were given by Act of Parliament to the king: their number was computed at 380. The greater monasteries followed by process of compulsory surrender, and by 1540 all had been suppressed. They took no common action to avert their doom; the abbots in the House of Lords did not raise their voices against the measure for vesting in the crown the property of monasteries which should be suppressed. With the disappearance of the abbots from the House of Lords, the preponderance of lay over spiritual peers was established, and the subsequent work of the Reformation of the Church was rendered more easy. Lay abbots, or *advocati ecclesiæ*, were common in the abbeys of Irish origin from the 8th to the 12th centuries. They were commonly the descendants of the founder or of a neighbouring lord, and were originally the lessees of the abbey lands. In some cases, the *coarb*, or abbot, chosen by the monks retained his spiritual position, but, in temporal matters, he was quite superseded by the *advocatus*. [Cathedral; Monasticism.]

The ecclesiastical and social position of an abbot can best be gathered by reference to the history of some monastery, such as Walsingham's *Gesta Abbatum Monasterii S. Albani*, ed. Riley, 1863–72. The constitutional questions concerning abbots are discussed in the *Lords' Report on the Dignity of a Peer*, 1829. See also art. *Abbot*, by Mr. Haddan, in the *Dict. of Christian Antiquities*; Montalembert, *The Monks of the West*; and for the Celtic abbots, Skene, *Celtic Scotland*, vol ii., and Dr. Reeves' edition of Adamnan's *Life of St. Columba*. [M. C.]

Abbot, Charles. [Colchester, Lord.]

Abbot, George (*b.* 1562, *d.* 1633), Archbishop of Canterbury, 1611—1633, was born of humble parents in Guildford; studied at Balliol College, Oxford, of which he became fellow in 1582; was elected Master of University College in 1597, and made Dean of Winchester in 1599, Bishop of Lichfield in 1609, and translated to the See of London, 1610. He owed his appointment as archbishop (1611) to his union of Calvinistic theology with a desire to maintain the authority of the crown in ecclesiastical matters. Such a position coincided with the wishes of James I.; but Abbot, though a man of earnest piety, was narrow-minded, stern, and lacking in geniality. He was in theological matters the conspicuous opponent of Laud, who represented the reaction against Calvinism. His conscientiousness was shown by his determined refusal to comply with the wishes of the king in forwarding the divorce of the Countess of Essex from her husband, that she might marry the favourite, Robert Carr, Earl of Somerset. In 1621, at a staghunt at Bramshill Park, Abbot accidentally shot a keeper. This raised the question among canonists whether, in consequence of having shed blood, he had become legally incapacitated from the episcopal office. A commission of bishops and judges appointed to determine this point were divided in opinion, but advised the king that it was desirable that the archbishop should ask for pardon. Though Abbot was greatly shaken by this untoward event, he still was bold enough to express his disapproval of the Spanish marriage of Prince Charles. On the accession of Charles I., Abbot found that his influence at court was gone, and that Laud was the favourite. In 1627 he incurred Charles I.'s displeasure by manfully refusing to license a sermon by Dr. Robert Sibthorpe, in favour of passive obedience. He was ordered by the king to betake himself to his house at Ford, in Kent, and there remain in confinement, while the archbishopric was put into the hands of a commission, with Laud at the head. He was, however, restored to some degree of royal favour next year; but, suffering from disease, and embittered in temper, he was helpless against the influence of Laud. His last years were spent in the indolence of sickness and despair, and his death made way for the undisputed power of his rival. He was buried in Trinity Church, Guildford, where his monument still remains. Abbot was munificent in his benefactions, and built

a hospital at Guildford, which bears his name. He was a worthy man, but had neither knowledge, large-heartedness, nor tact sufficient for his office.

Heylin, *Cyprianus Anglicanus*; Spelman's *Apologie for Archbishop Abbot*, 1727; Abbot's *Narrative* in Rushworth, *Historical Collections*, vol. i. See also Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops*, vol. v., new series. There is a good portrait in the hall of University College, Oxford.

[M. C.]

Abbott, Charles. [Tenterden, Lord.]

Abdication. [Crown.]

Abel, Thomas (*d.* July 30, 1540), chaplain to Catherine of Arragon, strongly opposed the divorce of that princess; and was attainted for his share in the affair of Elizabeth Barton, and found guilty of misprision of treason. He was subsequently imprisoned and executed for denying the king's supremacy, and affirming the legality of the marriage with Catherine. He carved the famous punning inscription (an **A** upon a bell) on the walls of the Beauchamp Tower in the Tower of London.

Archæologia, xiii. 93.

Abercorn, Peerage of. In 1603 James Hamilton, Master of Paisley, grandson of James Hamilton, second Earl of Arran and Duke of Chatelherault [Douglas; Hamilton], was created Baron Abercorn, and in 1606 Earl of Abercorn. John James, ninth Earl, was created Marquis of Abercorn in 1790, and his successor James (*b.* 1811), Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, 1866—68, and 1874—76, was created Duke of Abercorn and Marquis of Hamilton, Aug. 10, 1868. The title is derived from the Castle of Abercorn in Linlithgowshire, a stronghold of the Douglases, taken by James II. in the Douglas rebellion of 1455. Abercorn was the seat of one of the earliest monasteries in Scotland, and of a Pictish bishopric.

Abercromby, Sir Ralph (*b.* 1734, *d.* 1801), born at Tullibody, Clackmannanshire, entered the army as cornet in a dragoon regiment in 1756, and was gazetted to a colonelcy in 1781. He had, however, seen scarcely any active service, on account of his opposition to the government while in the House of Commons, and the sympathy he manifested for the American Colonies. In 1793 he commanded a brigade under the Duke of York in Holland, and was wounded at Nimeguen. In the winter of 1794—5 he showed great skill in protecting, as far as possible, the British forces during their disastrous retreat. After the close of this expedition, he was appointed commander-in-chief of the forces in the West Indies. He returned in 1797, and held the chief command in Ireland during that and the following year. There he showed much talent in re-organising an undisciplined army, as well as statesmanlike tact. Thwarted, however, by the Irish government, he reluctantly resigned his office, and accepted the chief command in Scotland, whence he was called to serve again in the disastrous expedition to Holland under the Duke of York. In 1801 he was appointed to command the expedition against the French in Egypt. With wonderful skill and daring he disembarked his forces at Aboukir in the face of the French army. On March 21, the two armies met near Alexandria. Abercromby gained a complete victory; but the battle, which saved Egypt from the French, cost the English the life of their commander. In acknowledgment of Sir Ralph Abercromby's services, his widow was created a Peeress of the United Kingdom, with the style and title of Baroness Abercromby of Aboukir. The title descended to her eldest son. Her third son, James, Judge-Advocate-General, 1827, Speaker of the House of Commons, 1835—39, was created Lord Dunfermline of Dunfermline in 1839. [Alexandria, Battle of.]

Lord Dunfermline, *Sir R. Abercromby: a Memoir*, 1861; Alison, *History of Europe*.

[W. R. S.]

Aberdeen, was an important place even before its elevation to a city in the twelfth century. It was made a royal burgh by William the Lion, and received a charter from Robert Bruce in 1319. The University was founded in 1494 by Bishop Elphinstone, and Marischal College by George Keith, Earl Marischal, about a century later. They were united in 1860. In 1336 the greater portion of the town was burnt by the English, and when rebuilt was called New Aberdeen.

Aberdeen, Peerage of. In 1682 Sir John Gordon of Haddo, Lord Chancellor of Scotland, was created Earl of Aberdeen in the peerage of Scotland. George, fourth Earl, was made a peer of the United Kingdom in 1813, and in 1818, on his marriage with Lady Catherine Hamilton, assumed the additional surname and arms of Hamilton.

Aberdeen, George Hamilton-Gordon, 4th Earl of (*b.* 1784, *d.* 1860), in 1801 began his diplomatic life as attaché to Lord Cornwallis at Paris when engaged in negotiating the peace of Amiens. In 1806 he was elected a representative peer of Scotland. In 1813 he was employed on a mission to induce Austria to break with Napoleon, and in this he was highly successful. He followed the allied armies; was present at Lutzen, Bautzen, and Leipzig; was employed to detach Murat from Napoleon; and was the colleague of Lord Castlereagh at the Congress of Chatillon. He took no further share in public life until 1827—28, when he was offered the Chancellorship of the Duchy of Lancaster by the Duke of Wellington with a seat in the Cabinet, and shortly after was promoted to the Foreign Office. In this capacity he took a prominent share in the management of the Greek question, and the formation of the Hellenic Kingdom, recognised by the

Porte in 1829. In general, however, he was in favour of a policy of neutrality in continental questions. He recognised Louis Philippe immediately; he refused to employ the English power to dispossess Don Miguel of the crown of Portugal; and he strongly objected to the Quadruple Alliance which Lord Palmerston negotiated. His first tenure of office ended in 1830. He was Colonial Secretary under Sir R. Peel in 1834–35, and Foreign Secretary to the same statesman in 1841. He assisted in carrying the repeal of the Corn Laws and the commercial reforms of Peel, and on the death of that statesman he became the acknowledged head of his party. When in succession both Whigs and Tories had failed to carry on the government, and there was no course left but to apply to the Peelites, Lord Aberdeen was invited to form a government, 1852. He formed a coalition ministry, embracing "men of all parties, from the extreme Tory to the extreme Radical." It was his misfortune to be met by the complications in foreign politics which led to the Crimean War. It was thought at the time, and the opinion has been frequently expressed since, that a greater display of vigour on the part of the ministry might have averted the war. The mismanagement of the campaign completed the unpopularity of the ministry. On January 25th, 1855, Mr. Roebuck moved for a select committee to inquire into the state of the army and the conduct of the war. On the motion being carried Lord Aberdeen resigned, and during the remainder of his life took no further share in public affairs. In his home policy Lord Aberdeen represented the advanced section of the Conservatives, regarding Catholic Emancipation and the repeal of the Corn Laws as advantageous measures rather than as necessary evils. In foreign politics he was the advocate of the principles of friendship with foreign powers, and non-intervention, which he perhaps attempted to apply too indiscriminately. Lord Aberdeen, "the travelled thane, Athenian Aberdeen," of Byron's *English Bards and Scotch Reviewers*, was an accomplished scholar, specially learned in Hellenic antiquities.

The policy and administration of Lord Aberdeen are discussed in Kinglake, *Invasion of the Crimea*, esp. ii. 62.

Aberdeen Doctors, was the name given, in 1638—9, to six clergymen of Aberdeen—John Forbes, Robert Baron, Alexander Ross, William Leslie, Alexander Scroggie, and James Sibbald—who strenuously opposed the compulsory administration to all persons of the oath to preserve the Solemn League and Covenant.

Spalding, *Memorials*, i. 98, &c.; and Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*, vi. cap. lxxii.

Abergavenny, Peerage of. Nov. 23, 1392, William Beauchamp was summoned to Parliament by writ as Lord Bergavenny or Abergavenny. The peerage passed to a branch of the Neville family on the marriage of Sir Edward Neville (second son of Ralph Neville, Earl of Westmoreland, by Joan, daughter of John of Gaunt) with Elizabeth, heiress of Richard Beauchamp, Earl of Worcester, Baron Bergavenny. George, fifteenth Baron, was created Earl in 1784, and William, fifth Earl, was advanced to the dignity of Marquis in 1876. [Neville.]

Abergavenny, George Neville, 3rd Baron (*d.* 1536), was one of the nobles arrested in 1502 on suspicion of being engaged in a conspiracy with Edmund de la Pole, Earl of Suffolk. He was, however, soon restored to liberty, and eventually came into great favour with Henry VII. and Henry VIII. During the Cornish revolt of 1497, it was partly owing to Lord Abergavenny's local influence that the insurgents met with no encouragement from the people of Kent.

Abergavenny, Henry Neville, 4th Baron (*d.* 1587), who was supposed to favour the insurgents in 1554, finally declared for Mary, and defeated the rebels at Wrotham Heath (q.v.). He was one of the commissioners at the trial of Mary, Queen of Scots, in 1586.

Abhorrers (1679), was the name given to the adherents of the court party, who, on petitions being presented to the king, praying him to summon Parliament for January, 1680, signed counter-petitions, expressing *abhorrence* for those who were attempting to encroach on the royal prerogative. [*See* Petitioners.] It is said that the names Whig and Tory, as party designations, were first used in the disputes between the Petitioners and Abhorrers.

Burnet, *History of His Own Time*, ii. 238; Rapin, *Hist. of Eng.* ii. 712; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.* i. 258.

Abingdon Abbey Chronicle, The, is a well-preserved record which narrates the history of the great Benedictine monastery of Abingdon. It extends from the foundation of the abbey in 675 to the accession of Richard I. in 1189. It is specially useful for the light it throws on social history, on the relations of the clergy to the laity, on the state of society before the Norman Conquest, and on the details of the changes produced by that event.

The *Chronicon Monasterii de Abingdon* has been printed in the Rolls Series, 1858, with valuable introductions by Mr. Stevenson.

Abingdon, Peerage of. In 1572 Sir Henry Norris, who was ambassador to France the preceding year, and son of the Sir Henry Norris beheaded in 1536 for alleged criminality with Anne Boleyn, was created Baron Norris of Ryecote. He was the father of the distinguished military commander, Sir John Norris. His grandson, Francis, was created Earl of Berkshire in 1620, but died the same year, and the Berkshire peerage

expired. The Norris peerage descended by the female line to James Bertie, who was created Earl of Abingdon in 1682. This nobleman commanded the Oxfordshire Militia against the Duke of Monmouth on the latter's invasion of England. He, however, opposed James II.'s action in religious matters, and was the first English peer to join William.

Abinger, James Scarlett, Lord (*b.* 1769, *d.* 1844), the second son of Robert Scarlett of Jamaica, after gaining great reputation as an advocate, entered Parliament in 1818 as member for Peterborough. He resisted the plans of Castlereagh and Vansittart for increased taxation, and supported Romilly and Mackintosh in their attempts to ameliorate the Penal Code. He also unsuccessfully endeavoured to bring in a bill for amending the Poor Laws. In 1827, when Mr. Canning sought the assistance of the Whigs, Mr. Scarlett became Attorney-General. He now gradually drifted over to Conservatism. He retained his office under Lord Goderich, and, on the dismissal of Sir Charles Wetherell by the Duke of Wellington, took office again under the latter. In 1830 he resigned with his party. In 1834 he was made Chief Baron by Sir R. Peel, and raised to the peerage.

Foss, *The Judges of England.*

Abjuration Oath, The (1701), was a pledge of renunciation of the exiled Stuart dynasty, exacted from time to time after the Revolution of 1688. It first appears in 1690, embodied in a proposed "Act for the further security of his Majesty's person, and for extinguishing the hopes of the pretended Prince of Wales, and all other pretenders and their abettors." Every person who held any office, civil, military, or spiritual, was to solemnly abjure the exiled king; the oath of abjuration might be tendered by any justice of the peace to any subject of their Majesties; and, if it were refused, the recusant might be sent to prison, to lie there as long as he continued obstinate. The influence of William caused this bill to be rejected, as well as a less severe measure, imposing a declaration on all office-holders that they would stand by William and Mary against James and James's adherents. In the last year of the reign, after Louis XIV. had acknowledged the Pretender, it was again introduced in the "Act for the further security of his Majesty's person, and the succession of the crown in the Protestant line." After a long debate in the Commons, the abjuration oath was made compulsory; but the provision was only carried by a majority of one. William gave his assent to the measure on his death-bed. On the accession of Anne a new Act was passed, applying the oath to the new reign. The oath was taken freely by the Tories, and even by noted Jacobites, the Pretender having, it was said, sent instructions to that effect to his adherents. It was renewed on the occasion of the union with Scotland, when the Scottish clergy petitioned against it, but without result. The bill was subsequently re-introduced on the accession of George I., and on the death of the old Pretender (1766). The oath was not finally abolished until 1858. "The definition of persons required to take the Abjuration Oath," says Mr. Burton, "is an attempt, and a successful attempt, to exhaust the gentry and the educated community." It included the holders of all public offices, members of the universities, and all teachers, clergymen, and legal practitioners; and as a general remedy of omissions, the oath might be tendered "to any person or persons whatsoever."

Burnet, *Hist. of his Own Time*; Burton, *Reign of Queen Anne*; Stanhope, *Reign of Queen Anne*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.* [L. C. S.]

Abjuration Oath for Scotland, The (1662), was imposed on all persons holding public office, and consisted, among other abjurations, of a declaration that the Covenant and League "are of themselves unlawful oaths, and were taken by and imposed upon the subjects of this kingdom against the fundamental laws and liberties of the same." The oath was modified in 1716, when it became a simple declaration of allegiance to the Hanover settlement and a renunciation of the Stuarts. [Covenant.]

Abjuration of the Realm, The Oath of, was the oath to quit the country, which might be enforced on any felon who had taken advantage of the privilege of sanctuary. Such a person was bound to leave the kingdom within thirty days, and if he returned he might be put to death. The practice was abolished, in company with the privilege of sanctuary, by James I., cap. 28. [Sanctuary.] By a statute passed in the 35th year of Elizabeth, Protestant Dissenters who had failed to attend divine service, and Roman Catholics, might be compelled to abjure the realm, and if they refused, or returned without licence, they were adjudged felons, and might be hanged. Dissenters were relieved of the necessity of abjuration by the Act of Toleration; but as regards Roman Catholics, it was not finally removed from the Statute Book till 1791.

Abraham, Heights of. [Quebec; Wolfe.]

Absenteeism, owing to the character of the conquest of Ireland, and the lapse of many great Irish fiefs to English baronial houses, early became a crying evil in that country. In 1331, Edward III. called on all absentees to follow him to Ireland and defend their estates. When Lionel of Clarence went out in 1361, the same demand was made. In 1374, too, they were called up to go in person or send substitutes. The first statute on the subject was passed in 1379 in an English Parliament, ordering all proprietors who were absentees

to contribute two-thirds of their means to the defence of Ireland. In 1413 all Irishmen were, with the same object, ordered to leave England, and were excluded from the Inns of Court. In Henry VI.'s reign, legislation against absenteeism was also frequent. James II. in 1689 summoned all absentees to join him. Under George I., absenteeism having much increased, in 1729 an absentee-tax of four shillings in the pound was imposed on all moneys paid out of Ireland; but the king being allowed to grant exemptions, it did not do much good. In 1767, this law was renewed, and the exemptions done away with, or, at least, only maintained for members of the royal family and distinguished officers. But an attempt to increase the tax in 1773 had to be given up, owing to the opposition it aroused in England. In 1783, a like attempt failed in Ireland. In 1796, an absentee-tax was defeated in the Irish Parliament by English influence, and after that no such measure was mooted, though the evil continued to increase. In 1779, Arthur Young estimated the amount of rent annually sent out of the country, at £732,000.

Almost every Irish historian, statesman, and economist, has had something to say on the subject of absenteeism. The reader will find it referred to, at some length, in Froude, *The English in Ireland*, passim; Lecky, *Hist. of Eng.*, vol. ii.; the works of Swift and Arthur Young; and *The Report of the Select Committee on the State of Ireland*, 1828.

Abyssinian Expedition, The (1867). Theodore, King of Abyssinia, fancying that he was slighted by the British Government, who had refused to assist him against the Egyptians, had seized and imprisoned in his fortress of Magdala all the British subjects within his reach. Among others was Mr. Cameron, British Consul at Massowah. An embassy was sent to the king, headed by Mr. Rassam, British Assistant-Resident at Aden, to expostulate. The mission was at first well received and cajoled by the crafty king, but eventually seized and imprisoned with the rest. Lord Stanley's remonstrance being disregarded, war was declared. It was waged from India, and the expedition was despatched from Bombay in the winter of 1867 under Sir Robert Napier. The campaign was conducted under difficulties, which arose from the varying nature of the climate and the natural impediments of the ground. The difficult task of transporting the military stores and artillery in a country where roads were unknown, and which bristled with lofty and rugged mountains, was performed with complete success. The baggage-elephants were especially useful, and greatly facilitated the progress of the expedition. Little resistance was experienced from the natives. There were one or two straggling skirmishes, and a wild battle was fought, in which the reckless bravery of the Abyssinians proved ineffectual against the serried masses of the English bayonets, and the deadly fire of the English artillery. Theodore, at last, sent back all the prisoners, and offered to treat. Napier, however, refused to listen to any terms short of a total surrender, and to this the king refused to agree. He shut himself up in his citadel of Magdala, which was perched upon a lofty rock, and defended not only by the natural difficulty of the ascent, but also by walls of great thickness, and gateways strongly fortified. The English, with great bravery, surmounted the difficulties of the ascent, forced their way through the gate at the top, and fought from post to post till the position was won. Theodore was found dead inside the gate, slain by his own hand. The town and fortress were destroyed, and within a week the troops were on the sea returning home. Sir Robert Napier for his services was created Lord Napier of Magdala, with a pension, and received the thanks of both Houses of Parliament. He died in 1890.

Acadia. [Nova Scotia.]

Accord, The, is the name given by some Scotch writers to the Treaty of Leith (q.v.).

Acre, or St. Jean d'Acre, a town on the coast of Syria, anciently called Ptolemais, is connected with three episodes in English history:—(1) The Siege of Acre. In June, 1191, Richard I. arrived before the town, which had already been besieged by the Crusaders for more than two years, with the loss, it is said, of over 120,000 men. A series of assaults was immediately made on the town, but these were seriously impeded by the attacks of Saladin on the Christian lines. At length, however, the garrison offered to treat; they were allowed to retain their lives, and (July 12) the Crusaders marched into the town. (2) The Defence of Acre. On March 16, 1799, Bonaparte's Egyptian army appeared before Acre. The town was held by a Turkish garrison, under Yussuf Pasha, aided by Sir Sidney Smith, who commanded the English squadron in the roads, and a French engineer, Philippoteaux, who had once been a school-fellow of Bonaparte. Animated by these leaders, the Turks held out with great bravery for sixty days of open trenches; and on May 20 the French were compelled to retreat. "That miserable fort," as Napoleon called it, was thus the means of causing his Syrian expedition to be abandoned, and his great projects of Oriental conquest to be altogether hopeless. Alluding to Sir Sidney Smith, he is said to have frequently remarked: "That man made me miss my destiny." (3) The Bombardment of Acre, Nov. 3, 1840. After the refusal of Mehemet Ali to agree to the terms of the Quadrilateral Alliance, 1840, a combined Austrian, Turkish, and British squadron (the latter, consisting of 6 line-of-battle ships, and 10 smaller vessels, commanded by Admiral

Sir R. Stopford) sailed to the coast of Syria, and bombarded Acre, which fell in total ruins after enduring a tremendous fire for three hours.

Act of Parliament. [STATUTES.]

Acton Burnel, PARLIAMENT OF (1283), was the name given to one of the sessions of Edward I.'s great council, reinforced probably by the merchants who had previously met in the Parliament at Shrewsbury. The presence of so many representatives of the commercial classes was taken advantage of by the king to issue the ordinance known as the *Statute of Merchants*.

Adamnan, ST. (*b.* 624, *d.* 704), Abbot of Iona, was converted, while on a mission to Aldfrid of Northumbria in 688, to the custom of the Roman Church with regard to the observance of Easter—a conversion which embroiled him in disputes with the monks of Iona. In 692 he attended the Synod of Tara, and successfully urged, on part of the Irish Church, the necessity of conformity to the rest of the Church. Adamnan wrote in Latin the *Life of St. Columba*, which although containing some elements of legend, is the great authority for the history of the old Celtic Church. It has been edited by Bishop Reeves for the Irish Arch. Soc. and the Bannatyne Club. This edition has been re-issued with an English translation in the *Historians of Scotland*. He also wrote *De Situ Terræ Sanctæ*.

Adams, JOHN (*b.* 1735, *d.* 1826), second President of the United States, was a lawyer in Boston, and took an active part in the measures of the colonists to defend their rights against the English Government. In the Philadelphia Congress of 1774 he was delegate for Massachusetts, and he was one of the members of the "Continental Congress" of 1775. In this assembly he advocated immediate and vigorous hostile measures against the mother country, being convinced that any further attempts at reconciliation were hopeless. Adams was a skilful practical lawyer, as well as an earnest student of the philosophy of politics and jurisprudence; and much of the shape which the national and state constitutions assumed, as well as the curious basis of speculative legal theory on which the acts of the earlier congresses were grounded, was largely due to his influence. He was a declared opponent of the "pure democracy," advocated by a large section of the American leaders, and favoured the system of government by double chambers and "checks and balances," which was often stigmatised as aristocratic. In 1777 he was sent as diplomatic agent of the new government to Paris, and for the greater part of the next ten years was engaged in political and financial missions to the courts of France, Holland, and England. On his return to America in 1788 he was chosen Vice-President of the Union, and was immediately involved in the bitter party contests between the federalists, who followed Hamilton, and the republicans, who were now led by Jefferson. In 1797 Adams was chosen President by a slight and doubtful federalist majority. His term of office was not altogether a successful one. The southern federalists were only lukewarm supporters, and the republicans bitterly assailed him in public and private. Like Washington, Adams held to the principle of neutrality in the contest between France and the other European states; but this made him very unpopular with the powerful body of republicans within the States. In the presidential election of 1801, Adams was defeated by Jefferson, and retired from public life amidst a storm of very undeserved obloquy. Adams was a voluminous writer of political and quasi-political treatises, and his works are very valuable for a correct understanding of the views and principles which actuated one large section of the founders of the United States.

C. F. Adams, *Life and Works of John Adams*, 10 vols., Boston, 1850; J. Q. and C. F. Adams, *Life of J. Adams*, 2 vols., 1871; Jared Sparks, *Diplomatic Correspondence of the Amer. Revolution*; Guizot, *Washington*. [S. J. L.]

Adams, SAMUEL (*b.* 1722, *d.* 1803), a distant relation of John Adams, was a leading member of the Boston "Caucus" Club, and took a considerable part in founding similar associations elsewhere. He was one of the first to oppose the measures by which the English Parliament attempted to raise revenue from the trade of the American colonists, and he did, perhaps, more than any other man to rouse the people of Massachusetts to open resistance. In American politics he was by no means a devoted follower of Washington, and was in many respects an opponent of the federalist constitution. In 1797 he retired from the governorship of Massachusetts, when the federal party were predominant. It is in a (probably spurious) speech of Samuel Adams, printed in London, and purporting to have been delivered at Philadelphia, August 1, 1776, that the famous phrase, "a nation of shopkeepers," is applied to England. The speech was translated into French, and Bonaparte probably borrowed his use of the appellation from it.

W. V. Wells, *Life of Samuel Adams*, Boston, 1865.

Adamson, PATRICK (*b.* 1537, *d.* 1592), Archbishop of St. Andrews, was educated in France, and returned to Scotland in 1573, when he entered the ministry. In 1575 he was one of the commissioners employed to settle the constitution of the Church of Scotland, and soon after was appointed by the Regent Morton Archbishop of St. Andrews. His life thenceforward was a long course of opposition to the Presbyterian party, who lost no opportunity of taking proceedings against him, and finally succeeded in getting him excom-

municated, and deprived of the revenues of his see, so that, it is said, his last years were passed in actual want. He was the author of a poetical version of the Book of Job, and other works in Latin verse.

Calderwood, *True Hist. of the Church of Scotland*; Cunningham, *Church Hist. of Scotland*.

Addington, Henry, Viscount Sidmouth (*b.* 1757, *d.* 1844), the son of Anthony Addington, Lord Chatham's family physician, was called to the Bar about the same time as Pitt, whose intimate friend he was. By Pitt he was persuaded to leave the Bar, and to turn his attention to political life. He was accordingly returned to Parliament as member for Devizes, and soon became conspicuous as a devoted follower of Pitt. In 1789 he was elected Speaker, and presided over the House until, on Pitt's resignation in 1801, he was invited by the king to form an administration. It was very feeble, and would scarcely have lived a month if Pitt had not for a time given it his protection and advice. Addington's ministry was chiefly signalised by the conclusion of the treaty of Amiens; but when Pitt withdrew his support, the utter weakness of the Cabinet became very clear, and Addington was forced to make way for his former leader. There was now a complete breach between the two, and Addington, who had been created Viscount Sidmouth, attacked Lord Melville, and through him the Prime Minister, with great vehemence. After Pitt's death, Addington became President of the Council in the Grenville and Fox administration. In the ministry of Perceval and the Duke of Portland he had no place; but, when Lord Liverpool came into office in 1812, he was appointed Home Secretary. In this position his repressive policy, and the hostility he showed to popular movements, made him remarkably unpopular with the nation at large; but he maintained his post for several years, until he resigned it to Sir Robert Peel, 1822, after which he took but little share in politics. His administration has been described by Macaulay as one which, in an age preeminently fruitful of parliamentary talents, contained hardly a single man who, in parliamentary talents, could be considered as even of the second rate. "He was," the same writer says, "universally admitted to have been the best speaker that had sate in the Chair since the retirement of Onslow. But nature had not bestowed on him very vigorous faculties," and his long occupation of the Chair had unfitted him for the task of heading an administration.

Pellew, *Life and Correspondence of Lord Sidmouth*, 1847; Stanhope, *Life of Pitt*; Russell, *Life of Fox*; Lord Holland, *Memoirs*.

[W. R. S.]

Addison, Joseph (*b.* 1672, d. 1719), was the son of the Reverend Launcelot Addison, afterwards Dean of Lichfield. Joseph Addison was educated at the Charterhouse and Magdalen College, Oxford, where his Latin compositions gained him considerable reputation. He was elected to a fellowship in 1699. Soon after leaving Oxford, he became acquainted with Charles Montague, Earl of Halifax, and subsequently with Lord Somers, through whose influence he received, in 1695, a pension of £300 a year. In 1699 he left England, and travelled over France and Italy, until the death of William III. In 1704 his *Campaign*, a poem on the battle of Blenheim, written at the request of Godolphin, was highly successful, and at once brought its author into note. Henceforth his rise was rapid. He became Commissioner of Appeals, Secretary to the Legation at Hanover, and in 1708 Under-Secretary of State. In 1708 he entered Parliament as member for Lostwithiel. In the autumn of the same year, Lord Wharton, the Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, appointed him his Chief Secretary and Keeper of the Records. From Ireland Addison sent his contributions to the *Tatler*, the first of the periodical publications, which his friend Steele projected. With Steele he was one of the founders of the new literary school of the Essayists, who introduced into English Prose a remarkable simplicity and purity of style, and in whose light and graceful publications modern periodical literature had its source. On the fall of the Whigs in 1710, Addison was dismissed from office. During the General Election he contributed some violent party papers to a political journal, entitled the *Whig Examiner*. In March, 1711, the *Spectator* appeared, under the conduct of Steele, and during the years of its existence (March, 1711—Dec., 1714), Addison was the principal contributor. In 1713 Addison's tragedy, *Cato*, was put on the stage. Political feeling was high at the time, and the opposite principles appealed to in the play caused it to be highly successful, both with Whigs and Tories. On the death of Anne, Addison was made Secretary to the Lords of the Regency. On the accession of George I., he again became Chief Secretary to the Lord-Lieutenant. In 1715 he published the *Freeholder*, the best of his political writings. The next year he married the Dowager Countess of Warwick, and in 1717 became Secretary of State. But his health was failing, and his marriage was unhappy. He finally quitted office in 1718, with a pension of £1,500 a year. In 1719 his defence of the Peerage Bill involved him in a quarrel with Steele, whom he attacked in a party journal called the *Old Whig*. This was the last of Addison's literary efforts. He died June 17, 1719, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. Addison's importance in the political history of England is not great, though he held high office, and his personal career was remarkably successful, even for an age when literary merit, aided by a certain amount of

influential patronage, was frequentiy a passport to wealth and power. In Parliament he was a silent member, and as Secretary of State he was not particularly successful. In principles he was a strict Whig of a somewhat narrow cast; and in the schism which took place in 1717 it is notable that he supported the "old Whigs," Sunderland and Stanhope, against the more progressive section of the party which Walpole headed. It is as an essayist that he won his title to fame, though his political writings are valuable, as exhibiting the doctrines and principles of the earlier Whig statesman of the Revolution school, set forth with the skill and finish of a consummate literary artist. His chief political writings are *The Present State of the War* (1707), *The Trial and Conviction of Count Tariff* (1713), and the *Freeholder* (1715—16); and his contributions to the *Whig Examiner* (1710) and the *Old Whig* (1719).

The *Works* of Addison were published in six volumes, with Notes by Bishop Hurd in 1811. There is a good *Life* by Miss Aikin, published in 1843, and a lengthy memoir in the *Biographia Britannica*. The famous character of Addison, under the name of Atticus, in Pope's *Epistle to Dr. Arbuthnot*, and Macaulay's account of the relations between Addison and Steele in his essay on the former are well known. See also *Dict. of Nat. Biog.* [S. J. L.]

Addled Parliament was the name given to the Parliament which sat from April 5 to June 7, 1614. No Parliament had been in session since 1611; but in 1614 the condition of the finances, and the unwillingness of the people to pay the Customs levied by the king without the sanction of Parliament, made it essential to assemble one. James hoped that, by employing "undertakers" or intermediaries, between himself and the Commons, he might obtain a considerable grant in return for the renunciation of some small portions of the royal prerogative. But when Parliament met, it showed itself determined not to grant any supplies until the king's claim to levy Customs had been surrendered. Finding that the Commons persisted in their determination to make redress of grievances precede grants of supply, James dissolved Parliament before a single statute had been passed, and committed the leaders of the opposition to prison.

Addresses to the Crown are (1) from Parliament, (2) from the people. (1) Since the time of Edward I., Parliament has exercised the privilege which it inherited from the Great Council of the Baronage, of freely offering its advice to the crown, and demanding the abolition of grievances. Nearly all the legislation of the fourteenth century is based upon the petitions of Parliament. From the reign of Henry VI., the petitions and addresses began to assume the form of actual statutes, and were called bills. In later history, Parliament asserted its right to address the Crown on subjects of wider policy, such as the settlement of the succession under Elizabeth, and recommendations to the queen to marry (1562 and 1566); whilst advice on questions of peace and war has often been tendered to the Crown by Parliament. Thus the House of Commons presented a remonstrance against the continuance of the American war, and on receiving an unsatisfactory answer, declared that it would "consider as enemies to his Majesty and this country all who should advise or by any means attempt the further prosecution of offensive war on the continent of America, for the purpose of reducing the revolted colonies to obedience by force." Addresses to the Crown are always moved in both Houses in answer to the Royal Speech at the beginning of the Session; and the Debate upon the Address has become the formal opportunity for approving or challenging the Ministerial policy put forward in the Royal Speech. (2) Addresses from individuals have been offered to the king from the earliest times, usually in the form of petitions for pardons, or redress of private grievances; and though these petitions were subsequently usually made to the House of Commons, they were occasionally laid at once before the sovereign himself, as in the case of the petition of the clergy in 1344. The practice of addressing the Crown on political matters had, however, no precedent until the time of Charles I. (1640), and in 1662 was restrained by an Act against tumultuous petitioning. In 1679 the Whig petitions for the assembling of Parliament were met on the part of the Tories by counter-addresses from the Abhorrers (q.v.). In 1701 petitions were presented, praying for the dissolution of Parliament, and again in 1710; whilst in 1784 numerous addresses to the king set forth that the people were willing to support Mr. Pitt and the prerogative. The constitutional character of the addresses of 1710 were supported by a vote of the House of Commons, which affirmed "that it is the undoubted right of the people of England to petition or address the king for the calling, sitting, and dissolving Parliaments, and for the redressing of grievances." [Crown; Petitions.]

For the practice and procedure observed in Addresses from Parliament, see May, *Law of Parliament*, chap. xvii., and *Const. Hist.*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Hallam, *Const. Hist.* [F. S. P.]

Aden, an important military position on the south-west coast of Arabia, was taken by the English in 1839, and, in spite of attacks made upon it by the Arabs, has ever since remained under British rule. Its position gives it a great importance as a coaling station for the Indo-European steamers. Aden is governed by a Resident, and forms part of the Bombay presidency.

Adelaide, QUEEN (*b.* 1792, *d.* 1849), the daughter of George, Duke of Saxe-Meiningen, was married to the Duke of Clarence, 1818. On the accession of the Duke of Clarence as William IV., a bill was passed [REGENCY BILLS] appointing her Regent, in case any child of the king's succeeded him during minority. She scrupulously abstained from interfering in politics; but in spite of this, the dissolution of the Melbourne Cabinet in 1834 was attributed to her influence. After the accession of Queen Victoria, her life was chiefly spent in works of charity and benevolence.

Adelais of Louvain (*b.* 1103) was the second wife of Henry I., to whom she was married in 1121. She survived her husband, and subsequently married William de Albini, ancestor of the family of Howard.

Adjutators, THE (sometimes erroneously styled *Agitators*), were representatives elected by each regiment of the Puritan army in 1647, to act in concert with the officers in compelling Parliament to satisfy the demands of the army before disbanding it. They presented a petition to Parliament, in which they complained of "the ambition of a few men, who had long been servants, but were degenerating into tyrants." The Parliament, finding it impossible any longer to refuse to listen to the demands of the army, sent a committee, consisting of Cromwell, Ireton, Skippon, and Fleetwood, to head-quarters to pacify the soldiers. But the army mutinied, seized the money intended for their pay, and expelled the officers whom they suspected. On May 29 a great meeting of Adjutators, under the authority of Fairfax, was held at Bury St. Edmunds, and a rendezvous of all the troops called at Newmarket. On June 2 the army leaders sent Cornet Joyce to remove the king out of the hands of the Parliament. This having been done, on June 10 a great rendezvous of the army was held at Triploe Heath, near Cambridge. Here the army refused to accept the conditions of Parliament, demanded the dismissal of eleven of the most obnoxious Presbyterian leaders, and began to march on London. On the approach of the army the eleven withdrew, and the Independents became for a time the majority in the House. But the City of London was strongly Presbyterian, and on July 26 a large muster of apprentices and others came unto the House, and compelled the recall of the eleven members, and the replacing of the London militia in the hands of the Presbyterians. Thereupon the army, which had been encamped close to London, entered the city (August 8) and again expelled the eleven members. The power was now entirely in the hands of the army, and the Adjutators were busy holding meetings, and urging forward extreme measures, and demanding vengeance on the king. Cromwell and the officers began to grow anxious to restore discipline in the army, and when some of the regiments showed signs of acting independently, vigorous measures were taken, one of the ringleaders shot, and others placed under arrest. Lilburne and others attempted to revive the Adjutators in 1649; but the attempt was frustrated by Cromwell. [CROMWELL; FAIRFAX.]

Whitelocke, *Memoirs;* Ludlow, *Memoirs;* Carlyle, *Cromwell;* Guizot, *Hist. of the Eng. Rev.*

[F. S. P.]

Admiral, THE LORD HIGH, was one of the great officers of State who was specially concerned with the government of the navy and the administration of maritime affairs. The name is derived from an Asiatic word corresponding to the Arabic *Amir*, and the Turkish *Emir*, a commander or general; and it was probably adopted by the English either directly from the Saracens, in the course of the later Crusades, or from the Sicilians or Genoese. We hear of the appointment of officers called "custodes maris" from time to time under the Norman and earlier Angevin kings, but the definite organisation of the Admiralty dates from the reign of Edward I., who in 1294 appointed William Leyburne "captain of all the postmen," and in 1306 appointed three admirals, with jurisdiction over the eastern, western, and southern coasts respectively. In 1360 a single High Admiral was first appointed. From 1404 till 1632 there was an uninterrupted succession of Lord High Admirals of England, whose duties were not only to act as Naval Commanders-in-Chief, but also as Ministers of Marine and Presidents of the Court of Admiralty. In 1632 the duties of the office were entrusted to a commission of the great officers of state; and under the Commonwealth naval affairs were managed by a Committee of Parliament, and afterwards by Cromwell. After the Restoration, the office of Lord High Admiral was held by King Charles II., and by James, as Duke of York and as King, and by Prince George of Denmark, the husband of Queen Anne. Since 1708, however, the office has always been in commission, with the exception of a short period (May, 1827—Sept., 1828), when the Duke of Clarence, afterwards King William IV., was Lord High Admiral. By the Acts 2 Will. and Mary, c. 2, and 1 Geo. iv. c. 90, the authorities, jurisdiction, and powers of the Lord High Admiral were vested in the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty. The chief of these commissioners is styled the First Lord of the Admiralty. In modern times he has become practically sole and responsible Minister for the Navy, and is now always a member of the Cabinet. In 1869, Mr. Childers, then First Lord of the Admiralty, introduced important changes into the working of the department

which tended to give the minister more undivided control and responsibility. The First Lord, who is generally a civilian, is assisted by the three Naval Lords, one Civil Lord, and the Secretary to the Admiralty, who has charge of financial and parliamentary business.

The title of ADMIRAL has also been used continuously since the 13th century to designate the highest grade in the Royal Navy; but it does not appear to have come into general use in this sense till the latter part of the 16th century. There were formerly three classes of Admirals, those of the Red, the White, and the Blue squadrons, but this distinction was abolished in 1864. [NAVY.]

LORD HIGH ADMIRALS.

William de Leybourne, or Leiburn, is styled at the Assembly at Bruges 8th March, 15 Ed. I., *Admirallus Maris Angliæ*	1286
John de Botetort, Admiral of the North: William de Leiburn, Admiral of the South	1294
John de Bello Campo, or Beauchamp, constituted High Admiral of both West and North	1360
Sir Robert Herle	1361
Sir Ralph de Spigurnell	1364
Richard Fitz-Alan, Earl of Arundel	1387
Edward of Rutland, afterwards of Albemarle, High Admiral	1392
John Beaufort, Marquis of Dorset (natural son of John of Gaunt), High Admiral of the Northern, Western, and Irish Fleets	1398
Thomas Percy, Earl of Worcester, Admiral of both parts	1399
Thomas of Lancaster, High Steward of England, afterwards Duke of Clarence	1404
John Beaufort, Earl of Somerset	1406
Edmund Holland, Earl of Kent.	1407
Sir Thomas Beaufort, natural son of John of Gaunt, created by letters patent, 1411, Admiral of England, Ireland, and Aquitaine for life	1408
John of Lancaster, Duke of Bedford, son of Henry IV.	1426
John Holland, Duke of Exeter, constituted, together with his son, Admirals of England, Ireland, and Aquitaine	1436
William de la Pole, Marquis and Earl of Suffolk, Admiral of England, Ireland, and Aquitaine	1446
Henry Holland, Duke of Exeter	1449
Richard Nevil, Earl of Warwick	1461
William Nevil, Earl of Kent	1462
Richard, Duke of Gloucester	1465
Richard Nevil	1466
Richard, Duke of Gloucester	1471
John Howard, Duke of Norfolk	1483
John de Vere, Earl of Oxford	1485
Edward Howard (afterwards Duke of Norfolk)	1513
Thomas Howard (brother of the above, afterwards Duke of Norfolk)	1514
Henry, Duke of Richmond	1526
William Fitzwilliam, Earl of Southampton	1537
John Russel, Lord Russel	1541
John Dudley	1543
Lord Thomas Seymour	1548
John Dudley, Earl of Warwick	1551
Edward, Lord Clinton	1552
William Howard of Effingham	1553
Edward, Lord Clinton	1555
Charles, Lord Howard of Effingham	1585
George, Duke of Buckingham	1619
Committee of Parliament	1649—1660
James, Duke of York	1660—1673
Charles II., by his Privy Councillors	1673—1684
James II., as Duke of York and King	1684—1689
Thomas, Earl of Pembroke	1702
George, Prince of Denmark	1702—1708
William, Duke of Clarence	1827—1828

FIRST LORDS OF THE ADMIRALTY.

Prince Rupert		1673
Sir Henry Capell		1679
Daniel Finch (afterwards Earl of Nottingham)		1680
Arthur Herbert		1689
Thomas, Earl of Pembroke		1690
Charles, Lord Cornwallis		1692
Anthony, Viscount Falkland		1693
Edward Russell		1694
Edward, Earl of Oxford		1697
John, Earl of Bridgewater		1699
Edward, Earl of Oxford		1709
Sir John Leake		1710
Thomas, Earl of Strafford		1712
Edward, Earl of Oxford		1714
James, Earl of Berkeley		1717
Viscount Torrington		1727
Sir Charles Wager		1733
Daniel, Earl of Winchelsea		1741
John, Duke of Bedford		1744
John, Earl of Sandwich		1748
George, Lord Anson		1751
Richard, Earl Temple		1756
Earl of Winchelsea		1757
Lord Anson		1757
George, Earl of Halifax		1762
George Grenville		1762
Earl of Sandwich		1763
John, Earl of Egmont		1763
Sir Charles Saunders		1766
Sir Edward Hawke		1766
Earl of Sandwich		1771
Augustus, Viscount Keppel		1782
Richard, Viscount Howe	Jan. 30,	1783
Viscount Keppel	April 10,	1783
Viscount Howe	Dec. 31,	1783
John, Earl of Chatham		1788
George, Earl Spencer		1794
John, Earl of St. Vincent		1801
Henry, Lord Melville		1804
Charles, Lord Bartram		1805
Charles Grey		1806
Thomas Grenville		1806
Henry, Lord Mulgrave		1807
Charles Yorke		1809
Robert, Lord Melville		1812
Sir James Graham		1830
George, Lord Auckland		1834
Philip, Earl de Grey		1834
Lord Auckland	April 25,	1835
Gilbert, Earl of Minto	Sept. 19,	1835
Thomas, Earl of Haddington		1841
Edward, Earl of Ellenborough	Jan. 13,	1846
George, Earl of Auckland	July 21,	1846
Sir F. Baring		1849
Duke of Northumberland		1852
Sir J. Graham		1853
Sir Charles Wood		1855
Sir John Pakington		1858
Edward, Duke of Somerset		1859
Sir J. Pakington		1866
Thomas L. Corry		1868
Hugh Childers		1868
George J. Goschen		1871
George Ward Hunt		1874
William H. Smith		1877
Thomas, Earl of Northbrook		1880
Lord George Francis Hamilton		1885
Marquis of Ripon		1886
Lord George Francis Hamilton		1886
Earl Spencer		1892
G. J. Goschen		1895
Earl of Selborne		1900
Earl of Cawdor	March 5,	1905
Lord Tweedmouth	Dec. 5,	1905
Reginald McKenna		1908

Admiralty, COURT OF, is the Court of the Lord High Admiral in his judicial capacity. The early admirals and *custodes maris*, from the time of Henry I. onwards, had the

prerogative of judging on all disputes between merchants and sailors, and on offences committed on the high seas, out of the jurisdiction of the Common Law Courts. These privileges provoked the jealousy of the Common lawyers, and, in 13 Rich. II., a statute limited its procedure to matters transacted on the seas. When there was a Lord High Admiral the judge of the Admiralty Court was generally appointed by him; when the office is in commission the Crown appoints him. The criminal jurisdiction of the Admiralty Court is now no longer exercised, and offences committed on the high seas are tried at common law. By an Act of Henry VIII. all such offences were to be tried by commissioners of oyer and terminer under the great seal. When the Central Criminal Court was established in 1834, the judges were authorised to decide on all offences committed within the jurisdiction of the Admiralty. The civil jurisdiction of the court is important, and, by 3 and 4 Vict., c. 65, comprehends all causes arising out of questions of the title to or ownership of vessels, maritime contracts, salvage, and cases of collisions and damages on the high seas. By the Judicature Act of 1873, the Admiralty Court was united with the Court of Probate and Divorce to form one division of the Supreme Court of Judicature. At the breaking out of war, a commission is issued to the judge of the Admiralty Court constituting him president of a Prize Court, to decide as to what is or what is not lawful prize. Property captured from the enemy is held not to have absolutely ceased to belong to its former owner till condemned by the sentence of a Prize Court. The proceedings in this court are supposed to be conducted according to the law of nations, and the decisions of its judges, and notably of Lord Stowell during the early years of the French revolutionary war, form very important contributions to international law. Courts of Vice-Admiralty, having analogous powers to the Admiralty Court, are established in most of the British colonies. The Chief Justice of the colony is *ex-officio* judge of this court, and there is an appeal from his decision to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. The ADMIRALTY COURT for Scotland retained its separate existence at the union, though the Scottish Lord High Admiral was abolished. In 1831 the Scotch Admiralty Courts were abolished, and their functions entrusted to the Courts of Session and Justiciary. [NAVY.]

For the early history of the Admiralty, the best authority is *The Black Book of the Admiralty*, a most important collection of documents bearing on the subject, chiefly in the 14th and 15th centuries, with the valuable prefaces of Sir Travers Twiss in the *Rolls Series*, 1871, &c. See esp. the Editor's introduction to vol. ii. Among other matters of interest, the Black Book contains a transcript of the *Laws of Oleron*, issued by Richard I. at that town, which formed the basis of the maritime jurisprudence of all the western nations. See also Rymer's *Fœdera*; Pepys' *Naval Collections*; *A Treatise on the Sea Laws*, 1724; J. Exton, *Maritime Dicæologie*, 1746; Sir Harris Nicolas, *History of the British Navy*; Knight's *Political Cyclopædia*, art. Admiralty; and Stephens' *Commentaries on the Laws of England*.

[S. J. L.]

Admonition, THE, 1588. A tract entitled "An Admonition to the Nobility and People of England and Ireland, concerning the present wars, made for the execution of his Holiness's sentence, by the high and mightie King Catholike of Spain," was issued by Cardinal Allen, in order to advocate the Spanish invasion of England, and to declare the Papal sentence of excommunication against Elizabeth. It is a document full of gross and offensive attacks on the Queen, and may be considered as one of the most indecent political libels that have ever appeared. The effect of the Admonition was to disgust not only all Protestants, but also a great many Catholics. The style is so unlike the usual manner of Cardinal Allen that it has often been attributed to the pen of the Jesuit Parsons; but whoever was its real author, it was signed and acknowledged by Allen.

Burnet, *Hist. of the Reformation*; Strype, *Annals of the Reformation*, iii., pt. 2, p. 750 (ed. 1824); Sharon Turner, *Hist. of Eng.*, xii. 485. The *Admonition* was reprinted with a preface by Rev. J. Mendham, 1812.

Admonition to Parliament, THE, 1572. the work of two nonconformists, named Field and Wilcox, was presented to Parliament by Thomas Cartwright. The object of the pamphlet, which was written in a spirit of intolerance and defiance, was the complete abolition of episcopacy. A second "admonition" was also published by Cartwright (who was supported by Leicester), and spread over the country. An elaborate answer was written by Archbishop Whitgift, and Field and Wilcox were committed to Newgate.

See Strype, *Annals of the Reformation*, and *Life of Whitgift*.

Adrian IV., POPE (*b. circ.* 1100, *d.* 1159), was the only Englishman who has occupied the Papal chair. His name was Nicholas Breakspeare. He was born at Langley in Hertfordshire, studied in France, entered the monastery of St. Rufus in Provence, of which he became Abbot. In 1146 he was created a Cardinal, and sent as papal legate to Norway. In 1154 he was chosen Pope. His papacy was disturbed by the attempt of Arnold of Brescia, whom he succeeded in arresting and executing (1155). Adrian is memorable in European history as beginning the long and bitter quarrel between the Popes and the Hohenstaufen emperors. In English history his chief interest lies in the famous bull in which he granted Henry II. the sovereignty over Ireland. The BULL OF ADRIAN IV., with regard to Ireland, was issued in accordance

with the idea, commonly held throughout the middle ages, that the fabulous "donation" of Constantine had included a gift to the successor of St. Peter of all the islands in the world. In 1158, on condition of the payment of Peter's Pence, the Pope issued a bull which handed over the sovereignty of the island to Henry II. The enterprise was prompted, it was stated, by "the ardour of faith and love of religion," and there is indeed no doubt that the laxity of the Irish clergy, and the looseness of the connection with Rome, had much to do with the eagerness with which the Pope acceded to Henry's request for the bull.

William of Newbury, ii. ch. 6; Will. of Tyre, xviii., ch. 26; Giraldus Cambrens. *Expug. Hibern.*; Moore, *Hist. of Ireland.*

Adullamites (1866) was a name derisively applied to those Liberals, about forty in number, who opposed the majority of their party on Earl Russell's proposal for a further Reform of Parliament. Their leaders were Mr. Lowe, Mr. Horsman, and Lord Elcho. Mr. Bright, on the 13th of March, compared this party to the assembly which came to the cave of Adullam, when David called about him every one that was in distress and every one that was discontented. The defection of the Adullamites led to the overthrow of Lord Russell's ministry.

Adventurers. [*See* MERCHANT ADVENTURERS.]

Adventurers of 1642, THE. The English Parliament having confiscated between two and three millions of acres in Ireland, in consequence of the Rebellion of 1641, debenture bonds were issued made payable in land after the reconquest of the country. About a million acres were thus disposed of, the original idea being that the money thus obtained should actually be employed in suppressing the rebellion; but the outbreak of civil war in England prevented this. When in 1653 the conquest was finally accomplished, the counties of Limerick, Tipperary, and Waterford, in Munster; King's and Queen's County, East and West Meath, in Leinster; Down, Antrim, and Armagh, in Ulster, were set aside for satisfying these claims, and those of the Puritan soldiery. Many of these Adventurers were subsequently deprived of a large portion of their lands by the Act of Settlement and Explanation in 1665, and a considerable number emigrated to America.

Sir W. Petty, *The Political Anatomy of Ireland*, 1691; and *The Hist. of the Survey of Ireland*, republished by the Irish Archæolog. Soc., Dublin, 1851. *See* also Lecky, *Hist. of Eng. in the Eighteenth Century*; Froude, *The English in Ireland.*

Advertisements, DUTY ON. Advertisements in newspapers appear to have first come into use during the period of the Commonwealth, the first being, it is said, an announcement of an heroic poem on the death of Cromwell. Advertisements became common during the latter half of the seventeenth century, and in the reign of William III., a gratuitous paper of advertisements was started and existed for some time. By an Act of 1712, a duty was imposed on each advertisement published. In 1838 the tax was reduced from 3s. 6d. in Great Britain, and 2s. 6d. in Ireland, to 1s. 6d. in the former and 1s. in the latter country. In 1851 the tax brought in over £175,000. The duty was abolished in 1853.

See Article in *Quarterly Review*, June, 1855; Grant, *The Newspaper Press.*

Advertisements (1565) was the name of a book of discipline issued by Archbishop Parker. It marks the beginnings of the persecutions of the Puritan clergy, and has in recent times excited much controversy. The Archbishop had previously endeavoured in vain to induce Cecil to consent to an official promulgation of these "advertisements;" but as Cecil was not anxious to provoke opposition by too rigid an execution of the Act of Uniformity, he had refused to authorise or publish them, and Parker was consequently left to issue them on his own responsibility. Their title ran: "Advertisements partly for due order in the public administration of Common Prayer and using of the Holy Sacraments, and partly for the apparel of all persons ecclesiastical, by virtue of the Queen's Majesty's letter commanding the same." The points especially insisted on are the wearing of the surplice and cap; and generally they enforced rigid obedience to the more obnoxious portions of the Act of Uniformity. Much controversy has arisen as to the precise validity of these Advertisements. On the one side it has been maintained that the royal authorisation gave binding force to the Archbishop's injunctions, and that they were the "other order" which the Act of Uniformity of 1559 half anticipated as likely to supersede the "Ornaments Rubric," which enjoined that church ornaments should remain as in the second year of Edward VI. This view, which was adopted by Lord Selborne in the "Ridsdale Case," has been attacked by Mr. J. Parker in his "Ornaments Rubric," where it is maintained that the advertisements were simple archiepiscopal injunctions, and that their enforcement of a minimum of ritual did not aim at abolishing the vestments, etc., of Edward VI.'s First Prayer-Book.

Strype's *Annals* and *Life of Parker*; Neal's *History of the Puritans.*

Advocate, THE LORD, also called the King's or Queen's Advocate, is the chief law officer of the crown in Scotland, and corresponds, roughly speaking, to the English Attorney-General. The King's Advocate is found in existence in 1479, in 1540 he became one of the officers of state, and in 1587 he is first mentioned as *Lord* Advocate. The

origin of the office is extremely obscure; it has been supposed that, with the title, it was derived from the French: and the duties of the earlier Kings' Advocates, of whom there is a fairly full list from 1483, are equally ill-defined. They appear to have been comprised in the prosecution of state officers, and the inquiry into the extent of the feudal forfeitures arising from those offences. In the middle of the sixteenth century it is possible to gain a clearer idea of his functions; the Lord Advocate was public prosecutor, he conducted all cases in which the sovereign was concerned, which, from the reign of Queen Mary, have been pursued in his name, and in the latter part of the century appears to have occasionally combined the offices of advocate and judge in the court of sessions. Previous to the Union, the Lord Advocate sat in Parliament in virtue of his office: but now he is not necessarily, though he is generally, a member of the Lower House. He is appointed by the Crown, and tenders his resignation when the administration changes. When the Duke of Newcastle abolished the office of Secretary of State for Scotland in the reign of George II. the duties of that minister were transferred to the Lord Advocate. In Parliament he answers all questions relating to Scotland, and undertakes all measures of Scottish legislation; but he is not a member of the Privy Council, and is called right honourable by courtesy only. Outside Parliament he acts as public prosecutor, in which duties he is assisted by the Solicitor-General and four *advocates-depute*, and appears for the Crown in all civil cases. His warrants for searching, apprehending, and imprisoning run in any part of Scotland; he is allowed to sit within the bar of the court of session, a privilege enjoyed by peers of the realm.

Barclay, *Digest of the Law of Scotland*; More, *Lectures on the Laws of Scotland*, vol. i.; Knight, *Cyclopædia of Political Knowledge*. [L. C. S.]

Advowson is the right of presentation to an ecclesiastical benefice vested in a man and his heirs for ever. The word is taken from Lat. *advocatio*, for he who had the advowson was the protector or *patron* of the church. As the parochial system was grafted on the township, it might be contended that the right of presentation would at first be in the lord of the manor; but as a fact, the early parish priests were in a great proportion of cases appointed by the bishops. An advowson is *presentative* when it is the right of presenting a clerk to the bishop for institution; *collative* when the bishop is patron; *donative* when by royal foundation or licence the patron can present without reference to the bishop. An advowson is regarded by the law as a trust. Yet advowsons, and the power of exercising the right of presentation for one or more terms, can be sold subject to some restrictions. A right of nomination to the patron may exist separate from the right of presentation to the bishop; thus, in the mortgage of an advowson, the mortgagee presents, but he must do so on the nomination of the mortgager. Neither Roman Catholics nor their trustees may present; they must sell the presentation, or it will vest in the University of Oxford or of Cambridge (11 Geo. II., c. 17). The presentee must be in priest's orders before his institution (14 Car. II., c. 4). Restrictions on patronage depend on the law of *simony*, which, as far as our temporal courts are concerned, is founded on 31 Eliz., c. 6, and 12 Anne, c. 12. A clergyman may not purchase a next presentation for himself, but he may purchase an advowson, and be presented on the next vacancy. If a patron neglects to exercise his right, the presentation lapses at the end of six months to the bishop, the archbishop, and the crown successively. Suits for disturbance of patronage used to be maintained by *darrein presentment*, and later more usually by *quare impedit*, and now, since 23 and 24 Vict., c. 126, by writ of summons. The bishop is bound to institute the clerk presented by the patron, unless there is good cause to the contrary, and the patron or the clerk has remedy in case of refusal by application to the Provincial Court.

Phillimore, *Eccl. Law*; Cripps, *Law of Church, &c.*; Chitty, *Collection of Statutes*. [W. H.]

Aelfheah. [ALPHEGE.]

Aelred (AILDRED, EALRED) OF RIEVAULX, ST. (*b.* 1109, *d.* 1166). An English historian, born at Hexham, and educated in the family of King David of Scotland. He is said to have refused a Scotch bishopric that he might become a monk of the Cistercian Abbey of Rievaulx, in Yorkshire, of which he became abbot in 1146. He wrote several historical works, among which are lives of Edward the Confessor, David of Scotland, Queen Margaret of Scotland, and St. Ninian, and a Chronicle of the Kings of England. None of his works are of high historical value. "Ailred of Rievaulx," says Sir Thomas Hardy, "ranks in the second class of English mediæval historians, and even there does not occupy the first place."

See Sir Thos. Hardy, *Descriptive Catalogue of Materials*, ii. 293, &c. (Rolls Series.) Aelred's works were collected by R. Gibbon, Domni, 1631, 4to, and they are to be found in Migne, *Patrologia*, vol. 195. Aelred's *Vita S. Edwardi Conf.* and *Descriptio de Bello apud Standardum* are in Twysden *Scriptores Decem*.

Æthelberht. [ETHELBERT.]

Æthelred. [ETHELRED.]

Æthelstane. [ATHELSTAN.]

Affirmations. [OATH, PARLIAMENTARY, and OATH IN COURTS OF LAW.]

Afghan Wars. (1) Situated in immediate proximity to the N.W. frontier of

India, Afghanistan has, from the earliest times, figured conspicuously in the history of Hindostan and of Central Asia. Its first connection with English history dates from the year 1809, when the rumour of a joint invasion of India, determined on by Napoleon and the Czar Alexander, led to the despatch of the Hon. M. Elphinstone as envoy to Shah Shujah, then ruler of Cabul. A treaty was concluded between the two at Peshawur. The subsequent events, fraught with intestine broils, do not call for detailed review, though we may note the visit of Lieut. Alexander Burnes to Cabul, on his way to Bokhara, in 1832, for the mass of interesting information collected thereby. In 1834, Shah Shujah, who had been dethroned, endeavoured to regain his power, and advanced on Candahar, but was defeated by Dost Mahomed, ruler of Cabul, and Kohandil Khan, who reigned at Candahar. He took refuge eventually with Nasir Khan, of Khelat, who enabled him to return to Ludiana in a manner suited to his dignity. In 1837, the siege of Herat by Persia, encouraged, as believed, by the Russians, and the defeat of the Sikhs by Dost Mahomed, led the English to despatch Burnes as resident at the court of Cabul. But the suspension of the negotiations then existing between Dost Mahomed and the Russians being refused by the Amir, the resolution was formed of placing the ex-king, Shah Shujah, on the Afghan throne. An army of 21,000 men was assembled on the Indus (16th January, 1839), and, advancing on Candahar through the Bolan Pass, took possession of that city, where Shah Shujah was crowned on the 8th May. Ghazni fell next, the gate of the city being blown in by Lieut. (afterwards General Sir Henry) Durand. Dost Mahomed, finding his forces melting away, fled beyond the Hindu Kush, and the British entered Cabul without opposition. Shah Shujah's restoration was at first popular, but the people, soon finding how completely this was due to English support, incensed at the reduction of subsidies to the chiefs, and inflamed by the *mullahs* or priests, began to gather in insurrection. The British authorities neglected warnings, and on the 2nd November, 1841, rebellion broke out, and Sir Alexander Burnes and other officers were treacherously assassinated. Disasters followed thickly on one another, and General Elphinstone, on whom the command had been thrust, was in the feeblest health. At a conference with Akbar Khan, Dost Mahomed's son, Sir W. Macnaghten, the British envoy, was murdered by that chief; and on the 6th January, 1842, the British garrison of 4,500, with nearly three times that number of camp followers, proceeded to evacuate the country, but perished miserably in the mountain passes between Cabul and Jellalabad, a single survivor, Dr. Brydon, alone reaching the latter city. Ghazni fell to the Afghans on the 10th December, some hundreds of Sepoys being carried into captivity, while ninety-five hostages, left by the British, were in durance near Cabul. Candahar and Jellalabad, however, were held firmly by Generals Nott and Sale respectively. A strong expedition, under General Pollock, was prepared in India, and after forcing the Khyber Pass relieved Jellalabad. After halting two months at this place, the time being spent in negotiations, General Pollock advanced and inflicted a severe defeat on Mahomed Akbar Khan entering Cabul a few days later. The captives were recovered, the principal bazar of Cabul razed to the ground, and General Nott, who had advanced from Candahar and captured Ghazni, beheld, on his arrival at Cabul, the British flag floating over the ramparts. Soon after the departure of our troops Shah Shujah was assassinated, and Dost Mahomed Khan was restored to his former power. During the Sikh revolt, in 1848, he joined them against the British, but a friendly understanding was arrived at and a treaty concluded in 1855. The same year saw the acquisition of the Candahar province by Dost Mahomed, and the second Persian advance on Herat; its capture and final cession, through fear of the English, who had sent an expedition to the Persian Gulf, are the subsequent events of note.

(2) Shere Ali Khan, who ascended the Afghan throne in 1863, passed through great vicissitudes of fortune, but eventually overcame his rivals and foes in 1868. An arrangement was arrived at between the British and Russian governments in 1872 that Afghanistan was beyond the field of Russian influence, and the practical violation of this understanding in 1878, coupled with the repulse by the Afghans of a British mission, led to a fresh Afghan war. The victories at Aii Musjid and Pewar, and the capture of Candahar and Kelat-i-Ghilzai by Sir Donald Stewart, placed all the important vantage points of Eastern Afghanistan (Cabul excepted) in our hands. A treaty was concluded at Gandamak with Yakub Khan, who had succeeded to power on the death of his father, Shere Ali, but all its provisions were scattered to the winds by the murder of Sir L. Cavagnari, who had been deputed as English envoy to Cabul. Sir F. (now Lord) Roberts promptly advanced on the capital, and defeated the Afghans at Charasia. For some months, however, fighting went on, till, at the close of 1879, the total defeat of Mahomed Jan effectually dispersed the insurgents. These successes were worthily supported by Sir D. Stewart's victory at Ahmed Kheyl, he having advanced to Cabul from Candahar. Matters were now settling down, but the approach of the Sirdar Ayub Khan from the side of Herat kindled anew the flames of rebellion. This pretender, having defeated General Burrows at Maiwand, proceeded to

invest Candahar, but was utterly routed in his turn by General Sir F. Roberts, who had effected the difficult march from Cabul with much skill and generalship. In September, 1880, the British troops were withdrawn from the Kurram and Cabul valleys, and in the following April from Candahar, leaving the government of the country in the hands of Abdur Rahman, whose authority as ruler of the country had been recognised by England in July, 1880. After that date the Amir gradually established his power, he and his successor remaining on excellent terms with Britain. The delimitation of the N. frontier led in 1885 to a collision between Russian and Afghan troops at Penj-deh (q.v.), and almost to an Anglo-Russian War.

The chief authorities on Afghanistan are given in Sir Charles MacGregor's admirable *Gazetteer*, published at Calcutta in 1871. The leading events of the subsequent campaigns are briefly chronicled in Robertson's *Three Campaigns in Afghanistan* (1881). For the later history *cf.* Wheeler, the *Ameer Abdurrahman*, 1895.

Affirmations. [Oaths.]

Africa. [South African Colonies and West African Colonies.]

Aghrim, Battle of (July 12, 1691), fought in the campaign between William III. and James II., in Ireland, resulted in a victory, gained by Ginkel, over the Irish and French troops, under St. Ruth. The French general had allowed Athlone to be taken (June 30). He then fell back about thirty miles to the hill of Aghrim. He drew up his army on the slope of a hill almost surrounded by a deep bog. A wooden breastwork had been constructed in front, near the edge of the morass. Ginkel started from Ballinasloe, four miles from Aghrim, on the 11th, and reconnoitred the Irish position. Next day at five in the evening the battle began. The English first struggled through the bog and attacked the breastwork, only to be driven back again and again. Ginkel was meditating a retreat. But Mackay and Ruvigny led the cavalry through a narrow passage in the morass, and turned the Irish flank. At this crisis St. Ruth was killed. His officers foolishly kept his death secret, so that Sarsfield, who might have taken the command, remained with the reserve. At length the breastwork was carried. The Irish retreated step by step, but, after a while, broke and fled. Then the conquerors began to kill without mercy. For miles around the naked bodies of the slain lay on the fields. Sarsfield did his best to cover the retreat. One body of fugitives went towards Galway, the other towards Limerick.

London Gazette, 1691; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Froude, *English in Ireland*.

Agincourt, Battle of, fought October 25, 1415. Henry V., in attempting to regain the ground which Edward III. had lost in his first campaign against France, took Harfleur, but finding his army greatly diminished by sickness, was unable to undertake any great expedition. He resolved to make his way to Calais through the hostile provinces of Normandy, Picardy, and Artois. His army consisted of about 15,000 men, of whom 5,000 were archers, and 700 knights. A French army numbering at least 50,000, under the Constable D'Albret, was gathered to cut them off. The English were allowed to cross the Somme, and Henry was courteously asked to name a day for battle. He answered that he was always to be found in the field. For four days the French marched by the side of the English. At last the Constable chose his position a little to the north of Crecy, so as to cut off the English from the village of Agincourt. The battle-field was a somewhat narrow valley, surrounded by woods on the east and west, while through it ran the road to Calais. The French were drawn up in three massive lines. The first two lines fought on foot; the third was mounted. The confined nature of the ground gave no chance for the use of artillery, and the heavy-armed French were at a disadvantage in the soft ground, as compared with the light-armed English yeomen. The English were drawn up in three divisions, but all close together. While their lines were only four deep, the French were massed thirty deep. Before the battle futile negotiations were carried on, and Henry V. used the time to send some archers secretly through the wood to watch the left flank of the French. It was eleven o'clock when the order was given to the English to advance. The archers ran forward armed with stakes, which they fixed in the ground so as to form a palisade in front of them. Darting forward, they fired with splendid aim at the French men-at-arms, who were unable to advance quickly in the soft ground, and fell in numbers. Meanwhile the French cavalry attempted a flank movement, but were taken unawares by the archers in ambush; their horses soon became unmanageable, and they were thrown into confusion. The French infantry, finding themselves unsupported, broke, and the English archers, seizing their swords and maces, rushed into their lines and turned them to flight. Then, reinforced by the English men-at-arms, the archers attacked the second division of the French. Here the battle was fiercer and more equal. The Duke of Alençon on the French side, and Henry V. on the English, fought desperately, and for two hours the victory was uncertain. At length Alençon was slain, and the French gave way. A cry was raised among the English that a new French army was coming up in their rear. In the panic Henry V. gave orders that all prisoners should be slain. Many brave Frenchmen met their death before

it was discovered that the supposed army was only a band of peasants who had collected to plunder. Meanwhile the third division of the French wavered, and, at last, fled. After three hours' fighting the victory of the English was assured. The French losses were very heavy. More than 10,000 men fell on the field, amongst them 8,000 nobles, knights, and squires.

On the English side, see Walsingham, *Historia Anglica*; Elmham, *Vita et Gesta Henrici V.*; *Henrici V. Gesta*, ed. Williams; Titus Livius Forojuliensis *Vita Henrici Quinti*; *English Chronicle* (Camden Society); on the French side, Religieux de St. Denys, Monstrelet, and St. Remy. [M. C.]

Agra is a strong and ancient town on the river Jumna, in the North-West Provinces of India. It was formerly one of the chief cities of the Mogul dynasty, and in the wars of 1803 it was held by the Mahrattas, from whom it was captured by General Lake after a day's bombardment, and ceded to the English by Scindiah at the peace of Surge Anjengaom. Agra then became the capital of one of the eight commissionerships into which the North-West Provinces were divided, and the residence of the Lieutenant-Governor; but since the mutiny of 1857, when the European residents were menaced by the insurgent sepoys, and had to take refuge in the fort, the provincial seat of government has been transferred to Allahabad. Agra contains the old palace of Shah Jehan, a mosque which is one of the most beautiful in India, and the famous Tajmahal, a magnificent mausoleum built by Shah Jehan over the remains of his wife.

"Agreement of the People" was one of John Lilburne's numerous pamphlets, and was published in 1648. It was received with great enthusiasm by the Levellers; and at a meeting held between Hertford and Ware, for the purpose of restoring discipline to the army, and satisfying the claims of the soldiers, a large number wore this pamphlet in their hats. Fairfax and Cromwell ordered them to remove the pamphlets. All the regiments except Lilburne's obeyed; and Cromwell, perceiving the necessity of at once stopping the insubordination, caused one of the ringleaders to be shot, and had all the others imprisoned. [LILBURNE; LEVELLERS.]

Agricola, GNÆUS JULIUS (*b.* 37, *d.* 93), Roman governor of Britain (78—84), had, previous to his appointment, served in the island under Cerealis. During his governorship he endeavoured to subdue the tribes in the north, and to conciliate the British to the Roman rule by making them acquainted with the advantages of civilisation. He encouraged them to come to the towns, and had many of the sons of the chiefs instructed in literature and science, and he succeeded so well "that they who had lately scorned to learn the Roman language were becoming fond of acquiring the Roman eloquence." In 78 he reduced Mona; in 79 he subdued the north of Britain to the Tweed; in 80 he advanced as far as the Firth of Tay; the year 81 was employed in constructing a chain of forts between the Clyde and the Forth; in the next year he explored the north-west part of the island, and planned a descent upon Ireland, but the rising of the Caledonians, under their chief Galgacus, prevented this project being carried out. After some severe fighting, he defeated Galgacus, and thus subdued the whole island. In 84 he sailed round the island, and discovered the Orkneys; and in the same year he returned to Rome, where a triumph was decreed to him.

The Life of Agricola was written by his son-in-law, the historian Tacitus. The *Agricola* is the best extant account of the condition of Britain in the early part of the period of the Roman rule.

Agriculture. The history of agriculture in England is derived from two sources; the literature on the subject, which is scanty in the earlier period, but becomes copious as time goes on, and contemporaneous records, which are exceedingly abundant and exact in the thirteenth, fourteenth, and part of the fifteenth centuries, but are scarce after this time. The fact that so great a mass of domestic archives has been preserved is due to the importance the rules of law gave to all documents which could be alleged in proof of title. Besides, it was at an early period the custom with nearly all proprietors —even the sovereign and the great peers—to cultivate their own estates with their own capital, and under the superintendence of bailiffs, who regularly drew up an annual balance-sheet, which was submitted to the audit of their lords. Hence it is possible, by investigating these accounts, to discover how land was stocked and cultivated, and what was the amount of produce which agriculture secured from land.

Generally, during the mediæval period, the greater part of the land in a parish or manor was possessed by the lord and the tenants, free and serf, in the shape of strips or furrows in a common field, separated by a narrow boundary of untilled ground. These fields were private property during part of the year (as a rule, from Lady-day to Michaelmas), and common pasture for the rest. Sometimes fields—generally pasture-land—were held in absolute ownership, and the value of such closes was great. Besides the cultivated land and the closes, there was always a more or less considerable area of common pasture, and generally a wood in which hogs were fed, a small charge being paid for each head. English agriculture from very early times always looked to the raising and maintenance of live stock as a most

important industry, and the success with which stock-breeding was handled is proved by the great value of English wool, and by the numerous qualities of this product. The keeping of sheep in connection with arable farming has always been a special characteristic of English agriculture, and for several centuries this country had almost a monopoly in the supply of wool.

Early agriculture in England was very rude. The plough was clumsy, iron was exceedingly dear, draught-cattle, horses and oxen, were small, and the ground was only scratched on the surface. The husbandman had but little farmyard manure, and the only artificial fertilisers which he knew of were marl and lime. The seed was thrown broadcast on the land, about two bushels to the acre of wheat, rye, and peas, and about four bushels of barley and oats. Four times the seed sown was thought to be a fair crop, and five times was seldom obtained even on the best land. The husbandman knew nothing of winter roots, or of artificial grasses, as they are called. Hence his cattle were starved in the winter, and always stunted. Under this imperfect cultivation, he was forced to let at least a third of his land lie in fallow every year. The corn was reaped by cutting off the ears, the straw being suffered to remain on the field at least for a time, often permanently, in order to restore the ground. The whole of the population, town and country, generally took part in the harvest, for the number of residents in the country was insufficient for gathering even the scanty harvest. The stock on the land was far more valuable than the land itself. It has been proved that the stock on a well-tilled farm was worth three times as much as the land. The rent of good arable land was for three centuries about sixpence an acre.

It is not likely, even if the great land-owners had continued to cultivate their own estates, that much progress could have been made in agriculture, for the inventive faculties of Europe were almost stagnant up to the end of the sixteenth century. But owing to the ravages of the Black Death, the great land-owners abandoned cultivation on their own account, and let their land and stock to tenant-farmers, a stocked estate being found to be the most profitable employment of capital, even though the landlord did all the repairs, and made good the losses of his tenant's sheep. It was quite out of the question that a tenant should make agricultural discoveries and improvements, and it is certain that from the reign of Henry III. to the death of Elizabeth, some 350 years, no material alteration was made in English agriculture, except in sheep-farming, and certainly no appreciable progress.

Small as was the produce of the land in comparison with that which has been obtained at later periods, it is very likely that nearly as much land was cultivated in the Middle Ages as is in modern times in England. Certain counties, especially the north and the west, were very backward, as we learn from those few valuations of counties for taxing purposes which are still extant, and are probably the only genuine valuations in existence. But the towns were much smaller, and the space occupied by human habitations in such counties as Middlesex, Oxfordshire, and Norfolk, the most opulent of the English counties, was far less than at present. Ornamental grounds were wholly unknown, and the land was ploughed up to the noble's castle and the farmer's homestead. One can constantly see in parks, which are now ancient, and surrounding residences which are still more ancient, the signs that cultivation had formerly been carried on over places which are now either ornamental only, or are devoted to pasture. In the description given of ancient estates, we may often find that land was ploughed and sown up to the gates of the manor-house, and over spaces which have long been streets in busy towns. Our ancestors had poor gardens, and no pleasure grounds. In the more fertile counties, which are now known by the absence of by-roads, it is likely that more land than is now cultivated was, in the poor fashion of those times, tilled, under the disadvantageous system of frequent fallows and common fields. For as ploughing was merely superficial, and the number of crops was very limited, land was early exhausted, and had to rest in fallow. As the ownership of several lands or closes was rare, and was generally confined to the lord of the manor, the furrows in the common field, with the scanty pasture of the manor common, were the holding of the small agriculturist, *i.e.*, of the mass of the people, since nearly all possessed land; but were held, as far as the first portion of the holding was concerned, under the least advantageous form. Nor was the use of common land for pasture as profitable as it might have been. Generally the right of pasturage was without stint, that is, each occupier had the right of putting as many cattle or sheep as he could get upon the common pasture; and as the lord, who possessed, as has been said, closes from which he could make hay, or could devote to forthcoming stock, had many more cattle than the tenants, he could make the common pasture of comparatively little value to them by overstocking it.

Nothing better illustrates the character of mediæval husbandry than the extreme rarity with which prices of hay are recorded in early times, and the excessive rent which was paid for enclosed pastures. The rent of arable land being about sixpence an acre, that of natural meadow is constantly sixteen times as much, and the aftermaths over four or five times. In our day, the best natural meadow does not command a rent of more

than twice the best arable. During the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, it is rare to find, in the examination of many thousand accounts, the prices of hay given. In the fifteenth and sixteenth, during which time enclosures were frequent, and many of the common lands were encroached on, occasionally to the great discontent of the farmer, and even to the employment of violent remedies for the wrong which they felt had been done them, prices of hay are very common.

Under so imperfect a system of agriculture, as the people were fed on unwholesome salted food during half the year, and cattle were starved during the same period, disease was common in man and beast. Scurvy, the inevitable consequence of the use of salted meat, and a deficient vegetable diet, was endemic. Leprosy, which an abundant vegetable food has banished, was as common as it now is in the basin of the Po. The unclean habits of our forefathers added to the general unhealthiness of their lives. Few people lived beyond fifty, when they were old. Plagues of terrible deadliness attacked the people. It is probable that one-third of the population perished in 1349, when the Black Death appeared among us. [Black Death.] The Plague continued to appear at intervals, till its last visitation in 1665, when it seems most terrible, because it has been most minutely described. After the battle of Bosworth, a new disease, the sweating sickness, appeared, and for a long time was the special scourge of the English people. Like the plague, it was very destructive; but, unlike it, does not appear to have been a foreign importation, but the result of dirt, privation, and unwholesome food. It is only by the study of contemporaneous evidence, and by inquiry from undoubted facts, that we can discover the real extent of the loss. So it is not likely that we should get evidence of the occasion on which plagues have visited animal and vegetable life. It is curious to find that two diseases, scab in sheep and smut in wheat, were first noticed at periods which can be almost defined. The former appears about 1288, and was particularly dreaded, because it imperilled the principal source of English opulence during the Middle Ages, and, indeed, for long after, English wool, in the cloth produced from which a large part of Western Europe was clad. The other was smut in wheat and the allied grains, which was first noticed in 1527, a year of comparative famine. The art of the agriculturist has long been engaged in combating these two pests of his calling. Other serious diseases, the rot in sheep, and pleuro-pneumonia in horned cattle, are described so precisely that there is no doubt of their identity with modern cattle-plagues.

It was stated above that during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries it was a common practice to let live and dead stock with land, in other words, to stock a farmer's land as well as let it to him. The monasteries continued the practice up to the dissolution. The leasing of stock was the best part of the landlord's profit on his property, and by implication the least profitable form of holding to the tenant. Hence, in order to induce tenants to accept this kind of occupancy, the landlord not only covenanted to do all repairs, great and small, on the holding, but to insure the tenants against the loss of their cattle by disease. In the rent-rolls of great estates, the costs of tenants' losses by cattle disease form a very serious item, and throw a plain and characteristic light on agriculture and its customs in England, while they show how it came to be an English custom that landlords should improve land. The first change in this prolonged system began with the discoveries of the Dutch. When that people had, by almost superhuman efforts, obtained their political freedom, they began to cultivate Holland on new methods, and to instruct Europe. The impulse which was given to the human mind in the seventeenth century reacted upon husbandry. The discovery of the process of reducing iron by pit-coal cheapened the tools of the husbandman. The Dutch discovered and improved winter roots, the turnip and carrot. It is estimated that the turnip has doubled the productiveness of land. For a century and a half the Dutch were the seedsmen of Western Europe. Then they cultivated clover, and other so-called artificial grasses, and English agriculturists and landowners soon saw that greater profits and larger rents would accrue from these new inventions. The effect of these improvements was, that the numbers and the quality of cattle and sheep were greatly increased, the agriculturist being enabled to find them food in winter, and keep them at least in some condition. Till winter roots were discovered, surplus stock was killed in November, and salted for winter provisions, and it is obvious that this system was injurious to health, as well as a great hindrance to agricultural progress.

During two epochs of English history, the fifteenth and the eighteenth centuries, agricultural products were abundant and cheap. The seasons appear to have been continuously favourable, while the result was aided by the creation of estates in severalty, by enclosing portions of lands on which there were certain common uses, and by similar expedients. The loss was considerable to the general body of occupiers, but the aggregate food product was greatly increased. During the eighteenth century Enclosure Acts were exceedingly common. Between 1726 and 1796, 1,761 such Acts were passed, dealing with nearly three million acres. From this date to 1850, 2,365 more Acts were passed, under which six million more acres were thus appropriated. Most of

this area passed from common pasture to arable, and as it may be reasonably concluded that the agriculturist would not cultivate new soil except with the prospect of increased profit, the quantity of food produced must have been greatly increased. Towards the latter end of the 18th century great attention was given to the improvement of breeds of sheep, by the selection of those which had the best points. This development of agricultural art was due to Mr. Bakewell, and even more perhaps to Mr. Coke, afterwards Lord Leicester. The economy of such a selection was rapidly extended to cattle, and up to recent times stock in Great Britain has been better than in any part of the civilised world, pedigree animals being exported to all countries from this. Nor were the discoveries in practical science made during the eighteenth century without their significance on agriculture. With cheaper iron came better and cheaper tools, a deeper and more thorough manipulation of the soil, and consequently a higher rate of production from the soil. Writers on mediæval, and even later agriculture, counsel the use of wooden harrows on stony ground, because iron was too costly for such tools, and with reason, for while wheat during the greater part of Elizabeth's reign was worth about fourteen shillings a quarter, iron cost about £26 a ton.

The last improvements in agriculture are due to chemical science and machinery. The agricultural chemist, by the gift of artificial manures, by the analysis of artificial food, and by the examination of soils, has been a great benefactor of the farmer, and these inventions have been eminently of English growth. The Americans are to be credited with many labour-saving machines, adopted in order to reduce the cost of wages, for the problem before the agriculturist has always been how to get the greatest possible amount of nutritive matter out of the soil for man and beast, continuously, and of uniformly good quality.

Walter de Henley, *Le Dit de Hosbanderye*, about 1250; Fitzherbert's *Treatises on Husbandry and Surveying*, 1523; the works of Tusser, 1580, Markham, 1610, and Simon Hartlif, 1680; Worledge's *System of Agriculture*; Houghton's Collections, 1683–1703; Arthur Young's Works; Porter's *Progress of the Nation*; Tooke and Newmarch, *History of Prices*; and the *History of Agriculture and Prices*, 6 vols., 1866–87, by the present writer. [J. T. R.]

Ahmednuggur. A town of British India, capital of a province of the same name in the district of Gujerat. It passed from the hands of the Peishwa to those of Scindia in 1797. During the Mahratta war of 1803 General Wellesley invested and captured the town. It was restored to the Mahrattas at the end of the war; but in 1817, after the treaty of Punnah, again passed into the hands of the British. A number of Boer prisoners were quartered there during the South African war.

Aid was a term which included all customary payments by a vassal to his feudal superior, but which was applied especially to the forms of taxation employed by the Crown from the Norman Conquest to the fourteenth century. It is therefore applied to the military tenants' payment of scutage, the freeholders' carucage, and the boroughs' tallage, as well as to what may be called the ordinary feudal aids. The word aid (*auxilium*) expresses in itself the very theory of the feudal relation—viz., that it was a voluntary relation. The tenant made gifts in aid of his lord, as the lord himself had accepted homage from the tenant. Taxation, therefore, as long as it consisted chiefly of feudal aids, required the formal grant of the feudal tenants. But when it becomes national taxation, it requires the grant of the representatives of the nation—*i.e.*, of the Estates in Parliament. Thus it is that Bracton's statement, that "aids depend on the grace of the tenant, and are not at the will of the lord," grows into the principle enunciated by Lord Chatham: "The taxes are a voluntary gift and grant of the Commons alone." So early even as Henry I., the words of the king's writ are—"The aid which my barons have given to me." And on the same principle, in the thirteenth century, grants are said to be made by "chief tenants, freeholders, and villeins." The very villeins, in order to be taxed, must be supposed to join in the grant, if only through the lords and the freeholders, or their representatives in the national Parliament. The evolution of a national Parliament is, therefore, a logical consequence of the theory of the aid.

The word "aid" applied originally to the three occasions on which the lord could demand contributions from his tenants—viz., for his own ransom, or for the expenses of making his eldest son a knight, or of marrying his eldest daughter. It was due, therefore, equally from the barons who were tenants of the crown, and from the tenants of those barons. Thus Henry I. took, in 1110, an aid *pur fille marier*, three shillings from every hide in England, and a similar aid *pur faire fitz chevalier*; and the amount raised for Richard I.'s ransom was enormous. But the word "aid" includes also what may be called the extraordinary aids—the scutage, the hidage or carucage, and the tallage, which together made up the Anglo-Norman scheme of direct taxation. *Scutage*, the composition in lieu of military service, fell properly on the military tenants of the crown alone. But when the king demanded scutage from them, they would make up the amount by aid from their tenants. *Hidage*, or in the later and stricter form which it took *carucage*, fell on the freeholders. *Tallage* was the similar burden on the royal demesne, and fell chiefly on the towns. The great struggle in regard to all aids was to fix

the rate. Thus Henry I.'s charter promises to take only "reasonable" aids, and that the barons shall do the same. In Glanvil the amount is settled between king and baron, as between baron and vassal, by bargaining. In Magna Charta, art. 12 and art. 14, consent of the Common Council of the realm is required for all but the three ordinary aids, and these aids are to be "reasonable" in all cases, whether taken by the crown from the barons, or by the barons from their own men. And in the Confirmatio Cartarum of 1297 it is enjoined: "Aids henceforth shall only be by the common assent of the realm, saving the ancient aids and prises due and accustomed." Already by statute, in the third year of Edward I., the rate at which lords might take aids of their vassals was fixed at twenty shillings the knight's fee (*i.e.*, about 5 per cent. of the annual value); the same rate in the twenty-fifth year of Edward III. was fixed for the feudal aids of the crown. It only remained to make the extraordinary aids, and especially tallage, dependent upon the assent of Parliament. This, after a long struggle, was effected by the concession made by Edward III. in 1340: "No aid to be henceforth but by assent of Parliament." The struggle was decided, though it was still necessary to guard against royal evasions. But after the Good Parliament, in 1376, it is not till national liberties were silenced by the Yorkist and Tudor despotism that the old theory of a voluntary offering was again made a cover for arbitrary taxation, under the new name of *benevolences*.

But the crown, by working the theory of voluntary offerings, had also been able to negotiate with the merchants for large grants by way of increased customs, especially on wool; and to humour the clergy in their device to evade the Bull *Clericis Laicos* by accepting their tenths or fifteenths as free gifts. Parliament, therefore, had to take under its control these two great sources of revenue also, if it was to make the voluntary theory of taxation a reality. And so, in 1362, it is at last enacted that the merchants are to grant no charge on wool without assent of Parliament. The clergy, however, in their two Convocations, were wise enough to forestall direct interference on the part of Parliament, which on its side accepted the compromise, as the crown had done. Thus, by the Lancastrian reigns, the class-taxation of the land-owners, merchants, and clergy was becoming harmonised into a simpler system of taxation, which should fall upon the whole nation rather than upon classes, and on personalty rather than mainly on land. As the subsidy on movables and the customs on exports and imports came in, the old aids died out. The last feudal aid was that taken by Edward III. in 1346, for knighting the Black Prince, which was protested against by the Commons Of the extraordinary aids, scutage was last taken in 1314. Scutages, indeed, were part of a military organisation of society that was now obsolete, as was that division into knight's fees, which were the basis on which they were assessed. Moreover—and this applies also to carucage and to tallage—they were bound up with a very imperfect method of representation, in which the class highest in the feudal scale was supposed to speak for all. They required laborious collection by old and wasteful methods. But, above all, the two former were assessed on land, and let personalty escape; while tallage was peculiarly unprofitable, because a tallage by the king from his demesne had to be purchased by allowing his barons simultaneously to tallage theirs. The development of the wool-trade, and the existence of a national Parliament, alike necessitated the substitution of a simple national system; and the old, irregular, and imperfect system of aids disappears, not, however, without having bequeathed the great principle to our constitution—that taxation requires assent, and therefore must come through the Commons.

Bracton, bk. ii., fol. 36; Madox, *Hist. of the Exchequer*; Kenelm Digby, *Hist. of the Law of Real Property*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.* [A. L. S.]

Aidan, King (*b.* 532, *d.* 606), the son of Gabran, succeeded Conal (574) as King of Dalriada. Aidan was crowned by St. Columba, in the island of Iona, and soon proved himself to be a ruler of energy and ability. In 575, at the Council of Drumscat, he successfully asserted the independence of the Scotch kingdom of Dalriada, throwing off the yoke of the Irish Dalriada. In 583 he defeated the English invaders at the battle of Manau, but in 596 was defeated in Kincardineshire by the Picts, four of his sons being slain. In 603 Aidan was again defeated by Ethelfrith of Northumbria at the battle of Daegsastan. [Dalriada.]

Aidan, St. (*d.* 651), was a monk in the Columban monastery of Iona. Upon the failure of a mission sent into Northumbria at the request of the King Oswald, who had learnt something of Christianity in Scotland, Aidan was sent and was at once installed as bishop, with his see at Lindisfarne. He established Christianity, and was one of the most zealous supporters of the unreformed Paschal Cycle; despite which Bede fully recognises his piety and integrity. To St Aidan many miracles are ascribed, the most remarkable of which is, perhaps, his reputed power of stilling the most violent tempest by the use of consecrated oil.

Bede, *Hist. Eccles.*, i., 3, 50; *Acta Sanctorum*; Bright, *Early English Church Hist.*

Aids, The Voluntary, was the name given to a grant of £120,000, made in 1628 by the Irish Parliament, payable in instalments of £40,000 a year in return for

certain "Graces" or concessions from the crown. These payments were afterwards, especially by Strafford's action, renewed, and altogether continued for ten years. The Graces were never actually granted.

Aiguillon, Siege of (1347), was the most famous siege of the French wars of Edward III.'s reign. The fortress of Aiguillon was strongly situated on the borders of Gascony and Agenois, between the Lot and the Garonne, and it was bravely defended by Sir Walter Manny against John, Duke of Normandy, from May till the end of August. The duke had sworn never to quit the siege till the place was taken; and, finding his assaults ineffectual, resolved to reduce the place by famine. But the great victory of the English at Crecy imperatively called for the presence of the duke's army in the north of France, and he was compelled to raise the siege.

Ailesbury, Thomas Bruce, 2nd Earl of, and 3rd Earl of Elgin in Scotland (*d.* 1741), was present at the death-bed of Charles II. He took the oath of allegiance to William III., but, nevertheless, played a prominent part in the Jacobite conspiracies against the king. He was present at a meeting of Jacobites at the Old King's Head in 1695. He was sent to the Tower for his complicity in the Assassination Plot, and, in conjunction with Fenwick, attempted to bribe the witness Porter to leave the country. He, however, always denied that he had been privy to the criminal designs of the plotters. Macaulay remarks that "his denial would be the more creditable if he had not, by taking the oaths to the government against which he was so constantly intriguing, forfeited the right to be considered as a man of conscience and honour."

Ailmer, Sir Laurence, was Sheriff of London in 1501, and subsequently Lord Mayor. He resisted the exactions of the king's rapacious minsters, Empson and Dudley, and was committed to prison in the last year of Henry VII.'s reign for refusing to pay the fine of £1,000 imposed upon him.

Airds Moss, Fight of (1680), in Ayrshire, was a small skirmish in which the royal troops routed a party of the extreme Scotch Covenanters, who had signed the "Sanquhar Declaration" (q.v.), or Cameronians, as they were subsequently called. Richard Cameron, the leader of the sect, fell in this encounter.

Aislabie, John (*b.* 1670, *d.* 1742), was Chancellor of the Exchequer in Lord Stanhope's ministry of 1717. In 1719 he defended the Peerage Bill. In 1720 he, with Sunderland, was requested by Stanhope to consider the proposals of the South Sea Company. They accepted them; and, accordingly, all the intensity of popular indignation fell on them when the scheme failed. The inquiry elicited the fact that an extensive system of bribes had prevailed, and that large sums of fictitious capital had been invented and distributed among leading members of the Government. Aislabie's case was so flagrant that no one rose to defend him. He was expelled the House, and sent to the Tower. [South Sea Company.]

Aix-la-Chapelle, Treaty of (April 18, 1748), closed the War of the Austrian Succession. The initiative came from France, strengthened by her recent successes, and the strong desire for peace felt by England and Holland eventually forced the treaty on Austria and Sardinia. The principal articles were:—The renewal of all former treaties, and the mutual restoration of all conquests, England giving hostages for the restoration of Cape Breton; the fortifications of Dunkirk on the sea-side were to be demolished; the Duchies of Parma, Guastalla, and Piacenza were assigned to the Infant, Don Philip, but if he succeeded to the throne of Naples, the two first reverted to the house of Austria, and Piacenza to Sardinia; the Duke of Modena and the republic of Genoa were reinstated in their former territories; the Assiento Treaty with Spain was confirmed for four years; the Protestant succession in England was guaranteed according to the treaty of 1714, and the Pretender was to be excluded from France; the Emperor was to be acknowledged by France, and the Pragmatic Sanction guaranteed; the Duchy of Silesia and the county of Glätz were guaranteed to the King of Prussia, and the portions of the Milanese held by Sardinia were permanently surrendered by Austria. It resulted in the breach of the Austrian and English alliance.

Koch et Schoell, *Hist. des Traités de Paix*, ii., ch. 16; Coxe, *Pelham*; Mahon, *Hist. of Eng.*; Arneth, *Maria Theresa*.

Ajmeer, the chief town of a district in Rajputana, lying south-east of Jodpore. It was taken by the Mahrattas from the Moguls in 1770, and was for nearly half a century alternately in the hands of the Mahrattas and of rival Rajput princes. In 1818 it was finally ceded to the British in return for a payment of 50,000 rupees. The town contains the ruins of a very fine Hindoo temple.

Akeman Street. [Roman Roads.]

Alabama. [Geneva Award.]

Alban. About the end of the ninth century, and before the term Scotia came into use, the district between the Firths of Forth and Clyde and the Spey, which had been known as Pictland, or the kingdom of Scone, was called Alban, or Albania (more correctly, Alba, or Albu), a name which had still earlier been used to designate the whole country north of the Forth and the Clyde. The first king of Alban was Donald, son of Constantine (889—900). Shortly after this,

Alban was divided into seven provinces. About a century later the name was superseded by that of Scotia, Malcolm, son of Kenneth (1005—1034), being the first king of Scotia.

KINGS OF ALBAN.

Donald	889—900
Constantine, son of Aedh	900—942
Malcolm	942—954
Indulph	954—962
Dubh	962—967
Cuilean	967—971
Kenneth	971—995
Constantine, son of Cuilean	995—997
Kenneth, son of Dubh	997—1004

See Skene, *Celtic Scotland: a History of Ancient Alban*, 1876.

Alban, St. (*d.* 305?), is generally held to be the proto-martyr of Britain. His story, as related by Gildas, is that Alban, being then a Pagan, saved a confessor, who was being pursued by his persecutors, and was at the point of being seized, by hiding him in his own house, and by changing clothes with him. Alban was carried before the magistrate, but having in the meantime become a Christian, he refused to sacrifice to the gods, and was accordingly executed just outside the great city of Verulamium (St. Albans). Numerous miracles are related of him, but, putting these aside, there seems no reason for doubting that he is a historic personage. The date of the martyr's death is a difficulty, as in 305 Constantius, the father of Constantine, was Cæsar in Britain, who is known to have been very favourable to Christianity; perhaps we may place the event in 283, the date assigned to it in the Saxon Chronicle.

Bede, *Eccles. Hist.*, i. 7; Gildas, *Hist.*, § 10; *Anglo-Saxon Chron.*, sub. an.

Albani. A name cognate in meaning with Alban and Albion, which is found associated with the Celtic tribe who possessed the districts of Breadalbane and Athol, with parts of Lochaber and Upper Lorne.

Albania. The name sometimes given to the Scottish Dalriada. [DALRIADA.]

Albans, ST., ABBEY OF, &c. [ST. ALBANS.]

Albany, PEERAGE OF. In 1398 Robert Stuart (second son of King Robert II. of Scotland) was created Duke of Albany. On the execution of his son, Murdoch, second Duke of Albany, in 1425, the peerage was forfeited to the crown, but revived by James II. of Scotland, and conferred on his second son Alexander, who transmitted it to his son the Regent (1515—1523), John, Duke of Albany. In 1565, the title, being again extinct, was granted to Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley [DARNLEY], husband of Mary, Queen of Scots. In 1772 the title of *Countess of Albany* was assumed by Louisa Maria of Stolberg-Gedern (1754—1823) on her marriage with Prince Charles Edward, the Young Pretender. She quitted her husband in 1780, and after his death married the poet Alfieri. On being deserted by his wife, the Pretender affected to create his natural daughter, by Clementina Walkinshaw, *Duchess of Albany*. The title of Albany was added to that of York in the peerages of Ernest Augustus, brother of George I., Ernest Augustus, brother of George III., and Frederick, second son of that king. By letters patent, May 24, 1881, Prince Leopold, fourth son of the Queen, was created Duke of Albany and Earl of Clarence. He died in 1884. [STUART.]

Albany, ROBERT STUART, 1ST DUKE OF (*b.* 1339, *d.* 1419), the second son of Robert II., and the brother of Robert III., of Scotland, during his brother's later years practically governed the kingdom. His inertness on the invasion of Scotland by Henry IV. gave rise to the suspicion that he was plotting for the death of his nephew, David, Duke of Rothesay, who was besieged in Edinburgh Castle. That there may have been some truth in the supposition is likely; for soon afterwards Rothesay was seized at Albany's instigation, and imprisoned in Falkland Castle, where he died of starvation, 1402. On his nephew's death Albany became governor of the kingdom, and in that character gave support to a man whom he declared to be Richard II. of England, and whom he hoped to be able to make use of against Henry IV. The capture of the young Prince James by the English was also ascribed to his intrigues, whether justly or not is uncertain. On the death of Robert III. Albany continued to govern the kingdom as regent, until his own death, Sept. 3, 1419. In spite of his odious private character, Albany seems to have ruled Scotland with vigour, justice, and moderation.

See the *Scotichronicon* and Wyntoun, bk. ix., for different views of his character; and Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*.

Albany, MURDOCH, 2ND DUKE OF (*d.* 1425), succeeded his father, Robert, as governor of Scotland, 1419, during the captivity of James I. in England. Upon James's return he was condemned and executed at Stirling, May, 1425, together with two of his sons, for having misused his power as regent.

Albany, ALEXANDER, 3RD DUKE OF (*d.* 1485), was the second son of James II., and brother of James III., from whose jealousy he was compelled to take refuge in France, 1479. In 1483 he joined Edward IV. of England, executing a secret deed, in which he acknowledged the feudal supremacy of England over Scotland. After the affair at Lauderbridge (q.v.), Albany returned to Scotland and assumed the government for a short time; but on the terms of his secret treaty leaking out, was again compelled to seek an asylum in England. Here he joined the Earl of Douglas in an invasion of Scotland, which failed, Albany being obliged to go to France, where

he became a great favourite of Louis XI. He is described in the Chronicle of Pittscottie as "verrie wyse and manlie, and loved nothing so weill as able men, and maid great coast and expences theirupoun."

Chronicle of Pittscottie; Lesley, *Hist. of Scotland*; Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*.

Albany, John, 4th Duke of, Regent of Scotland from 1515 to 1524, was the son of Alexander, Duke of Albany, and nephew of James III. On the death of James IV., Albany, who was Lord High Admiral of France, was summoned to Scotland to assume the regency, a position which his French education had by no means fitted him to fill. He arrived in Scotland in 1515, and one of his first acts as regent was to crush the power of the Earl of Angus, whom he managed to get conveyed to France; his next, to bring to trial all whom he conceived to be in league with the Douglas party. In September, 1522, he collected an immense army for the invasion of England, to retaliate upon Henry VIII. for having demanded his expulsion from the Scotch Estates. Henry, however, contrived by diplomacy to stay the blow before it had fallen, and Albany shortly after returned to France, where he collected an auxiliary force, 1523. Compelled, however, to raise the siege of Wark Castle, he retired to France in disgust, May, 1524, and never returned.

Chronicle of Pitt-cottie; Lesley, *Hist. of Scotland*; Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*.

Albemarle (or **Aumale**), Peerage of. Odo or Eudes, a claimant of the county of Champagne, held considerable possessions at Albemarle, in Normandy. He married Adeliza, sister of William the Conqueror, and his wife, styled in Domesday Book "Comitissa de Albemarle," obtained large grants of land in England. Her son Stephen (1127) is called "Comes Albemarlensis," and the title was inherited by his son William, who greatly distinguished himself at the battle of the Standard. (*See* Sir Harris Nicolas' note in his *Historic Peerage*.) His heiress Hawisia carried the title to William de Fortibus (*d.* 1195), from whom it passed to their son, William de Fortibus, one of the twenty-five barons named in Magna Charta. His granddaughter Avelina married Edmund, Earl of Lancaster, second son of Henry III., so that the title and honours of Albemarle became sunk in the royal house. In 1397, Edward, Earl of Rutland, son of Edmund, Duke of York, was created Duke of Albemarle (or Aumale), but forfeited the title in 1399. In 1411, Thomas, second son of Henry IV., was created Duke of Clarence and Earl of Albemarle; he was killed at Beaugé in 1421, when the peerage became extinct. It was revived in 1423, in favour of Richard Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick, who was granted the title for life. It again became extinct on his death in 1439. In 1660 General George Monk was created Duke of Albemarle. The title passed to his son Christopher, and expired with him in 1688. In 1696 the earldom of Albemarle was revived and conferred on William III.'s faithful follower, Arnold Joost van Keppel, in whose descendants it has since remained.

Albemarle, George Monk, Duke of (*b.* 1608, *d.* 1670), was the second son of a Devonshire baronet, entered the army as a volunteer, and took part in the expedition to the Isle of Rhé in 1628; and after peace was made with France joined the Earl of Oxford's regiment, which had been raised for the support of the Protestants in Germany and Holland. He remained abroad for ten years, returning to England in 1639, in time to take part in the Scotch war. After hesitating for some time between king and Parliament, Monk decided on joining the forces which had been sent over from Ireland by Ormond to Charles's assistance. As major-general of these troops, Monk took part in the battle of Nantwich, where he was taken prisoner and committed to the Tower. Here he remained for more than two years, but in 1646 he was liberated and placed in command of the English forces in Ulster. He was so badly supported that he was forced to make terms with the rebels under Owen Roe O'Neil, for which he was censured by Parliament, although the Independent leaders had advised the treaty. But Monk had convinced Cromwell of his ability, and on the latter being appointed, in 1650, to the command of the parliamentary forces in Scotland, he made Monk lieutenant-general of artillery. At the battle of Dunbar, Monk showed great bravery, and on Cromwell's return to England he was left to complete the reduction of Scotland, which he speedily effected, though not without considerable cruelty. In 1653, on the outbreak of the Dutch war, Monk was appointed one of the admirals of the fleet, and had a share in the great victory off the Texel. He returned to his command in Scotland in 1654, and remained there till the death of Oliver Cromwell, when he acknowledged Richard, and advised him to rely on the Presbyterian party, and endeavour to gather the old nobility and the country gentlemen round him. But during Richard's short reign anarchy prevailed in England. The Parliament had been forcibly dissolved by the army, and the Rump restored, only to be dispersed a few months afterwards by the soldiers. Having obtained a grant of money from the Scotch Estates, on New Year's Day, 1660, Monk crossed the border, and on February 3rd entered London. All opposition to him proved fruitless, and the Rump, which had been hurriedly resuscitated, hailed him as their deliverer. Perceiving the strength of the royalist reaction he determined to restore the monarchy, and sent an invitation

to Charles II. to return. In taking this step he had the majority of a free Parliament at his back, for he had compelled the Rump to dissolve itself, and the new House of Commons, though largely Presbyterian, contained a vast number of members who regarded the Royal Family with favour. At the same time he showed his prudence by counselling Charles to promise a general pardon, freedom of conscience, payment of the soldiers' arrears, and the confirmation of confiscated estates. He also took into account the probability of his plans being upset by resistance on the part of the army. He did his best to mollify the temper of such regiments as were within his reach by promises and rewards; and in order, if necessary, to confront force with force, he called out and organised the militia. So skilfully did he arrange matters that only one slight outbreak occurred. Lambert, who had opposed Monk on his southward march, and had been taken, escaped from prison and raised a small army in the centre of England. The attempt was easily quashed, Lambert was again made prisoner, and Charles, on landing, was received with general satisfaction. Monk reaped the highest rewards. He was created Duke of Albemarle and lieutenant-general of the forces, and a perpetual pension of £7,000 a year was granted to him. On the renewal of the Dutch war in 1664 he was appointed joint admiral with Prince Rupert, and behaved with his usual bravery. During the Plague of 1665 he was invested by the king with the government of London, and by his energy greatly alleviated the general misery, and preserved order. He took no prominent part in politics during the few remaining years of his life.

Guizot, *Monk* (Eng. translation, 1851, with Lord Wharncliffe's notes); Gumble, *Life of Monk*, 1671; Skinner, *Life of Monk*, 1723; Lodge, *Portraits*, vol. v.; Ludlow, *Memoirs*; Whitelocke, *Memoirs*; Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion*.

[F. S. P.]

Albemarle, Arnold Joost van Keppel, 1st Earl of (*b.* 1669, *d.* 1718), accompanied William of Orange to England. He was the confidential friend of the king, and acted as his chamberlain. He was raised to the peerage in 1696. After the death of William, Albemarle was chosen by the States-General to command their cavalry, and fought in the war of the Spanish succession. He was taken prisoner at Denain in 1712.

Biographica Britannica; Macaulay, *Hist. of England*.

Albemarle, George Keppel, 3rd Earl of (*b.* 1724, *d.* 1772), the son of William Anne, 2nd earl, served, as aide-de-camp to the Duke of Cumberland, at Fontenoy and Culloden. In 1745 he was elected member for Chichester, which place he continued to represent till 1754, when he succeeded to the earldom. In 1761 he was appointed governor of Jersey. In March, 1762, he embarked as commander-in-chief of the land forces destined for the reduction of Havannah, and captured Fort Moro after a stubborn resistance. Still the Spaniards declined to surrender; but after enduring a cannonade for six hours Havannah capitulated with eleven men-of-war and one million and a half of money, and about the same amount in merchandise. In Parliament the earl took an active part in most of the Whig measures of his time, especially making himself conspicuous by his opposition to the Royal Marriage Act, and by joining with forty-seven other peers, in 1770, in a solemn pledge against any future infringement of the rights of the people at elections.

Albemarle, *Rockingham and his Cotemporaries*; Jesse, *Reign of George III.*; *Grenville Papers*, iii.

Albert, Prince (*b.* 1819, *d.* 1861), the husband of Queen Victoria, was the second son of the reigning Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, and nephew to King Leopold of Belgium, and the Duchess of Kent. The prince was admirably and carefully educated, and in November, 1839, formally betrothed to his cousin, the Queen, to whom he was married February 10, 1840. By an Act passed just before this event, a sum of £30,000 a year was settled on the prince for life, the grant having been reduced from £50,000, the sum proposed by the Ministry, by the efforts of the Radicals and the Opposition. By a subsequent Act of this session the prince was named regent in the event of the Queen's death before the heir to the crown attained the age of eighteen; and in 1857 he was designated "Prince Consort" by letters patent. He died, to the universal regret of the nation, of typhoid fever, Dec. 14, 1861. The prince's position, as husband of a constitutional sovereign, had been a peculiarly difficult and trying one. Apprehensions were frequently expressed in the earlier part of his married life that his influence would be too extensively exercised in matters of state; and during the years of the Crimean war it was asserted and popularly believed, though, as it was proved, without a shadow of foundation, that the prince had taken an undue share in the management of the army and the disposal of patronage. It was, however, gradually acknowledged that the difficult circumstances of his situation could hardly have been met with greater tact and conscientiousness, and with more thorough appreciation of the theory of constitutional monarchy. The prince found a more congenial sphere than politics in the encouragement of the arts and in the promotion of social and industrial reforms, and to his efforts the inauguration and successful establishment of the Great Exhibition of 1851 were in great part due.

The Speeches and Addresses of Prince Albert, with an Introd., 1862; Sir Theodore Martin's authoritative and elaborate *Life of the Prince Consort*; *Memoirs of Baron Stockmar*, 1872; *The Early Years of the Prince Consort*, 1867.

Albinus, Clodius (*d.* 197), commander of the Roman forces in Britain, was proclaimed Emperor by the legions of the province on the assassination of Pertinax (193). His rival, Severus, who was declared emperor by the troops of Pannonia, at first attempted to win him over by favours; but in 197 marched against him and defeated and slew him at Lyons. This battle of Lugdunum, or Lyons, is interesting as being the first recorded battle fought by a British army on the Continent.

Dio Cassius, lxxiii.—v.

Albion was perhaps the oldest name for Britain. It occurs in a treatise once ascribed to Aristotle (*De Mundo*, c. 3, in *Mon. Hist. Brit.* i.), "ἐν τούτῳ (sc. τῷ 'Ωκεανῷ) νῆσοι μέγισταί τε τυγχάνουσιν οὖσαι δύο, Βρεταννικαὶ λεγόμεναι, Ἄλβιον καὶ Ἰέρνη" (cf. Bede, *Hist. Ec.*, i. 1., in *Mon. Hist. Brit.*, 108 A). "Rex Albionis insulæ" was a very favourite title of the more powerful Anglo-Saxon kings (*see* example in Freeman, *Norm. Conq.*, i. 548—551), but in later times Albion mainly occurs in poetry. The word means "white," and its use was, perhaps, suggested by the chalk cliffs of the south-east coast. It is etymologically connected with "albus," "alp," &c., and is the Brythonic (Cymric) form of the Goidelic (Gaelic) "Alban," *e.g.*, "Drum Albin" is "Dorsum Albionis" (*Mon. Hist. Brit.*, 175 *n*).

For much curious information and extraordinary etymologies, *see* Cooper, *Thesaurus Linguæ Romanæ et Britannicæ; Dictionarium Historicum* (London, 1565), s.v. Albion. See also Rhys, *Celtic Britain*, p. 200—203.

[T. F. T.]

Albuera, Battle of (May 16, 1811), during the Peninsular War, was fought by Beresford to check Soult, who was advancing to the relief of Badajos. Soult had with him 20,000 veteran troops, while Beresford, though he had nominally 30,000 men, could only depend on the handful of 7,000 British troops. He had, however, taken up a strong position on a range of hills, in front of which ran the Albuera River; the British being in the centre, with Blake and the Spaniards on the right. During the night of the 15th Soult massed his men with a view to carrying the table-land which threatened the English right and rear, and on the morning of the 16th directed a feint attack in front. Beresford ordered Blake to change front, to guard against an expected flank attack on the right, but that general for a long time refused to obey orders, and the movement was only at length carried out by Beresford in person, who, even when he had changed the front of the Spaniards, could scarcely induce them to move. Beresford was already thinking of retreating, when Colonel Hardinge with the 4th division, and Abercrombie with a brigade of the 2nd division, which had only been slightly engaged, pushed on to the high ground. The crowded formation of the French prevented them from executing any rapid movement; and, in spite of a storm of grapeshot, the British infantry irresistibly pressed on till, "slowly and with a horrid carnage, the French were pushed by the incessant vigour of the attack to the farthest edge of the hill." The attempt to bring up reserves "only increased the irremediable confusion; and the mighty mass, breaking off like a loosened cliff, went headlong down the steep, and 1,800 unwounded men, the remnant of 6,000 unconquerable British soldiers, stood triumphant on the fatal hill." In four hours nearly 7,000 of the allies and 8,000 French had been struck down. On the 17th Soult took up a threatening position, but on the arrival of British reinforcements marched away, and abandoned the attempt to relieve Badajos.

There is a striking account of the battle in Napier, *Peninsular War*. [W. R. S.]

Alcantara, Capture of (1706), was effected by Lord Galway during the War of Succession in Spain (q.v.). He had urged on the Portuguese troops the duty of advancing on Madrid to co-operate with the troops of the Archduke Charles advancing from Barcelona. On his way he drove out a garrison placed by Marshal Berwick in Alcantara. "Ten good battalions" of Berwick's force were taken, and sixty pieces of cannon.

Alcock, John (*d.* 1500), Bishop of Rochester, Worcester, and Ely, born between 1430 and 1440, at Beverley, in Yorkshire, was appointed dean of the chapel of St. Stephen in the Palace of Westminster in 1462, and in March, 1470, acted as Edward IV.'s envoy to the King of Castile. After the victory of Barnet, Alcock was made Master of the Rolls, which appointment he resigned in March, 1472, to John Morton, upon his own advancement to the bishopric of Rochester. During the temporary illness of Bishop Stillington, Alcock held the Great Seal from 20th September, 1472, to April 5th, 1473; and in September, 1476, he was appointed to the bishopric of Worcester. During Richard III.'s reign his influence on public affairs was very slight; but on the accession of Henry VII. he became Lord Chancellor, in 1485; and in 1486 succeeded Morton as Bishop of Ely. He built the beautiful hall at his episcopal palace of Ely, and Jesus College, Cambridge, which he founded on the site of the old monastery of St. Radigunda.

Foss, *Judges of England*, vol. v.

Alderman, or **Ealdorman,** which is the more ancient form of the word, means simply elder man; that is, one advanced in years. It is used in two distinct senses.

(1) Among the first English settlers the title appears to have meant simply chieftain, the position of the ealdorman corresponding to that of the *princeps* of the Germanic

tribes as described by Tacitus before the migration, and it continued to be occasionally used vaguely as an equivalent to lord or noble; but in all public documents the word is evidently taken in the strict sense of the chief magistrate of the shire or group of shires, and was not necessarily connected with nobility of blood, service, or large estate. This restriction of the title may be dated about the beginning of the ninth century, in the days of Egbert. The ealdorman was, in theory, elected in the Witenagemot, but the office became practically hereditary. As the power of the kingdom of Wessex rose, and the smaller kingdoms were absorbed by it, the descendants of the royal houses often became hereditary ealdormen in almost unbroken succession; and when their lines became extinct, the ealdormen appointed by the king, with the implied, if not expressed, consent of the Witan, transmitted the office to their descendants. Their jurisdictions became enlarged, probably by the aggregation of several shires under one rule. The position of the great ealdormen was a high one; they were practically independent of weak kings. Their *wergild*, the fine exacted from those who killed them, was equal to that of the bishop, and four times that of the theyn, the king's being six times. The duties of the ealdorman consisted in administering the shire conjointly with the sheriff, who represented the royal as opposed to the national authority. He commanded the military force of the shire, in which capacity he was sometimes called *heretoga*, the leader of the host (*here*); and he sat with the sheriff and the bishop in the shiremoot, receiving a third of the fines levied in the jurisdiction. The ealdormen also attended the central Witenagemot, together with the bishops. In Ethelred's reign the name ealdorman began to be supplanted by the Danish title, *earl*, and this process was completed when Canute divided the kingdom into four great earldoms. From that date the title sank to its earlier meaning of headman, and was applied to almost any local officer. Thus, in the thirteenth century there is an ealdorman of the hundred, who represents his hundred in the shire moot. [*See* also EARL; SHERIFF.]

(2) Alderman, in its mediæval and modern sense, means an official invested with certain municipal powers and duties, and associated with the mayor in the government of a city or town corporate. The word ealdorman, or alderman, had, as has been shown, become applied to any headman or local officer, and accordingly, in the reign of Henry II., we find that the headman of a gild is called alderman. When, as happened in some of the great towns, the English system of a gild, or trade corporation, gradually lost its identity in the *communa*, or municipal corporation, the presiding officer of which was the mayor, the mayor and aldermen became associated in the government of the new municipalities. The first mayor of London was appointed in 1191, and the institution of mayor and aldermen in the large towns was pretty general by the end of the reign of John. The authority of the aldermen was, at first, by no means secure, and throughout the reign of Henry III. the populace of London protested against their claim to assess taxation and elect the mayor. However, we find them, with four men from each ward, sending members to Parliament in 1297, and their appointments, which were annual under Edward II., were for life under Edward IV. Under the Lancastrian kings, the mayor and aldermen are associated with the *town councils*, relics of the earlier town government, which first consisted of twenty-four, and afterwards of larger numbers, and became prominent from the decay of the machinery of the local courts; the mayor, aldermen, and town council forming the elements of the *municipal corporation*. The numbers and sometimes the functions of the aldermen were settled in the charters of incorporation granted to the towns. Under the Stuarts, their powers were frequently tampered with from above by the forfeiture and alteration of the charters of incorporation, and the appointment of individual aldermen by royal authority; while they in turn usurped the privileges of the burgesses and freemen, became self-elective, and in some cases obtained the exclusive right of electing members of Parliament. Their electoral power, however, was taken from them by the Reform Bill, and in 1835 the Municipal Reform Act and a subsequent Act in 1859 did away with the old order of aldermen (except in London), and enacted that their successors were to be elected for six years instead of for life, one-half of their number retiring every third year; and that they should form one-third of the town councillors, from whom and by whom they were to be chosen. Under the Local Government Act, 1888, county aldermen are one-fourth of the members of county councils, and are elected by the rest from their own number or from outside. The alderman is represented in Scotland by the bailie; in Ireland he is elected by the burgesses. [GILD; TOWN.]

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, chaps. v., vi., xi., xv., and xxi., and *Select Charters*; Palgrave, *The Eng. Commonwealth*; Brady, *On Boroughs*; Mereweather and Stephens, *Hist. of Boroughs*; Grant, *The Law of Corporations*; Maitland, *Hist. of London*, Statutes 5 and 6 *Will. IV.*, c. 76; and 22 *Vict.*, c. 35. [L. C. S.]

Aldfrid (EALDFRITH), King of Northumbria (685—705), was the son of Oswy, and brother of Egfrith, whom he succeeded. He was well instructed in theology and secular learning, and acquired the title of "the wisest of kings." His territory was curtailed by the conquests of the Picts, but on the whole his reign was prosperous.

Aldhelm, or **Adelm,** St., Bishop of Sherborne (*b. circa* 640, *d.* 709), was born in Wiltshire, and appears to have been connected with the family of the West Saxon kings. Early in life he was sent to study in Kent, and afterwards joined the community of scholars who had studied under the Irish hermit, Meidulf, at Malmesbury; of which monastery Aldhelm became abbot. He afterwards made a journey to Rome, and took part in the dispute with the British clergy about Easter. In 705 he was made Bishop of Sherborne. Aldhelm's learning was greatly celebrated. He wrote in the vernacular as well as in Latin, and has been called "the father of Anglo-Latin poetry." King Alfred considered him as among the best of English poets. He wrote a prose treatise, *De Laude Virginitatis*; and a poem, *De Laude Virginum*; some *Enigmata* in verse; and some letters to Aldfrid of Northumbria and others.

Will. of Malmesbury, *Vita Aldhelmi*; in Wharton's *Anglia Sacra*; Wright, *Biographia Brit. Litt.* i. 209, where a list of editions of Aldhelm's works is given.

Aldred (Ealdred), (*d.* 1069), Archbishop of York, was a monk of Winchester, who became Abbot of Tavistock, and in 1046 Bishop of Worcester. Like many of the native English prelates he travelled much on the Continent. Besides journeying to Rome, in 1050 he traversed Hungary and visited Jerusalem; and subsequently was sent by Edward the Confessor on a mission to the Emperor Henry III. In 1061 he became Archbishop of York, retaining the see of Worcester *in commendam*. The Pope refused to bestow the pallium on him till he gave up the see of Worcester. On the death of Edward, Aldred crowned Harold; but on the death of that prince he submitted to William, and in fact became a strong supporter of the new dynasty. He performed the coronation ceremony for the Conqueror, in default of Stigand. Several legendary tales are told of the latter part of his life, among which is the striking story that he cursed William for his evil deeds, and caused the king to fall trembling at his feet.

William of Malmesbury, *De Gest. Pontif.*, 154; T. Stubbs, *Acta Pontif. Eboracens.*, 1701; Freeman, *Norm. Conq.*, ii. 85, iv. 262, &c.

Ale-Taster, Ale-Conner, or Ale-Founder, was an officer appointed formerly in every manor and borough to examine and assay the beer and ale, and present dishonest ale-vendors to the next court-leet or borough-court. The assize of bread and ale (*panis et cerevisiæ*), 51 Henry III., regulated the selling and inspection of these two chief articles of food. The ale-tasters were chosen and sworn in the court-leet once a year. The office, which is of very great antiquity, still survives in some parts of England. It has been thought to owe its origin to the convivial feasts in which the business of the primitive Teutonic communities was largely transacted.

Alexander I., the Fierce, King of Scotland (*s.* 1107, *d.* 1124), was the son of Malcolm Canmore and Margaret, and successor to his brother Eadgar, or Edgar. By Eadgar's will he obtained as his kingdom the lands north of the Forth and Clyde, his brother David inheriting Lothian and Cumbria. He gained a great victory on the Moray Firth over the rebellious Maormars of Ross and the Mearns, and founded, in gratitude, the monastery of Scone. An attempt to reconstitute the bishopric of St. Andrews involved the king in disputes with the Archbishops of York and Canterbury, ending only with his death, which took place at Stirling, April, 1124. He had married Sybilla, natural daughter of Henry I. of England. With his father's courage and restless ambition, he seems to have inherited from his mother a devotional feeling and a taste for religious exercises, which were much less characteristic of his race. He inaugurated the feudal policy so thoroughly carried out by his successor, David.

Robertson, *Early Kings of Scotland*; Skene, *Celtic Scotland*.

Alexander II., King of Scotland (*s.* Dec. 5, 1214, *d.* 1249), was son and successor to William the Lion. The young king, who was on friendly terms with the English barons, had to maintain a border army to frustrate the attacks of John until 1217. Carlisle surrendered to the Scots, and the Castle of Tweedmouth was demolished in 1217. In June, 1221, Alexander married Joanna, sister of Henry III. The next year Alexander entered Argyle, drove out all those who had been engaged in insurrections against the royal power, and turned the whole district into the sheriffdom of Argyle, creating also the bishopric of the same name. After a struggle of some years' duration he succeeded in 1235 in finally bringing Galloway into subjection to the crown. The following year Alexander refused to do homage to the English king, and laid claim to the northern counties of England; at a conference between the two kings, at Newcastle, war was only averted by the strong inclination which the English barons showed for peace. In 1244 there was another rupture between the two kings, and war was imminent; but it was averted by the mediation of Richard of Cornwall and the Archbishop of York. In 1248, Alexander, after trying to induce Haco, King of Norway, to surrender the sovereignty of the isles, made an expedition to the Sudreys. He died, however, before accomplishing his object, near Oban, July 8, 1249, and was buried at Melrose. He married, as his second wife, Mary, daughter of Enguerrand de Coucy. He had been a good king, noted for his moderation and justice, bent on the improve-

ment of his subjects and the consolidation of the various discordant elements in his kingdom. Sir David Dalrymple calls him "one of the wisest princes that ever reigned over Scotland."

See the *Scotichronicon*, edited by Mr. Skene; Dalrymple, *Annals of Scotland*; Robertson, *Early Kings of Scotland*; Skene, *Celtic Scotland*; Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*.

Alexander III., King of Scotland (*b.* 1241, *s.* 1249, *d.* 1286), was the son of Alexander II. and Mary de Coucy. In 1251, in accordance with the terms of the Treaty of Newcastle, he was married to his cousin Margaret, daughter of Henry III. In 1255, Henry procured the appointment of the Earl of Dunbar, who was favourable to his interests, as regent in the place of the Earl of Menteith, who, however, recovered his power. In 1263 a war broke out between Alexander and Haco of Norway, for possession of the Sudreys and the Norse districts on the mainland, which ended in the victory of the Scots at Largs (q.v.), and the consequent annexation of the Isles to Scotland, 1266. In 1274 Alexander and his queen were present at Edward I.'s coronation; and in 1278 the Scotch king did homage to his brother-in-law at Westminster, for lands held in England. On the death of his second son, Alexander, January, 1284, the king, left childless, summoned a meeting of the Estates at Scone, and caused them to recognise his granddaughter, Margaret, the Maid of Norway, as their future sovereign. Shortly afterwards he married Yolande, daughter of the Count of Dreux, but died owing to a fall from his horse, near Kinghorn, in March, 1285. "To judge from the events of his reign," says Mr. Robertson, "he was an able, upright, and high-spirited sovereign."

Scotichronicon; Robertson, *Early Kings of Scotland*; Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*.

Alexander, Bishop of Lincoln (*d.* 1148), was one of the family group of episcopal statesmen of Stephen's reign, of which Alexander's uncle, the Justiciar, Roger, Bishop of Salisbury, was the head. By his influence he was advanced to the see of Lincoln, and probably also held some office in the royal court. He was one of the bishops arrested by Stephen in 1139, and was kept in prison some considerable time. After his release he retired from political life, and was appointed Papal legate in England. Henry of Huntingdon dedicated his history to Alexander, and speaks of him in terms of the highest praise. He began the erection of the present cathedral of Lincoln, to replace the former one, which was destroyed by fire.

Henry of Huntingdon, *Historia*; Pauli, *Eng. Geschichte*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*

Alexandra, Queen-Mother, Widow of Edward VII. (*b.* Dec. 1, 1844), the eldest daughter of Christian IX., King of Denmark, was married to Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, on March 10th, 1863. Queen Consort from 1901 to May, 1910, when Edward VII. died. In public life the Queen has always evinced a strong interest in the welfare of the masses, being particularly associated with hospital charities. In private life Queen Alexandra devotes much time to her favourite hobby of photography, and she is passionately fond of dogs.

Alexandria, Battle of (21st March, 1801), was fought by the British force under Sir Ralph Abercromby, which had been sent out to complete the destruction of the diminished remnant of Bonaparte's army after he had effected a landing in Aboukir Bay, in the face of a large French force, on the 1st of March. During the next three weeks the French gradually fell back before the British, till they retired into Alexandria. Abercromby now stationed himself to the east of Alexandria, with his right resting on some Roman ruins on the sea-shore, and his left on the Lake Mayadieh. Early on the 21st the French infantry attacked simultaneously both flanks, though the serious attack was on the right, where all the French cavalry were launched upon the English. The attack was resisted by Moore's division with stubborn bravery, until Abercromby ordered the reserve to charge. It obeyed, threw the French into confusion, and hurled them back to their own lines. Meanwhile the attack on the left had proved to be merely a feint, and a real attack on the centre had been repulsed by the Guards. The British loss was heavy, and Sir Ralph Abercromby fell. Deprived of its general, the army was handled with an excess of caution. The French finally capitulated.

Alison, *Hist. of Europe.*

Alexandria, Bombardment of (1882). In May, 1882, owing to the disturbed state of Egypt, where the so-called "National Party," under Arabi Pasha, had obtained a complete control of the government, and seemed bent on dethroning the Khedive, an English and French fleet was ordered to enter the harbour of Alexandria. An attempt of the Khedive to dismiss Arabi failed. On June 11th a fanatical outbreak occurred, and several hundreds of Europeans, including an officer of the fleet and the British consul, were killed or injured. The fortifications of Alexandria were being constantly strengthened, till they menaced the safety of the British fleet. The English admiral, Sir Beauchamp Seymour, demanded that these works should be discontinued. On the 9th and 10th the foreign ships, including those of France, steamed out of the harbour. Eight ironclads and five gunboats began the bombardment on the 11th, destroying the forts and causing the garrison to evacuate the town. The loss of the English was trifling,

though the Egyptians fought with bravery. Sir Beauchamp Seymour was raised to the peerage under the title of Lord Alcester.

Annual Register, 1882; *History of the Year*, 1881—2.

Alford, Battle of (May, 1645), was a skirmish fought in Aberdeenshire between Montrose, at the head of the Cavaliers, and the Covenanters under Hurry and Baillie. The latter were defeated.

Alfred (*b.* 849? *d.* 901), called in his own times Ælfred Æthelwufing, in later, Alfred the Great; King of the West-Saxons between 871 and 901, was born at "the royal town that is called Wanating" (Wantage), in Berkshire. The date usually given on the authority of Asser is 849. But an earlier date, 842 or 843, for his birth would remove at least one difficulty in the story of his life, without raising, so far as the present writer can judge, any others that cannot be explained. He was the youngest son of King Ethelwulf and his wife, the Lady Osburgh, and the grandson of Egbert, and of Oslac, the *pincerna*, or cup-bearer, of Ethelwulf.

We are told nothing of Alfred's childhood, and but little of his boyhood. In 853, says the Chronicle, his father sent him to Rome, when Leo (IV.) was Pope; and the Pope there consecrated him king, and took him as his spiritual son. The well-known account given in Asser of the way in which his lifelong love of letters was first kindled is now looked upon with considerable doubt. There is certainly more than one fatal objection to it, on the supposition that Alfred was born as late as 849. In 861 his mother had been dead at least six years; his father, who had taken as second wife a girl not much older than Alfred himself, and his eldest brother, who had married this same girl on her widowhood, were also dead, and another brother was king in the elder's place; but if we can bring ourselves to believe the date of Alfred's birth, as now printed, a blunder for an earlier, we can safely acquiesce in the literal truth of the beautiful story.

When we add to these scraps of information the facts that he lost his mother about 855, and his father in 858, we possess all that can be received as certain or admissible knowledge respecting his youth. The story that he went again to Rome, as his father's companion, in 855, is discredited by the silence of the Chronicle on the subject. In 868 he married Alcswith, the daughter of Ethelred, surnamed Mickle (the Big), Earl of the Gainas, in Lincolnshire. If Asser's *Life* speaks the truth, the wedding festivities were not yet over when he was seized by a malady of so strange and mysterious a nature that the simple folk of the time suspected it to be the work of the devil. This would seem to have been some peculiar form of nervous disease. Its most painful feature was its periodic recurrence; it sometimes came upon him without a minute's warning, and paralysed his powers on occasions that demanded their fullest exercise. In the same year, within a few weeks, perhaps, he was called upon to face, for the first time, what proved to be the one mighty task of his life. The Danes had fallen upon the land of the Mercians. Burghred, the Mercian king, cried to his brother-in-law and over-lord, Ethelred, King of the West-Saxons, for help. His cry was heard, and Alfred went with his brother to the siege of Nottingham, where the Danes were lying. Nottingham was won back, not by force, but by a treaty—which probably meant a bargain that gave the English a breathing-space, and the Danes a fair profit on their adventure.

Three years later (871) Alfred was summoned to grapple with the work he was born to accomplish, in deadly earnest; and, as if to bring him to the fulfilment of his destiny, his elder brothers were rapidly dying off. In 860 the West-Saxon kingship had passed from Ethelbald to Ethelbert, whose death in 865 had given the crown to Ethelred, and thus placed Alfred on the very steps of the throne. After the peace of Nottingham the invaders had gone back to York, stayed there a year, and then (870) had marched southward, seized on Thetford, and beaten in battle and slain Edmund, the East-Anglian king. Very early next year (871) they burst into Wessex itself. "The destroying host" laid hold on Reading, secured their position there, and proceeded straightway to carry on from thence their work of plunder and havoc. Towards Reading the men of Wessex at once hastened, under the command of King Ethelred, of Alfred, and of Ethelwulf, the alderman; and a furious strife ensued, which lasted throughout the year. Fight followed fight in quick succession. Victorious under Ethelwulf at Englefield the West-Saxons were, a few days later, baffled at Reading, though led by their king and his brother in person; and after great slaughter had to fall back, leaving the field of carnage in the possession of their enemies. Foiled for the moment, but with courage still unshaken, the royal brothers, four days afterwards, closed with the whole army of the Danes at Ashdown. Here took place one of the most stubborn tugs of war in history. [Ashdown.] To Alfred the chief glory of the victory of the West-Saxons is given by Asser, whose book tells us that it was his early advance to the attack, while his brother lingered at mass, that broke the strength of the enemy, and led to their utter discomfiture in the end. Yet this splendid success was indecisive. In an engagement at Basing that followed a fortnight later, "the Danes got the victory" over the winners of Ashdown; and in two months more, at Merton, the West-Saxons, after a stubborn conflict, had to withdraw from the field.

At Easter Ethelred died; and Alfred was made king. In another month he was again at handgrips with his dogged foes—this time at Wilton—and was again beaten. Thus Alfred's reign began with defeat. He now either lost heart, or concluded that further fighting was useless; for in a short time he came to terms —perhaps struck a bargain—with the men he had failed to overcome; and early next year the Danes marched away from his kingdom.

If it was his design to gain time to repair his strength, he was wise to make peace. After 871 the land had entire rest for four years, and comparative rest for three more, though other parts of England were smarting under the rapacity and ferocity of the merciless strangers. Some use of this respite the king must have made: he is recorded as having, in 875, attacked and put to flight seven Danish ships. During the next and following years (876—877) he was also strong enough to force a treaty upon a powerful force that had landed in Dorset, and exact oaths and hostages from them. He found it no easy matter to get rid altogether of the intruders; but in the autumn of 877 they at length sailed away from Exeter to the land of the Mercians. But this deliverance almost brought his kingdom to the brink of ruin. In the first week of 878 the Danish army stole up from Gloucester, and, coming upon the West-Saxons unawares, seized Chippenham. The surprise was complete; so sudden and so swift was the movement, that they had ridden over and taken to themselves the greater part of the kingdom before a sufficient force could be brought together to make head against them at any point. Many people fled beyond the sea; Alfred alone refused to despair; "uneasily, with a little band of warriors, he went along the woods, and into the moor-fastnesses." In one of these he at last halted, and began, with the faithful few that followed him, to throw up a defensive work—thrice-famous ever since as Athelney, the Isle of Nobles, called so, no doubt, from the trusty handful of high-born men that plied the mattock around the king. It covers a few acres a little south of Sedgmoor, in Somerset. To its narrow compass the last English kingdom had shrunk.

But it was a brief agony, after all. The Danes would seem to have been drawing their toils round Athelney; they threw a considerable detachment on the neighbouring coast, which was beaten with great loss, and Alfred was untiring in his assaults upon them from his stronghold. The country recovered from its surprise, and, some weeks after Easter, Alfred quitted Athelney, and met the levies of the three shires at Egbertstone, on the eastern skirts of Selwood Forest. With these he went straight upon the enemy, met them at Edington (a place that, like Egbertstone, has not been identified with certainty), overthrew their host, and chased its wrecks into their fortress. A siege of fourteen days ended in the Danes engaging to withdraw from Wessex, and their king, Guthorm, consenting to become a Christian. These pledges were punctually kept. At Aller the baptismal ceremonies were begun; at Wedmore they were completed; and soon after, the army of the invaders marched away from Chippenham. Thus was Wessex snatched from destruction, and, with Wessex, the destiny of the English race. Never, perhaps, had a nationality come so near, and yet escaped, extinction.

The next fifteen years (878—893) may be called a time of peace for Alfred and his people. During them the flame of war left the ancient kingdom untouched; such fitful bursts of fighting as broke the general stillness either fell upon the outlying districts, as Kent and Surrey, or had the sea as their scene of action; and the king was successful in all. But to these years almost certainly belong the great measures that make the second half of England's debt to Alfred—the effacement of the ravages of war, the restoration of material prosperity, the re-invigoration of the national defences, the improvement of the laws, the rekindling of religion, the "relighting of the lamp of learning." The first two of the above objects he tried to effect by repairing the damage done to towns and cities, raising public buildings, reclaiming waste lands, and making or renewing roads and bridges. Our knowledge of the third is vague; but to the *fyrd*, or levy *en masse*, of the people, he sought to give greater rapidity and flexibility of movement: and he reformed the naval system by making the ships themselves instruments of war, not mere platforms for fighting from. As a legislator, he added nothing to existing laws, but simply revised those of his predecessors, keeping "those that seemed to him good," rejecting "those that seemed to him not good," and combining the former into a single code. Religion and letters had sunk so low among the West-Saxons that he had to seek the agents of their regeneration in foreign lands. From Wales he drew Asser; from Mercia, Werfrith and Plegmund; Grimbald and John the Old Saxon from the Continent; and with their help reanimated the services of the Church, founded schools, and encouraged literary composition in the native tongue. At this last he was himself a diligent worker, as translations (that are not mere translations) of large portions of the writings of Boethius, Orosius, Bede, and Gregory the Great still survive to prove. Men in later times loved to dwell on this feature of his career; in a mediæval list of West-Saxon kings, his name is specially distinguished as "litteratus." But in 893 the dogs of war were again let slip on his kingdom, and the

old hideous scenes of pillage, slaughter, and havoc were renewed. The chief leader of these fresh swarm of marauders was the terrible Hastings. For four years he dragged Alfred up and down, across and along, the country, making treaties and breaking them, getting again and again beaten, both by land and by sea, but recovering himself after every defeat, and refusing to be driven from the land. The value of the king's military reforms was thus effectually tested; and they may be said to have fairly stood the strain. In every recorded encounter—as at Farnham, Benfleet, Buttington—the West-Saxons overthrew their foes. The upshot at length was that the Danes, beaten, out-generalled, and checked at every turn, got weary of an unprofitable enterprise, broke up into several bands, and went off in different directions, leaving Wessex at peace. The heroic king's work was now done. "Six nights before Allhallowmas," in the year 901, he died.

Alfred is one of the few historical characters that all writers delight to honour; almost with one consent historians have pronounced that he comes pretty nearly as close to perfection as a man and a king as any ruler of whom there is record. This verdict may be accepted as final; it is certainly not likely to be ever successfully impeached. To his goodness, nobility of character, moral greatness, heroism, his whole life is a testimony. Alfred the Good and Steadfast he assuredly was; and if it may be plausibly hinted that he was a little lacking in the sagacity, originality, forecast, and efficient provision for the future, without which no human greatness is complete, it may yet be pleaded that such a rare combination of moral and intellectual excellence amply justified the writers of the seventeenth century in styling him ALFRED THE GREAT.

The *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, the only really trustworthy authority. Asserius, *de Rebus Gestis Ælfredi*, from whom all biographies of Alfred are in large part drawn, of disputed authenticity, at best containing but a kernel of original matter [*see* the art. ASSER]; Alfred's Laws, in Thorpe's Collection; and Alfred's Works. No collected edition of these exists; but the Preface to *St. Gregory's Pastorale* has been three times published (by Archbishop Parker in 1574, by Camden in 1603, by Wise in 1722); the translation from *Bede* twice (at Cambridge, in 1643 and 1722); the translation from *Boethius* twice (at Oxford in 1698, and at London in 1829); Alfred's *Will* twice (at Oxford in 1788, and at London in 1828; his translation from *Orosius* once (at London in 1773); and of the *Metres of Boethius* once (at London in 1835). There is a *Life of Alfred the Great* by Dr. R. Pauli (translated by Wright, London, 1852).

[J. R.]

Alfred (or ALURED) **of Beverley,** Treasurer of the Church of Beverley in the first half of the twelfth century, wrote nine books of *Annales*, which were first printed by Hearne, in 1716. A very large part of Alfred's work is mere compilation from Geoffrey of Monmouth and Henry of Huntingdon. It is evident, therefore, that he must have written at least as late as the year 1138—9, about which time the British History of Geoffrey is supposed to have appeared, and that the dates usually given for his death (1126 or 1136) are erroneous. It is probable that the *Annales* were written about 1143.

Hardy, *Descriptive Catalogue of Materials*, ii. 173 (Rolls Series); Wright, *Biographia Bri. Literaria*, ii. 157.

Alfric (ÆLFRIC), surnamed *Abbas* and *Grammaticus*, was an ecclesiastic of the tenth century, and the writer of numerous works in Anglo-Saxon. He received his early education from a secular or "mass-priest." He was a pupil of Ethelwold at Winchester, and he became Abbot of Evesham. Ælfric's works, which include a grammar, a number of sermons, a treatise on astronomy (*see* Wright, *Popular Treatises on Science during the Middle Ages*), and some Canons, are interesting to the student of Anglo-Saxon literature, and have considerable importance as regards the state of the English Church in the tenth century both as to doctrine and discipline. The writer has often been confused with another ALFRIC or ÆLFRIC, Archbishop of Canterbury, who died during the closing years of the tenth century.

Wharton, *De Duobus Elfricis* in *Anglia Sacra*, vol. i.; Thorpe, *Analecta*.

Alfred (ÆLFRED) **the Etheling** (*d.* 1036?), was the son of Ethelred II. and Emma. On the death of his father he fled to Normandy, where, together with his brother Edward (the Confessor), he seems to have remained till the reign of Harold, 1036, when, either alone or accompanied by Edward, he made an expedition to England for the purpose of obtaining the crown. He was entrapped, together with his Norman followers, by means of an ambuscade near Guildford, and conveyed to the monastery of Ely; by the orders of Harold, he was either blinded and died of the pain, or was actually murdered. The question whether Godwine had any share in this is a vexed one, but it is certain that he was at the time suspected of being an accomplice; and it was also suspected that Emma was privy to the treachery and violence which brought about the end of Alfred, in order that the crown might be assured to his half-brother Harthaknut.

Vita Edward. Confessor. in Twysden, *Hist. Anglic. Scriptores decem*; *Ang. Sax. Chronicle*; Turner, *Anglo-Saxons*; Freeman, *Norman Conquest*; and the art. in the *Dict. of Nat. Biog.*

Algar (ÆLFGAR) (*d.* 1062?), was the son of Earl Leofric, and the father of Edwin and Morkere. We first hear of him in 1051, when, on the triumph of the Norman party and outlawry of Harold, he received the earldom of East-Anglia. On Harold's return in the next year, Algar appears to have quietly resigned it to him, to resume it again

in 1053, on the translation of Harold to Wessex. In 1055 Algar was banished. The reason for this treatment is doubtful; but he soon showed his unscrupulous and treacherous disposition by allying with Gruffydd of Wales, and ravaging Herefordshire. Harold was sent against them, and peace was quickly made, one of the conditions being that Algar should be restored to his earldom. In 1057, on his father's death, he succeeded to the earldom of Mercia. Outlawed again in 1058, he was once more restored to his earldom, and seems to have spent the latter years of his life in peace and good works. [HAROLD.]

Freeman, *Norm. Conq.*, ii. 161, &c.

Algiers, BOMBARDMENT OF (1816), was conducted by the English fleet in consequence of the ravages made by the Algerine pirates on the commerce and coasts of the Mediterranean. The work was entrusted to Lord Exmouth, who at first attempted by negotiations to unite the states of Barbary in an effort to suppress the pirates. In May, 1816, while Exmouth was absent in England, pending the result of his negotiations, 2,000 Algerine troops attacked the Italian coral-fishers, who were attending mass under the protection of the British flag, and massacred the whole of them. Exmouth at once set sail, with a force of five ships of the line, five frigates, and some bomb-vessels. At Gibraltar Lord Exmouth received a reinforcement from the Dutch admiral, Capellen, who desired to be allowed to join in the siege. On the 27th of August the fleet reached Algiers, and a messenger was at once despatched with an ultimatum to the Dey. This the Dey refused to receive, and Lord Exmouth, at once leading the way towards the harbour, anchored as close as possible to the mole, and opened fire. The battle lasted from two o'clock in the afternoon till ten o'clock, when, the batteries having been nearly all silenced, and fearful destruction wrought in the town, the British fleet ceased firing. Next day Lord Exmouth sent off a despatch, offering the Dey peace on the conditions of the ultimatum. The chief of these related to the abolition of the slave-trade for the future, and the immediate restitution of all Christian slaves without ransom. The conditions were immediately agreed to.

Annual Register, 1816; S. Walpole, *Hist. of Eng. from 1815.*

Alien Priories. [MONASTICISM.]

Alienation of Land. [LAND, TENURE OF.]

Aliens. By our Common Law, nationality depends on the place of birth. Every one born in a land not subject to the sovereign of this country was an alien. Jews also, though born in this kingdom, were regarded in the same light. [JEWS.] This doctrine has been modified by statute. By 25 Ed. III., st. 2, all, whose father and mother at the time of their birth were in allegiance [ALLEGIANCE], were so far to be held natural-born subjects as to be capable of inheritance. And it was held that the nationality of the mother mattered not, if her husband was a British subject. Aliens could become subjects by denization, which conferred a kind of middle state between a natural-born subject and an alien. This position was sometimes obtained (*temp.* Hen. VIII.) by Act of Parliament, but as a rule by letters patent. Naturalisation was obtained only through Parliament until the reign of Queen Victoria. All children born in Scotland after the accession of James I. to the throne of England (*post-nati*) were held, by the decision in Calvin's case, to be natural-born subjects of England. [POST-NATI.] In the same reign it was determined (7 Jas. I., c. 2) that no alien should be naturalised until he had taken the oaths of supremacy and allegiance, and conformed to the sacramental test. From a desire to strengthen the Protestant interest, an Act was passed (7 Anne, c. 5), naturalising all Protestant residents on their taking the oaths, &c., and declaring the children of all naturalised British subjects to be natural-born. This statute was repealed, as regards its earlier provision, shortly afterwards. Seven years' residence in the American colonies was made (13 Geo. II., c. 7) to confer naturalisation on a Protestant alien. During the war consequent on the French Revolution, various statutes were passed, as 33 Geo. III., c. 4, placing aliens under supervision, and giving the Secretary of State power to remove them, if suspected, out of the kingdom. The demand of the First Consul, in 1802, for the expulsion of the French emigrants was one of the causes which led to a renewal of the war. The 7 and 8 Vict., c. 66, allowed naturalisation to be conferred by the certificate of a Secretary of State. By the Naturalisation Act (33 and 34 Vict., c. 14), a woman, who has become an alien by a foreign marriage, may, after her husband's death, be re-admitted to nationality, in this case her children, though born of her alien husband, will also gain the position of British subjects. By naturalisation in a foreign state, British subjects are allowed to become aliens. This Act also provides for the grant of certificates of naturalisation to aliens who have resided within the kingdom, or served the crown, for five years, and for the grant of a limited nationality by the legislature of British colonies within their own borders. Aliens have been regarded with jealousy both for political and commercial reasons. During the fourteenth century they were often made the subjects of special taxation. By the Great Charter, art. 41, alien merchants were allowed to trade freely. The privileges

of the mercantile statutes of Edward I. were extended to them. The king favoured them because they granted him customs. Parliament, however, interfered with these grants in 1303, and at other times. [CUSTOMS.] English merchants were jealous of these foreign competitors. In 18 Edward I. the citizens of London petitioned that they might be banished. This was refused. Vexatious restrictions were laid upon alien merchants in the reign of Richard III., and were increased by 32 Hen. VIII., c. 16. Aliens are subject to, and under the protection of, the criminal law. By express provision, they also are subject to, and have the advantages of, the Bankruptcy Acts. Aliens by the Common Law lay under great disabilities. An alien could not take nor transmit land by descent. He could not hold land either for his own benefit or in trust. Until 8 Hen. V., c. 16, the alien wife of an English subject could not demand her dower. Aliens might, however, hold benefices, for the Church was Catholic. An alien could not have an action for land in his own name, but he might have an action for personal property. His witness was received, but he could not serve on a jury, except on one partly composed of aliens for the trial of aliens (*de medietate linguæ*). These disabilities have to a great extent been removed by statute. By 33 and 34 Vict., c. 14, an alien may acquire by inheritance or purchase. He may hold any kind of property in this kingdom, except a share in a British ship; and title to land may be derived from or through an alien, but no property confers on him a qualification for franchise or public office. An Aliens Act was passed in 1905 to check the immigration of undesirable aliens. It came into operation on January 1, 1906.

Foote, *Private International Jurisprudence*; Hansard, *On Aliens*; Bacon's *Abridgment*.

[W. H.]

Aligurh, CAPTURE OF (Aug. 29, 1803), occurred in General Lake's campaign against the Mahrattas. Aligurh, the great military arsenal of the French army of Dowlut Rao Scindiah, in Hindostan, was very strongly fortified, and further protected by a ditch, 100 feet wide, and 30 feet deep, containing 10 feet of water. General Lake, however, was determined to take it, and it was captured by the irresistible gallantry of the 76th Highlanders, commanded by Major Macleod, who blew open the gate, and forced their way in through the most intricate and loop-holed passages, raked by a destructive fire of grape, wall-pieces, and matchlocks. The number of guns captured was 281. The Duke of Wellington called it "one of the most extraordinary feats he had ever heard of."

Ali Morad was one of the Ameers of Upper Scinde in 1842. The intrigues of Ali Morad to obtain the office of rais, or lord paramount of Upper Scinde, then held by Meer Roostum, were the main causes which hastened on Sir Charles Napier's proceedings in Upper Scinde in the year 1842. He succeeded in obtaining at last the office of rais, and lands to the value of six lacs of rupees a year. The insurrection, however, which broke out in 1843, destroyed all his hopes and past success. The annexation of Scinde was accompanied by the banishment and pensioning of the Ameers. [SCINDE.]

Aliwall, BATTLE OF (Jan. 28, 1846), was fought during the first Sikh war. After his victory at Loodiana, Runjoor Singh fell back to Aliwall, on the Sutlej. General Smith, reinforced by 11,000 men, lost no time in attacking him. The village was feebly defended by some hill-men, who took to flight with Runjoor Singh at their head, after firing a few rounds. But the English met with a stern resistance from the Khalsa soldiers on the right, men of true Sikh blood and temper, who stood their ground with unflinching courage; and it was not till their ranks had thrice been pierced by Cureton's cavalry, that they became disorganised, and retreated to the river, in which a great number were drowned, leaving 67 guns as trophies to the victors.

Cunningham, *Sikhs*, 312.

Alkin the Scot (*d.* 834), of Pictish descent on his mother's side, in 832 was King of the Southern Picts. In 834 he was victorious at the Carse of Gowrie over the Picts, who disowned his authority; but on July 20 of the same year was defeated and slain by them at Pitalpin, near Dundee.

Chron. Picts and Scots; Skene, *Celtic Scotland*.

Alkmaar, CAPTURE OF (Oct. 2, 1799), was effected during the expedition of the Duke of York to Holland. On September 19 an unsuccessful attack had been made by the allied troops. Soon afterwards the Duke of York was strongly reinforced, and on October 2, with 30,000 men, he was ready to attack the equal forces of the French, under the command of Brune, whose position was centred at Alkmaar. The attack was begun at six a.m., by an impetuous charge of the Russians, which carried the villages of Schorl and Schorldam, and drove the French back to Bergen. The Russians then halted, awaiting the arrival of Sir R. Abercromby on the right. With 9,000 men he had, since early morning, been steadily pushing his way along the sand-dyke on the seashore. Continually driving the French back, he was at length able to attack their left flank. The Russians, reassured by Abercromby's arrival, simultaneously attacked in front. The whole of the French left was thus turned, and, falling back in confusion

on the centre, compelled Brune to abandon Alkmaar, which was at once occupied by the allies.

Alison, *Hist. of Europe; Annual Register*, 1799.

All the Talents, Ministry of (1806), was the name given to the administration which was called into existence on the death of William Pitt. An attempt was made to include in the new government representatives of all the three parties—the Tories, the Moderate Whigs, and the Extreme Whigs, whose sympathies had all along been with France. Lord Grenville became Prime Minister; Fox, Foreign Secretary; Erskine, Lord Chancellor; Lord Fitzwilliam, President of the Council; Lord Sidmouth, Lord Privy Seal; Windham, Minister of War; and Lord Spencer, Home Secretary. Lord Ellenborough, the Lord Chief Justice, was also, by a somewhat startling innovation, admitted into the Cabinet. In spite, however, of this singularly imposing array of talent, the Cabinet was composed of elements much too discordant to admit of any permanent harmony; and Fox's early death removed the commanding mind which alone could possibly have held together men of such different views. One great measure was passed, which will always be associated with this ministry — viz., the abolition of the slave-trade. Little else of permanent interest was effected. Foreign politics were of too vital an importance to admit of any progress in domestic reform; and Fox himself devoted all his ability to negotiating a peace with France, and too late learned to gauge the restless ambition of Napoleon, with the result of being convinced that his long-cherished hope of peace was in vain. On March 25th, 1807, the ministry, which had been greatly weakened by the disaffection of some of its members, resigned office, on being required by the king not only to drop the Catholic Relief Bill they had brought in, but also to pledge themselves never to introduce any such measure in the future. They were succeeded by the administration in which the Duke of Portland was Prime Minister. [Fox, C. J.; Grenville, Lord.]

Russell, *Life of Fox;* Lord Holland, *Mem. of the Liberal Party;* Cooke, *Hist. of Party;* Pellew, *Life of Sidmouth;* Alison, *Hist. of Europe.*

[W. R. S.]

Allahabad, the capital of the North-West Provinces of India, was one of the strong towns of the old Mogul dynasty. At the break-up of the Mogul empire it fell under the yoke of the Vizier of Oude, by whom it was ceded to the Company in 1765, and handed over to the dethroned Mogul Emperor, Shah Allum. In 1771 it was, however, handed to the Nawab of Oudh, by whom it was ceded back to the English in 1801. The town contains the remains of a magnificent palace of the Emperor Akbar.

Allectus (*d.* 296) was one of the officers of Carausius, whom he murdered in 293. Allectus then usurped the power in Britain, and governed the province in a very tyrannical manner till 296, when Constantius Chlorus invaded the country, and completely defeated the usurper, who was slain in the battle.

Eutropius, ix. 12; Orosius, liii. 25; T. Wright, *The Celt, the Roman, and the Saxon.*

Allegiance (Lat. *alligo*, through Low Lat. *ligancia*, and Norm.-French, *ligeance*), means the tie which binds each man of a nation to its head in return for the protection allowed him. The idea of allegiance existed in England at an early date. The duties of the king towards the subject were expressed in the promise of Ethelred to govern righteously; those of the subject towards the king in the treason-law of Alfred, and in the laws of his son Edmund (about 943) we have the first recorded oath of allegiance. "All shall swear, in the name of the Lord, fealty to King Edmund as a man ought to be faithful to his lord, without any controversy or quarrel in open or in secret, in loving what he shall love, and not willing what he shall not will." It was to counteract the disruptive tendencies of feudalism, and to assert the royal power, that William I., at the Council of Salisbury, A.D. 1086, caused "all his witan and all the land-owners of substance, whose vassals soever they were," to swear an oath of allegiance to him, which in form was a modification of that of Edmund; and there is a clause directing every free man to take the oath in the so-called Laws of William. Nevertheless, from that date, inasmuch as ownership of land was the sign of the relations between ruler and subject, and all land was held of the king, the idea of allegiance became, as far as he was concerned, identified with those of fealty and homage, though the two last concerned in reality owners of land in the connection of vassal and lord, and had no necessary connection with kingship. This change is to be found in the oath of allegiance to Edward I., which was imposed on all over the age of fourteen. With the growth of the idea of loyalty and legitimacy under the Lancastrian and Yorkist kings, the theory became prominent among legal writers. Meanwhile another idea had been growing up—that of the oath of office; it was asserted in the reign of Henry III. by the Provisions of Oxford, and probably existed even earlier in the case of sheriffs and the king's councillors, and in the reign of Edward II. the Despencers were banished by Parliament for misapplication of allegiance. It was not, however, imposed by statute on all persons holding office until the reign of Queen Elizabeth, the promise then being "to be true and faithful to the king and his heirs, and truth and faith to bear of life and limb and terrene honour, and not to know or hear of

any ill or damage intended him without defending him therefrom." This oath might be exacted when necessary from all persons over the age of twelve. James I. also imposed a special oath on Roman Catholics, in which he bound them to disclose conspiracies against him, in spite of any excommunication by the Pope, thus attacking his supposed deposing power. The oath of allegiance was imposed afresh after the Revolution by the Declaration of Right; but as the form enjoined by it differed from the form imposed by statute, it was determined, in 1689, to pass an Act abolishing the old oaths, and determining by whom the new oaths should be taken. The form agreed upon was much the same as that at present in use, but a violent controversy arose as to the class of men who should be required to take it. It was unanimously agreed that it should for the future be applied to all who were admitted to civil, military, or academical offices; but it was felt that to make it retrospective would be to make large bodies of the clergy, who believed in the doctrine of the divine right of kings, resign their livings. On this point the House of Lords and William III. were disposed to be merciful, and exempt the clergy from the oath; but the Commons refused to give way, and finally it was decided that all those who refused to take the oath by February, 1690, should be deprived of office. The forms of the oaths of abjuration and supremacy were also settled at the same date. A single oath was, however, substituted for the three in 1858, and in the same year this was adapted to the use of Catholics and Jews. By the Promissory Oaths Act, 1868, the form of oath was fixed as follows:—"I, A. B., do swear that I will be faithful and bear true allegiance to her Majesty Queen Victoria, her heirs and successors, according to the law. So help me God!" The oath of allegiance is imposed on all officers of state, holders of appointments in the Supreme Court of Judicature, and justices of the peace, though in some cases a simple affirmation is allowed; but members of Parliament, on whom the obligation to take the oath of allegiance was imposed in 1679, and again in 1714, now use a special form of oath provided by the Parliamentary Oaths Act of 1866.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, vol. i., chaps. vii. and ix., vol. iii., chap. xxi.; Littleton, *Tenures*; Stephen, *Commentaries on the Laws of England*, vol. ii.; Statutes, 1 Will. and Mary, c. 8; 31 and 32 Vict., c. 72.

[L. C. S.]

Alleluia Victory, The (429?), is the name given to a victory of the Britons over the Picts and Saxons. The story, as told by Bede (who copies from Constantius, *Sanct. Germani Vita*), is that the Britons, being attacked by the combined forces of the Picts and Saxons, sought the aid of S. Germanus. The saint accordingly, after the celebration of Easter, placed himself at the head of the Britons, and drew up his troops in a valley encompassed by hills, in the way by which the enemy was expected. As soon as the foes appeared, Germanus, bearing in his hands the standard, instructed his men to repeat his words in a loud voice, and as the enemy advanced securely, thinking to take them by surprise, the men cried three times aloud, "Alleluia!" The enemy, struck with terror, fled in disorder. Thus the Britons gained a bloodless victory. The scene of this battle is laid at Maes Garmon (the Field of Germanus), about a mile from Mold, in Flintshire.

Bede, *Historia Ecclesiastica*, i., chap. xx.

Allen, Ethan (*d.* 1789), was a celebrated partisan leader in the American Independence War. He established the little state of Vermont, whose individuality he successfully vindicated, and formed a corps of irregulars, "The Green Mountain Boys," which greatly distinguished itself. Allen took a chief share in the capture of Ticonderoga and Crown Point in 1775, but in the expedition to Canada he was captured by the British. He was subsequently exchanged, and received several marks of distinction from Congress.

Allen, John (*b.* 1476, *d.* 1534), had been Archbishop Warham's agent at Rome, and was afterwards employed by Wolsey in visiting the smaller monasteries, with a view to their suppression. In 1528 he was made Archbishop of Dublin and Chancellor of Ireland. In these capacities he headed the opposition to the Earl of Kildare. In 1534 he was seized by Kildare's orders, and brutally murdered.

Allen (or Allan), Cardinal William (*b.* 1532, *d.* 1594), was at one time Principal of St. Mary Hall, Oxford, and Canon of York during the reign of Mary. In 1568 he established a seminary at Douay, in order to train priests for England. Subsequently he founded a college at Rheims, and another at Rome. Becoming closely connected with the Jesuits, he entered into various schemes for the subversion of Elizabeth's throne, and advocated a Spanish invasion of England. In 1580, by his aid, a number of Jesuits were dispatched to England to prepare the people for rebellion; and, until the destruction of the Spanish Armada, Allen continued to inveigh against Elizabeth in the most virulent terms. In 1587 he was made a cardinal by the Pope, in acknowledgment of his services to the Roman Catholic cause, and received a rich abbey from the King of Spain. In 1588 he published at Antwerp his violent and scurrilous pamphlet against Queen Elizabeth, entitled *An Admonition to the People of England* (q.v.). Allen was created Archbishop of Malines in 1591, but the remainder of his life was passed at Rome. Besides the *Admonition*, his chief

works are *A Defence of the Doctrine of Catholicks*, 1567; *Of the Worship due to Saints and their Relicks*, 1583; *De Sacramentis*, 1576.

Fitzherbert, *Epitome Vitæ Cardinalis Alani*, Rome, 1608; Wood, *Athenæ Oxon.*, vol. i.; Strype, *Annales*; Camden, *Annales Rer. Ang.*; Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.*; Sharon Turner, *Hist. of Eng.*

Alliance, THE GRAND, THE HOLY, &c. [GRAND ALLIANCE; HOLY ALLIANCE, &c.]

Alma, BATTLE OF THE (Sept. 20, 1854), fought during the Crimean War. After their landing at Eupatoria, the allies marched southwards along the coast, meeting with no resistance. The allied army consisted of 27,000 English, 22,000 French, and 5,000 Turks. Prince Mentschikoff, the Russian general, had determined not to allow them to march without opposition on Sebastopol. He entrenched himself strongly on the heights which overlook the river Alma, about sixteen miles to the north of Sebastopol, with the river between him and the foe. The allies came up under a heavy fire, forced their way through the river, and struggled bravely up to the Russian entrenchments, which, after a slight momentary waver along the whole line, they carried at the point of the bayonet. The Russians retreated slowly, with their usual dogged persistency, in spite of their heavy losses. The allies were too much fatigued and too weak in cavalry to be able to follow up the advantage they had gained. The victory was in great part due to the determined advance of the British up the height in the face of a terrible fire.

Kinglake, *Invasion of the Crimea.*

Almanza, BATTLE OF (April 25, 1707), was one of the battles of the Succession War in Spain. Peterborough, who had been most successful, was superseded by Lord Galway, an experienced veteran, "who thought it much more honourable to fail according to rule than to succeed by innovation." On the plain of Almanza he encountered the French, under the Duke of Berwick. As Berwick was stronger than the allies in cavalry, it was rash in Galway to act on the offensive; but he wished to drive the French from Valencia. Berwick had drawn up his troops with his infantry and artillery in the centre, and his cavalry on the flanks. The English commander committed the grave mistake of drawing up his infantry in line close in the rear of his cavalry. Galway's attack on the French right was at first successful, and the French centre was for a moment driven back. On the right of the allies the Portuguese cavalry, under the Marquis de los Minas, as usual turned and fled; their infantry were cut to pieces. The English centre was assailed at once on the flank and in front, and thus completely routed, they were compelled to surrender. The victory was decisive and important. Valencia and Arragon were at once reconquered by the French. "The battle of Almanza," says Macaulay, "decided the fate of Spain."

Burton, *Reign of Q. Anne*; Wyon, *Reign of Q. Anne*; Stanhope, *War of the Succession in Spain*; and Macaulay's *Essay* on the same subject.

Almenara, BATTLE OF (July 10, 1710), resulted in a victory for the allied armies in Spain. Through the month of June the two armies were engaged in marches and manœuvres. At length General Stanhope overruled the scruples of his colleague, the Imperial general, Staremberg, and advanced across the Segre. He also secured the passage of the Noguera, the Spanish general being too late to intercept him. The two armies were face to face near the village of Almenara. Staremberg was still averse to an engagement; but the spirits of the English regiments had been roused by the sight of the enemy, and they murmured loudly at their forced inactivity. At length, two hours before nightfall, Stanhope obtained permission from the Archduke Charles to attack some Spanish regiments who had advanced in a spirit of bravado. He charged at the head of the cavalry. "The allied squadrons on the right had easy work in routing the left wing of the enemy; but opposed to the English and Dutch was the splendid body-guard of Philip, regiments of picked soldiers, not inferior in courage or discipline to the renowned household troops of the French king." A furious struggle ensued, Stanhope himself slaying the commander of the Spanish cavalry. The king's troops at length gave way, and had a few hours of daylight remained it is probable that the whole army would have been destroyed. Philip hastily retired on Lerida, and fell back first to the line of the Cintra, and then to the line of the Ebro.

For authorities see last article.

Almoign, FRANK. [FRANK ALMOIGN.]

Almon, JOHN (*b.* 1737, *d.* 1805), after an adventurous career in early life, became acquainted with Churchill and Wilkes, and published a defence of Wilkes's "Essay on Woman." In 1763 he set up as bookseller and publisher. He published "The Foundling Hospital for Wit," a collection of party squibs, and "The Parliamentary Register," an account of the debates in Parliament. In 1765 he was tried in the Court of King's Bench for publishing a pamphlet, "On Juries, Libels, &c.;" and in 1770 he was again tried for publishing Junius's Letter to the King, and was fined ten marks. He amassed a large fortune in his trade, much of which he lost by an unfortunate newspaper enterprise. To add to his misfortunes, he was again prosecuted for libel, and afterwards was proclaimed an outlaw. The rigour of the law,

however, was soon relaxed, and he retired once more to his villa at Boxmoor, from which, in 1792, he sent forth a work called "Anecdotes of the Life of the Earl of Chatham." In 1805, he published "The Life and Letters of Mr. Wilkes." He died on the same day as Woodfall, the publisher of Junius.

Chalmers, *Biog. Dict.*; *Gentleman's Mag.*, vol. lxxv.

Almorah, Capture of (April 25, 1815), took place in the Goorkha War. Colonel Gardner, with a body of irregular troops, occuied the Chilkeeah pass, and proceeded to Almorah, the capital of the province of Kumaon, along the Cosillas river. The Goorkhas withdrew as he advanced. Being reinforced by 2,000 regulars, under Colonel Nicolls, on April 25 the heights and town of Almorah were attacked with rapid success. Two of the enemy's breastworks on the Sittolee ridge were carried by the regular infantry, and the irregular troops attacked and carried the remaining three. During the night an unsuccessful attempt was made to dispossess the victors of their advantage. In the morning the fort was vigorously attacked, and by nine in the evening the Goorkha commander agreed to terms, by which the province and fortresses of Kumaon were surrendered to the English. [Goorkha War.]

Alnwick, Northumberland, in 1093 was besieged by Malcolm Canmore, of Scotland, who was slain before its walls. In 1135 it was taken by David, of Scotland. In 1174 it was besieged by William the Lion, who was taken prisoner in a battle fought under the walls. In 1215 Alnwick was destroyed by John. In 1310 it passed into the hands of the Percies. In Northumberland's rebellion in 1403, the castle was temporarily seized by the king: and about the middle of the fifteenth century it was burnt by the Scots. During the rebellion of the Northern lords, in 1569, it was fortified by the Earl of Northumberland for the insurgents. *Alnwick Abbey* was a priory of Premonstratensian canons, founded by Eustace Fitz-John, and richly endowed by the De Vescies and the Percies.

Mackenzie, *Northumberland*, i. 448.

Alodial Land is land which is the absolute property of its occupier, and is not held by rent, service, or other obligation from a superior. The "alod," which name occurs in Anglo-Saxon documents of the eleventh century, and in its Latinised form, is found in the Salian and other Continental codes and documents, was land held in full ownership, whether derived by inheritance, or created from the public land by grant or charter. In the latter case, as deriving its title from some book or document, it was called *Bocland* (q.v.). In England, as in other countries which came under the effects of feudalism, the smaller alodial proprietors found themselves practically obliged, for the sake of security and protection, to *commend* themselves to some neighbouring lord, surrendering their lands to him, and receiving them back again on some feudal tenure. Thus the alodial land tended to disappear, and in England the process received a great impetus by the Norman Conquest, and the theoretical transfer of all land to the crown, which followed. According to the theory of English law, there is therefore no alodial land in Great Britain and Ireland, all land being occupied by *tenure*, and held either directly or indirectly from the crown.

The derivation of *alod* has been much discussed. Grimm, *Deutsch. Wörterbuch*, associates it with the root *od*, wealth, found in A.S. *ead*, and Lat. *ops*; others take it as connected with lot, and as meaning primarily that which is obtained by lot, or division of the original tribal land. It is not improbable that there is a connection between *allod* and *odal*, or *edhel*, the word signifying inheritance, and specially the inherited homestead, with "the share of arable and appurtenant common rights" (Prof. Stubbs), and which also came to mean nobility of blood and race. (*See* Skeat, *Etymological Dictionary.*)

Stephen's *Commentaries*, bk. ii., pt. i., ch. i.; *Coke upon Littleton*, 13a; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, i. 60, &c.; Hallam, *Mid. Ages*, ch. ii., pt. i., &c.; and for the whole subject see the art. Land Tenure.

Alphege (Aelfheah), St. (*b.* 954, *d.* 1012), Archbishop of Canterbury (1006—1012), was of noble birth, and early in life became a monk. He is said to have been Abbot of Glastonbury, and was certainly advanced to the bishopric of Winchester in 984. In 1006 he was made Archbishop of Canterbury. On the capture of Canterbury by the Danes in 1012, Alphege was taken prisoner, in the expectation that he would ransom himself with some of the treasure of his see. On his refusal to pay them anything, the Danes dragged the archbishop to their husting, or place of assembly, where they pelted him with stones, logs of wood, and the bones and skulls of oxen, till one Thrum, whom Alphege had converted, clave his head with a battle-axe. He was considered a martyr by the English, and Anselm contended that he had a right to the title; because he died refusing to plunder his people in order to ransom himself. The English Church celebrates St. Alphege on April 19.

Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops*; *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle.*

Alred (Ealhred), King of Northumbria, succeeded to the throne in the year 765, on the resignation of Ethelwald. After a troublous reign of nine years, he was compelled to renounce the throne, and seek refuge with the Picts.

Alresford, Fight at (March 29, 1644), was between the Royalists, under the Earl of Brentford and Sir Ralph Hopton, and the Parliamentary forces under Sir William

Waller. The latter were victorious, though the severe losses they sustained prevented Waller from taking advantage of his victory.

Alured, JOHN (*b.* 1607, *d.* 1653?), served as colonel of a regiment under Fairfax. He was member for Heydon in the Long Parliament, acted as one of the king's judges, and signed the death-warrant. His brother, Matthew Alured, also served in the Parliamentary army.

Alyth. A small town on the slopes of the Grampians, fifteen miles north-west of Dundee, where the last remnant of the Scots Estates, some forty in number, who called themselves "The Committee of Estates," assembled in September, 1651, after the storming of Dundee by Monk. They were surprised and captured by a party of cavalry sent by Monk, and were conveyed to London. With them the existence of the Scots Estates came to an end for the time.

Amatola Mountain, BATTLE OF THE (1846), was fought between the British and Cape forces, under Colonels Campbell and Somerset, and the Kaffirs, under Sandilli. The latter were completely routed, although shortly afterwards they managed to capture the English baggage-wagons.

Ambassadors. Different ranks and titles exist among the diplomatic representatives of states. Ambassadors hold the first place. Next below them are Envoys and Ministers Plenipotentiary. In the third rank are Residents and Chargés d'Affaires. The distinction between these classes is one of dignity, and depends on the nature of their commission, or the fulness of the representative character with which the agent is invested by his court. This representative character exists in perfection in the office of an ambassador. There is, however, no distinction between these agents as to their rights and privileges. From the time when England, by the conversion of its people, became part of European Christendom, its sovereigns have from time to time sent embassies to other lands, and received the representatives of their rulers. While, however, the mediæval system continued, and Christendom was regarded as one body politic under the Emperor and the Pope, the mission of ambassadors was occasional, and unregulated by law. As the mediæval polity gave place to a system of independent states, the matter of ambassadors received the attention of jurists. Ambassadors were at first sent only on special occasions. Long residence was regarded with jealousy by the state which received the embassy, *e.g.*, Coke praises Henry VII. because he was too prudent to allow ambassadors to reside within his realm. This feeling died out in the seventeenth century. After the Peace of Westphalia, 1648, resident ambassadors were generally employed by most of the nations of the civilised world. Ambassadors may therefore be classed as either ordinary, resident, or extraordinary. Every sovereign state has a right to send and receive ambassadors, unless it has renounced that right. Mazarin, in 1659, received the ambassadors of Oliver Cromwell at the Congress of the Pyrenees, and rejected those sent by Charles II. A prince who has lost his sovereignty cannot claim to be represented by an ambassador: and so far at least the civilians of Elizabeth were right when, in 1567, they refused to recognise the Bishop of Ross, the agent of the Queen of Scots, as an ambassador. The right of rebels to embassy must be decided by circumstances. To avoid difficulty, a foreign country in such cases sometimes receives from an insurgent state agents invested with the immunities, but not with the representative character of ambassadors. The right to do this was asserted by Lord Russell, in 1861, in the Trent affair. A state cannot reasonably refuse to receive an embassy, though it may make an objection to receive any particular ambassador. In 1625, Louis XIII., not without reason, refused to receive the Duke of Buckingham as ambassador of Charles I. The right of inviolability attaches to all ministers representing their sovereign or their state, not only in the country to which a representative is sent, but in any other through which he may have to pass. In 1587, Aubespine, the French ambassador, was found to have been privy to a plot against the life of the queen. Burleigh, however, did not bring him to trial because of his right as an ambassador. The inviolability of an ambassador extends to his suite. It is doubtful, however, whether in this case it is equally full in respect of gross crimes. For, in 1654, Dom Pantaleon Sa, brother of the Portuguese ambassador, was executed in London for murder. He pleaded that he was accredited as an ambassador, but could show no credentials. Had he been able to prove that he was a representative of his sovereign, he might have escaped. Certain privileges of ambassadors are established by custom. An ambassador is exempt from civil jurisdiction, unless, indeed, he so far forget his character as to engage in trade. In consequence of this exemption having been violated in 1708, in the case of an ambassador of the Czar, it has been enforced by our municipal law, 7 Anne, c. 12. An ambassador is also exempt from taxation, and enjoys other like immunities. Akin to these was the privilege of asylum attaching to his house, which is now generally renounced. An ambassador receives *instructions* from his own government, and carries with him *credentials* to the government to which he is sent. He also carries the *full power*, which is his authority for negotiation. After he has delivered his *letters*

of credence to the Minister of Foreign Affairs, he has a right to an *audience* of the sovereign to whom he is accredited. The death of either of the sovereigns between whom he negotiates ends his embassy. He may, however, be re-accredited; and if this is likely to be the case, his embassy is held to be suspended, and relations are continued in the expectation of confirmation.

Grotius, *De Legationum jure*, ed. Wheaton; Vattel, *Droit des Gens*, bk. iv.; Wheaton, *International Law*; Phillimore, *International Law*, vol. ii. [W. H.]

Amboyna, one of the Molucca Islands, was captured by the Dutch, from the Portuguese, in 1607. The English, after having been expelled from Amboyna by the Dutch, obtained in 1619 the right of trading there. The treaty was badly kept on both sides; and in February, 1623, the Dutch tortured to death several of the English factors, under pretence that they had intrigued with the natives. In 1654, after the war with Holland, the Dutch agreed to pay a sum of £300,000 to the descendants of the victims, as compensation for the massacre. Amboyna has since this been twice captured by the English—in 1796, and again in 1810—but on both occasions subsequent treaties of peace restored it to Holland.

Ambrosius Aurelianus (d. *circ.* 450) is said to have been a prince of the Damnonii, and appears to have been the chief leader of the Britons against the English invaders under Hengist. He was very probably a rival of Vortigern—whom he is said to have defeated in battle—and the representative of the Roman party in Britain. According to Gildas, he was "a modest man, who, of all the Roman nation, was then alone in the confusion of this troublous time left alive. His parents, who for their merit were adorned with the purple, had been slain in these same broils." Geoffrey of Monmouth makes him the brother of Uther Pendragon and father of Arthur, and states that he built Stonehenge.

Gildas, § 25; Bede, *Hist. Eccles.*, i. 16. *See* also Nennius, Geoffrey of Monmouth, and Palgrave, *Eng. Commonwealth.*

Ameer Khan, a Rohilla adventurer and free-lance, joined Jeswunt Rao Holkar in his plunder of the territories of Scindiah and the Peishwa. During the Holkar War (1804) he waged a predatory warfare against the English and their allies. The conclusion of the second Treaty of Surje Anjengaom drove Ameer Khan and Holkar westward to Ajmere, where they led a predatory life, until Holkar was compelled to yield by Lord Lake. The Treaty of Rampoor Ghaut left Ameer Khan free to live at the expense of the Rajpoot princes, whom he plundered with great impartiality, and gradually proceeded to create a principality for himself. He became the recognised chief of the Pathans in India. In 1809 he crossed the Nerbudda with 40,000 horse and 24,000 Pindarries, entered the Nagpore state, and sacked the town of Jubbulpore. The English, however, interfered, ordered him to quit the country of their ally, and put an army in motion to enforce it; when Ameer Khan withdrew to Indore. During the Pindarrie war he brought 52 battalions of trained infantry into the field: but his army and his influence were alike destroyed by the British victories and the vigorous policy of Lord Hastings. He, however, founded a dynasty at Tonk, in Rajpootana, and his Mohammedan descendant still exists as a protected prince, in consequence of a treaty made in 1817, which confirmed his jaghire to him.

American Independence, Declaration of (July 4, 1776), was a manifesto issued by the representatives of the thirteen United Colonies assembled in Congress, and signed by all of them but one. The original draft was the work of Thomas Jefferson of the State of Virginia, which had in the preceding May issued a Declaration of Rights, and the alterations made were only matters of detail. It began with an imaginary picture of "natural" society, and an assertion of the original rights of man. The inference it drew from the hypotheses was that man has a right to upset any form of government which violates these "natural" conditions. The Declaration went on to enumerate "the repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these States." The last paragraph sums up the position which the colonies claimed to hold in the future: "We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in general Congress assembled, appealing to the supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare that these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, *free and independent States.*" Jefferson, in his indictment of George III., had inserted a paragraph, charging him with waging "cruel war against human nature itself" by encouraging the slave-trade. This clause, however, was struck out, on account of the disapproval expressed by some of the Southern members; and thus Congress committed itself to the inconsistency of asserting in one paragraph that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights, that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; while in the rest of the Declaration it tacitly recognised, since it did not prohibit, the slave-trade. "The Declaration," says Bancroft, "was not only the announcement of the birth of a people, but the establishment of a national government. The war was no longer a civil war:

Britain was become to the United States a foreign country. Every former subject of the British king in the thirteen colonies now owed primary allegiance to the dynasty of the people, and became a citizen of the new Republic. Except in this, everything remained as before." In the history of political thought, the Declaration has an important place. It embodied in a formal state-paper some of those theories on the equality of man, and the origin and character of human society, which were thrown into a popular shape by Rousseau. And the influence which this enunciation of the freedom and equality of all men exerted on the European peoples was immediate and profound, as well as lasting. The Americans largely owed their political theories to France; but the Declaration of Independence gave form and expression to the theories, and was thus a distinct step in the direction of that attempt to realise certain *à priori* political theories which formed one element in the French Revolution.

Bancroft, *Hist. of the United States*, chap. lxx.; Jared Sparks, *Life of Washington*; Stanhope, *Hist. of England*, vi., chap. liii. [S. J. L.]

American Independence, War of (1775—1783). For some time before the spring of 1775 the relations between the colonies and the mother-country were such that they were in a state of virtual hostility. Actual warfare began in April, 1775, when the first blood was shed at Lexington, near Boston. Colonel Smith had been sent to destroy a magazine at that place, but was met by unexpected opposition. He succeeded only partially, and after a long and desultory skirmish retreated with considerable loss. In the north, Fort Ticonderoga, on Lake Champlain, was surprised; and its garrison surrendered the fort and its copious stores. On May 10, the Congress assembled for its second session at Philadelphia, and prepared for war by voting 15,000 men as the "continental" army. While it was still sitting, an English fleet appeared in Boston Roads, and its arrival was the signal for General Gage to declare martial law. On June 17 was fought the battle of Bunker's Hill, which had been occupied by the Americans, and was carried on the third assault by the British troops, with great loss of life. Washington arrived soon after the battle to take command, and found the difficulty of the situation increased by want of ammunition and the insubordination of the men. The English were masters of the sea, and held Boston and Charleston, but were surrounded by the blockading lines of Washington. After the battle, Penn carried to England the Olive Branch Petition, the last attempt at reconciliation on the part of America. In the meantime an expedition was sent to Canada, which proved a total failure, and sacrificed many valuable American lives. In Virginia, Lord Dunmore exasperated public opinion by his many cruelties, and by offering inducements to the slaves to join the British side. Howe evacuated his position in March, and while he sent Clinton to co-operate with the fleet at Charleston, in Carolina, he himself threatened New York from Sandy Hook. The attack on Charleston was gallantly repulsed; and Clinton brought back his division to take part in the operations against New York. On July 4, the American Congress adopted the Declaration of Independence. The attack on New York was long delayed; but on August 27, the British troops drove the defenders from Long Island; and it was only Howe's dilatoriness that allowed Washington to withdraw unmolested from New York. The English withdrew into winter quarters, and left Washington free to take advantage of their inactivity by surprising the garrison of Trenton, and soon afterwards acquiring nearly all New Jersey by winning a decisive battle at Princeton. Howe remained idle till June, 1777, when he organised a threefold expedition, which was so far successful that after defeating Washington at Brandywine Creek, in September, he advanced unopposed into Philadelphia. "It is not General Howe that has taken Philadelphia; it is Philadelphia that has taken General Howe," said Franklin; and so it proved. While Washington passed the winter in his camp at Valley Forge, with resources gradually dwindling, his forces weakened by privations, fevers, and insubordination, and himself harassed by the petty jealousies of the government and his own officers, Philadelphia became "the Capua of the British army." Meanwhile, in New York State, Clinton captured Forts Clinton and Montgomery, on the Hudson; but he did not advance fast enough to co-operate with Burgoyne, who was advancing from Canada. On August 16, a detached division of his force had been destroyed at Bennington, and Burgoyne himself, after being defeated at Stillwater, on September 19, was compelled to capitulate, with 3,500 men, at Saratoga, on Oct. 16. The immediate result of Saratoga was a treaty between France and America, which was virtually a declaration of war by France against England. In June, Clinton, who had succeeded Sir William Howe as commander-in-chief, evacuated Philadelphia and retreated on New York. Washington opposed his march at Monmouth, and finished a severe contest master of the field, but not strong enough to offer any further resistance. In the north, operations were at a standstill through the embarrassed condition of both commanders, and the interest of the war centred in the south. In December, Savannah was taken by Colonel Campbell; and in January, 1779, Lower Georgia was reduced by Colonel Prevost. In February, South Carolina was overrun, and Charleston was again threatened

by the British, who spent the summer in alienating by their ravages, the few loyalists that remained. In September a combined French and American force failed to take Savannah. In the meantime, Washington had tided over his difficulties by maintaining a strictly defensive attitude. A large armament sent by Massachusetts to destroy a British outpost in Penobscot Bay was signally defeated and almost destroyed. In October, 1779, Rhode Island was evacuated, and Clinton carried the troops, thus set free, to the attack of Charleston. It was not, however, till May, 1780, that General Lincoln surrendered the town. Clinton returned to New York, leaving 5,000 men with Lord Cornwallis, who by the end of June reported that all resistance was at an end in Georgia and South Carolina. But strenuous efforts were made to save the South, and General Gates, with strong reinforcements, met Lords Cornwallis and Rawdon at Camden, on August 16, and was signally defeated, with heavy loss. A small detachment, under Sumpter, was also cut to pieces by Colonel Tarleton's cavalry, and the American army of the South seemed to be annihilated. But the severity of Cornwallis and Rawdon had alienated the population, and the inhabitants rose on all sides to oppose the advance of the former into North Carolina. During the winter Washington and Clinton maintained a passive attitude, each watching the other, and neither strong enough to take the offensive; and Washington's difficulties were increased by the disaffection of the troops, who had received no pay for ten months. On March 1, 1781, a crisis was averted by the signing of the Articles of Confederation, which united all the States by a common bond of union. In the South, Greene, who had succeeded Gates, put a new aspect on the war. In January, 1781, he defeated Tarleton at the Cowpens; but, notwithstanding, Cornwallis assumed the offensive, and advanced northwards. Greene retreated 200 miles before Cornwallis, who was gradually leaving his base of supplies farther and farther in his rear. On March 15, Greene gave him battle at Guildford Court House, and after a fierce struggle was driven from his position, but Cornwallis was so weakened that he retreated to Wilmington, though in April he again advanced to Petersburg, in Virginia. Meanwhile, Greene had organised a combined movement against South Carolina and Georgia. He himself was attacked and defeated by Lord Rawdon, who, however, was compelled by the simultaneous advance of Lee and Marion to retire to Charleston, and the greater part of South Carolina was again in American hands. In September the battle of Eutaw Springs ended in a victory for the English, which was as disastrous as a defeat; and the British forces in the South were henceforth pent up in Wilmington, Charleston, and Savannah. From Petersburg Cornwallis had pursued Lafayette, who continued to elude him; but in the beginning of August, in obedience to orders from Clinton, he withdrew with his army to Yorktown, where he strongly fortified himself. At the same time a large French force joined Washington, and a southward march was begun. On August 31, De Grasse arrived with a French fleet in Chesapeake Bay, and a few days later beat off the English under Admiral Graves. On Sept. 28, the whole army had completely invested Yorktown; and on Oct. 19, 1781, Cornwallis surrendered, with all his army and supplies. In March, 1782, Rockingham again became prime minister; and by Shelburne, one of the new secretaries of state, Sir Guy Carleton was at once sent out to supersede Clinton, and to prosecute conciliatory measures. Franklin had been carrying on negotiations at Paris; but the American commissioners persisted in vain proposals, until it was discovered that France was playing a double game. The intrigues of the loyalists, together with the wretched condition of the American army, brought matters to a crisis, and on Nov. 30 preliminary articles of peace were signed. On Dec. 5, the king announced his tardy and reluctant consent to the independence of the American colonies. In April, 1783, Congress, beset by the numerous discontents in the army, and threatened by mutineers, issued a proclamation for the cessation of hostilities. On Sept. 3 the treaties were ratified, but various arrangements remained to be carried out, and it was not till Nov. 25, 1783, that the British troops evacuated New York. The war had cost America little under £50,000,000, but she had gained independence at a price that was not too dear. Its result to England was the loss of half a continent and the addition of 115 millions to the national debt.

Jared Sparks, *Diplomatic Correspondence of the American Revolution*, 12 vols., Boston, 1829; and *Life and Writings of Washington*, by the same writer; D. Ramsay, *Hist. of the American Revolution*, Philad., 1789; Jefferson's *Works*, ed. H. A. Washington, 1854; J. Q. Adams, *Works*, 10 vols., 1856; A. Hamilton, *Works*, ed. J. C. Hamilton, 1857—58; W. Gordon, *Hist. of the American War*, Lond., 1788; *The Life and Corr. of President Rees; The Chatham Correspondence.* The best general account is to be found in G. Bancroft's exhaustive *Hist. of the United States*, new ed. in 6 vols., 1876. See also R. Hildreth, *Hist. of the United States*; B. Lossing, *Field Book of the American Revolution*; Washington Irving, *Life of Washington*; and, for the English side, Stanhope's *Hist. of Eng.* For shorter accounts, see J. H. Patton, *Hist. of the United States*; Lecky, *Hist. of Eng.*, vol. iv.; and J. M. Ludlow, *The War of American Independence.*

[W. R. S.]

American War (1812—1815), arose out of the severe action of England towards neutral vessels in the war against Bonaparte. America, to retaliate, adopted England's policy, and laid an embargo upon all trade with both France and England. Some arrangement was attempted in 1809; but it was impossible to

effect any permanent conciliation as long as England adhered to the Orders in Council of 1807, and Brougham's motion for their repeal came too late to avert the war. The war, which was declared without any great unanimity on the part of Congress, in June, 1812, was at first almost entirely confined to combats between detached frigates, in which the Americans were generally successful, and to attempts by the Americans on Canada, which always ended in failure. The cause of the English want of success in the naval actions was in some degree, no doubt, due to the excellence of their enemies' seamanship, and the picked crews they obtained by enlisting English deserters; but it was also partly owing to the superior size and armaments of the American frigates, which were in reality almost equivalent to the smaller ships of the line. The most celebrated of these detached actions, that between the *Chesapeake* and the *Shannon*, is well described by Alison, *Hist. of Europe*, chap. xci. England carried on the war in a very desultory manner, until the close of the campaign in the south of France set free the Peninsular veterans, many of whom were shipped straight from Bordeaux to America. In the meantime, negotiations had been entered into at Ghent, which continued for more than twelve months before they resulted in the conclusion of peace. A large fleet, under Admiral Cockburn, was despatched with the Peninsular troops, under General Ross, to make a combined attack by sea and land on the Chesapeake River. The expedition completely succeeded in the capture of Washington, the chief public buildings of which city were destroyed. A combined sea and land attack was made upon Plattsburg on Lake Champlain; but the flotilla, unaided by Sir George Prevost, who commanded the troops, was annihilated, and the enterprise had to be abandoned. A projected attack on Baltimore was also given up; but the State of Maine was almost entirely in the hands of the British. An expedition on a large scale was undertaken against New Orleans, under General Pakenham. Natural difficulties, greatly increased by the energy and ability of the American commander, General Jackson, met the armament at every turn, but were at length overcome by the alacrity of the men; and on the 8th Jan., 1815, an assault was made. This was conspicuous no less for the intrepid gallantry of the troops on both sides, which caused a terrible loss of life, including that of Sir E. Pakenham, than for the utter mismanagement and want of unity among the English commanders. The assault was delivered in a number of separate attacks on different points, which failed from want of co-operation and neglect of the most simple details. So great was the loss of the British that General Lambert, who had succeeded to the command, felt it desirable to withdraw. Had means of communication been more rapid in those days, this useless bloodshed would have been averted, since already, on the previous 24th Dec., a convention had been signed at Ghent. This convention was merely a compromise, which left undecided all the chief points on which the two countries were at issue. The rights of neutrals were not touched upon, and the question of the frontier line between Canada and the United States was reserved for future negotiation.

See B. J. Lossing's and C. J. Ingersoll's Histories of the War of 1812; J. F. Cooper, *Hist. of the United States Navy*; James, *Naval Hist.*; *Annual Register*, 1813; Alison, *Hist. of Europe*.

[S. J. L.]

Amherst, Jeffery, Lord (*b.* 1717, *d.* 1797), as aide-de-camp to General Ligonier, was present at Dettingen and Fontenoy, and fought under the Duke of Cumberland at Hastenbeck. In 1756 he was appointed to command the 15th Regiment of Foot, and two years later became major-general. In 1758 he was sent to America, and, acting in co-operation with Admiral Boscawen, effected the capture of Louisburg, the capital of Cape Breton. In the following year, in conjunction with General Prideaux, Sir E. Johnson, and Wolfe, he took Ticonderoga. In 1760 he reduced Montreal after a long and difficult navigation, taking the fort of Isle Royale on his way. Shortly afterwards he planned a successful expedition for the recovery of Newfoundland. In 1761 he was created a Knight of the Bath, and appointed Commander-in-chief and Governor-General in America. In 1770 he was appointed Governor of Guernsey, and Lieutenant-General of the Ordnance. In 1776 he was raised to the peerage, with the title of Baron Amherst of Holmesdale. Shortly afterwards he was made Commander-in-chief, and in that capacity quelled the riots of 1780, but was compelled to resign in 1782. He was again appointed in 1793, and accepted the rank of field-marshal in 1796. Amherst was a firm disciplinarian, but was much beloved by his men. He was a commander of some tactical ability, and always showed dauntless courage on the field of battle.

Gentleman's Magazine, 1797; Stanhope, *Hist. of England*.

Amherst, William Pitt, 1st Earl (*b.* 1773, *d.* 1857), was the eldest son of Lieut.-General Amherst, brother of the first Lord Amherst. On the death of the latter in 1797, he succeeded to the title. In 1816 he was appointed Ambassador-Extraordinary to the Emperor of China. On reaching the precincts of the imperial palace at Pekin, and refusing to submit to the humiliating ceremonies of the emperor's court, he was refused admission to the presence of the emperor, and his mission was thus rendered useless. On his return voyage, the vessel he was in was wrecked off the island of Pulo Leat, from

which he proceeded, accompanied by Sir Henry Ellis, in the boats of the wrecked ship to Batavia. He was subsequently appointed Governor-General of India, and landed in Calcutta, 1823. He had no sooner assumed the government than he found himself involved in hostile discussions with the Burmese, which terminated within five months in a declaration of war. After two campaigns, the first Burmese War ended in the Treaty of Yandaboo. The progress of the Burmese War also gave rise to the Barrackpore Mutiny, which was violently suppressed, and to several seditious manifestations in India. The Governor-General was created Earl Amherst of Aracan in 1826. [BURMESE WAR.]

Ellis, *Proceedings of the late Embassy to China*, 1817.

Amhurst, Nicholas (*d.* 1742), was a writer of satires and political papers of considerable ability. He published a caustic series of papers in 1726 under the title, *Terræ Filius*, intended as a satire on the University of Oxford. After quitting Oxford, Amhurst devoted himself to political journalism, attaching himself to the opponents of Walpole. He conducted *The Craftsman*, a political journal, to which Bolingbroke and Pulteney contributed largely. Amhurst was, however, neglected by his influential friends, and died in poverty and distress.

Biographia Britannica; Wilson, *Hist. of Merchant Taylors' School.*

Amiens, MISE OF (January 23, 1264), was the award pronounced by Louis IX. of France, to whom the question as to the obligation of Henry III. to observe the Provisions of Oxford had been referred, on Dec. 16, 1263. Since 1261 the baronial party had been reduced by desertions, and distracted by Prince Edward's attitude towards their cause in 1262, and by disputes and jealousies among themselves. This, with the fear of Louis openly supporting Henry III. with troops, explains their forced assent to an arbitration which, from Louis' character and frequent services to Henry, could only issue one way. Influenced by his strong views as to the kingly office, and by the authority of the papal bull, possibly also by the negotiations already on foot for the papal appointment of his brother Charles to the crown of Naples, Louis, after some days' hearing of the pleadings on either side, and perhaps some hesitation, decided completely for his brother sovereign, annulled the Provisions of Oxford, especially as to the employment of aliens in England and the royal appointment of sheriffs; but after all left to the barons a loophole in declaring that his decision was not to annul any of the ancient charters or liberties of the realm. In March the warfare broke out which ended for the time in Simon's victory at Lewes. Similar arbitrations were frequent about this period: even the day before Lewes, the barons offered to submit all, save the aliens question, to a new body of arbitrators, and a striking political song of the time shows the general feeling, even in the national party, that some compromise must be accepted. The award had the effect of still further reducing and weakening Simon de Montfort's party.

The documents connected with this event are given in Père Daniel, *Histoire de France*; Rishanger, *Chronicle* (Camden Society); Stubbs, *Select Charters*. See also the *Liber de Antiquis Legibus*; the *Royal Letters* (Rolls Series); Rymer's *Fœdera*; Wright's *Political Songs* (Rolls Series). The best modern accounts are in Bemont, *Simon de Montfort*; Blaauw, *Barons' War*; Prothero, *Simon de Montfort*. [A. L. S.]

Amiens, TREATY OF (March 25, 1802), between England and France, put an end for the time to the great war which had lasted since 1793. The mutual losses during the preceding years, the complete supremacy of the English fleet, and the blow given to the northern alliance by the battle of Copenhagen, and, on the other hand, the defeats inflicted on England's Continental ally, Austria, in 1800, and the Treaty of Luneville, which she concluded with France, Feb. 9, 1801, led both governments to desire a cessation of hostilities. The treaty was the work of the Addington ministry. In the previous October the preliminaries had been agreed to and signed, but some troublesome negotiations had to be gone through, before it was finally ratified at Amiens, by Lord Cornwallis on the part of England, and by Joseph Bonaparte, assisted by Talleyrand, for France. According to it, England gave up all its conquests but Trinidad and Ceylon. The Cape of Good Hope was restored to the Dutch, but was to be a free port. Malta was to go back to the Knights of St. John, under the guarantee of one of the great powers. "Cet article est le plus important de tout le traité, mais aucune des conditions qu'il renferme n'a été exécutée; et il est devenu le pretexte d'une guerre qui s'est renouvelée en 1803, et a duré sans interruption jusqu'en 1814" (*Histoire des Traités*, vi. 149). Porto Ferrajo was to be evacuated. On the other hand, the Republic of the Ionian Islands was acknowledged; the French were to withdraw from Naples and the Roman States; the integrity of Portugal was to be guaranteed; Egypt was to be restored to the Porte; and, finally, the Newfoundland fisheries were to be placed on the same footing as they held before the war began. These terms, as noticed above, were not considered sufficiently satisfactory by the English; consequently the peace was of very short duration, war being declared against Bonaparte in 1803.

For the complicated negotiations which accompanied the Treaty, *see* Koch et Schoell, *Hist. des Traités*, vi., chap. xxxi.; Von Sybel, *Hist. of the French Revolution*; Alison, *Hist. of Europe*; Massey, *Hist. of George III.*; *Annual Register*, 1802. [S. J. L.]

Ancolites, THE, were a small British tribe, inhabiting probably part of Berkshire

and Oxfordshire. They are mentioned by Cæsar, but not by Ptolemy.

Ancrum Moor, Battle of (Feb. 17, 1545), was fought in Roxburghshire, between the forces of Henry VIII., headed by Sir Ralph Evans and Sir Brian Latour, and the Scots, under the Earl of Angus, Scott of Buccleuch, and the Master of Rothes. The English were completely beaten, owing to their desertion by the Borderers who had joined them.

Anderida (Andredes-ceaster), the name of a Roman fortress and settlement on the Sussex coast, which Camden placed at Newenden, in Kent, and others have considered to have been situated at Hastings, Chichester, or under the downs near Eastbourne, where, in 1717, Roman pavements, baths, and other remains were found. Most modern authorities agree in placing it on the site of Pevensey. The town was taken and burnt by the Saxons, under Ella, in 491, and the site was a desolate ruin in the time of Henry of Huntingdon. The *Forest of Anderida* (Andredes-weald) was the great belt of wood which stretched across south-eastern England through Hampshire, Kent, and Surrey, having a length of more than seventy, and in some places a breadth of over thirty, miles. The district still called the Weald may be held to mark out roughly the extent of the closer portions of this forest. [Forests.]

Henry of Huntingdon, *Hist. Anglor.*, ii. § 10, &c.; Lower, *Sussex.*

Anderson, Sir Edmund (*b.* 1530, *d.* 1605), one of Elizabeth's judges, was employed in the prosecutions of the Jesuits, as Queen's Sergeant, 1581. In the following year he was made Chief Justice of the Common Pleas, an office which he retained until his death. In 1586 he tried the conspirators in Babington's plot, and was one of the commissioners at the trial of Mary Queen of Scots, in Oct., 1586. He subsequently tried Davison for the issue of the warrant.

Anderton, William (*d.* 1693), was a violent Jacobite pamphleteer, in the reign of William III. For two years he evaded the government agents, but was at length traced to a house near St. James's Street. He attempted to conceal his press, but it was discovered, together with a tract called *Remarks on the Present Confederacy and the Late Revolution.* He was indicted for high treason before Treby at the Old Bailey. He denied that he had printed the libels. It was argued in his favour, moreover, that, as printing was unknown in the reign of Edward III., it could not be construed into an overt act of treason, and that, under the statute of that sovereign, a further distinction ought to be made between the author of a treasonable pamphlet and the man who merely printed it. He was, however, found guilty, and after being kept for some time in suspense, in the hope that he would betray his accomplices, was executed.

Cobbett's *State Trials*, xii. 1246; Ralph, *Hist. of Eng. under William III.*, &c.

André, Major John (*b.* 1751, *d.* 1780), was the son of a London merchant. Entering the army, he rose rapidly. He was appointed to serve under General Howe in America, and, when Sir H. Clinton succeeded Howe, was made adjutant-general. His tact and ability in this position caused him to be selected, in the month of September, 1780, to superintend the negotiations for the surrender of West Point, on the Hudson River. The man he had to deal with on the other side was Arnold, an American general whose ambition was not satisfied with his position. An arrangement was made between the two for a meeting, to take place on the 17th, when Washington would be absent. The sloop which was carrying André to the meeting-place ran aground, and Arnold, on hearing of the mishap, refused to come down himself, but sent for André to come to him. André, on his return, found the sloop gone, and could not induce the boatmen to put off to her. He accordingly returned to Arnold, who persuaded him to exchange his uniform for a countryman's dress, and go back to the British lines by land. He accomplished the greater part of the journey in safety, and was already in sight of the British lines, when he was arrested, and, in spite of Arnold's passport, carried back to Washington. A court of inquiry was forthwith held; André was found to be a spy, and sentenced to death. Washington was most unwilling to carry out the sentence, and he endeavoured to seize Arnold, the real offender, in order to be able to release André. But Arnold was not to be found; and on Oct. 2, André met his fate with perfect composure. Washington himself declaring that he was more unfortunate than criminal. His bones were afterwards brought to England, and have been interred in Westminster Abbey.

J. Sparks, *Life of Arnold*; *Dict. Nat. Biog.*

Andros, Sir Edmund (*b.* 1637, *d.* 1714), became governor of New York in 1674, and in 1685 was appointed governor of New England by James II. His administration was so unpopular with the colonists that, in 1688, all the colonies subject to him revolted, and he was sent back to England for trial, but acquitted. In 1692 he went out as governor of Virginia, holding the office with credit to himself and advantage to the country until 1698.

Angel was the name of a gold coin, first introduced into England in 1465. The value of an angel was originally 8s. 4d., but in Edward VI.'s time it was raised to 10s. It derived its name from the representation of the Archangel Michael which appeared on it.

Angels continued to be coined down to the reign of Charles I. [COINAGE.]

Angevins, THE, sometimes called PLANTAGENETS. Anjou first became connected with England by the marriage, in 1127, of Matilda, daughter of Henry I., with Geoffrey V., Count of Anjou. Their son Henry became King of England, as well as Count of Anjou. Anjou remained united to England till 1205, when Philip Augustus conquered it, and annexed it to the French crown. For a short time, during the reigns of Henry V. and Henry VI., it was again united to England; but in 1444 the latter king, on his marriage with Margaret of Anjou, ceded his claims. The Angevin rulers filled as great a space in the history of the Middle Ages as the Hapsburgs have done in more modern times. The first Count of Anjou was Fulk the Red, who at the end of the ninth century was thus rewarded for his services against the Northmen. But by the twelfth century, when the petty counts had added Saintonge, Maine, and Touraine to their territory, men began to throw their origin further back, into legends of an heroic champion, Ingelger, son of the wild Breton hunter, Tortulf; and accounted for that fitful energy and successful unscrupulousness which marked the whole race, by tales of an ancestress, who had been an evil spirit or a witch in guise of a lovely countess. In Fulk the Good there appears the other side of the Angevin character: the literary, poetic, and artistic tastes strong in Henry III. and Edward III., in Richard I. and Richard II., and partly shared by Henry II. and John; the capacity for business and the organising power which distinguished Henry II. and Edward I. So, too, the physical prowess of Richard I. was an inheritance from his ancestor, Geoffrey Greygown, the third count; while the fourth count, Fulk the Black, in his successful adventurousness, his restless pilgrimages to Jerusalem, his cruel revenges on his wife and son, seems to anticipate familiar stories of our own Plantagenet kings. With Fulk's son, Geoffrey Martel, the original Angevin line ends, to be continued by his daughter's marriage with Geoffrey of the House of Orleans. Their son, Fulk Rechin, "to whom alone it is due that the charge of trickery is urged against this family," brought upon himself many enemies and some disasters. The next count, Fulk the Young, had already secured Maine by marriage; and his successor, Geoffrey the Handsome, called Plantagenet, by his marriage with the Empress Matilda, heiress to Henry I. of England, raised to its climax the long advancement of his house. Their son, Henry II. of England, succeeded, in 1151, to Anjou, Maine, and Touraine from his father, and Normandy from his mother, and received, in 1152, Poitou, Limoges, Auvergne, Guienne, and Gascony, with Eleanor, the divorced wife of Louis of France. He was crowned King of England in 1154, made himself Lord of Ireland in 1171, exacted full homage from the captive King of Scots in 1174, and obtained for his second son, Geoffrey, the succession to Brittany by marriage. In 1170 Anjou was set apart, with Maine and Normandy, to form a temporary dominion for his eldest son, Henry, as Aquitaine was for Richard, Brittany for Geoffrey, and Ireland for John. But with the accession of John "Lackland," Anjou, like most of the other French possessions of the English crown, passed to Philip of France in 1202. Before this, Ralph de Diceto, finding a pious explanation for the success which had now reached such a height, had declared "the prophecy made to Fulk the Good by the leper whom he carried so piously (and who was none other than the Saviour Himself), that his seed should prosper to the ninth generation, is being fulfilled." But most men spoke otherwise of the Angevins. Thus Giraldus Cambrensis, not content with recounting their diabolic origin, St. Bernard's prediction of their curse, and Richard Cœur de Lion's gloomy acceptance of it ("Let us fight; son with father, brother with brother; it is instinct in our family: from the devil we all came, to the devil we shall all go"), draws out furthermore the calamitous end of all the offspring of Eleanor, as a vengeance foretold for her parents' adulterous union; he recites the visions which warned holy men of the punishment reserved for Henry II.'s sins against the Church, and points the moral of the breakdown of that great king's empire, after all his subtle schemes and his toilsome, gainful life, before the divinely-favoured royal house of France. This indeed was the feeling which many men had about the Angevins; not without some reason. "They remind us," says Dr. Stubbs, "of those unhappy spirits who, throughout the Middle Ages, were continually spending superhuman strength in building in a night inaccessible bridges and uninhabitable castles, or purchasing with untold treasures souls that might have been had for nothing, and invariably cheated of their reward." There is, indeed, in all the English kings of this race, even in Edward I., something of this waste of vast energies upon futile results, which are no sooner grasped than they crumble in the hand. They had not, with all their insight, that rare gift of penetrating to the real heart of their age, the gift that only sympathy with it can give. Even Edward I. could not see that he was, in his own despite, making of Scotland what he had already made of England—a self-governing patriotic nation. Yet to this dynasty England owes much. Henry II. not only finally defeated the feudal class by superseding its privileged jurisdiction, by subduing it to his strong centralised

system, by withdrawing its military basis, but he also set up a counterpoise to it in the revived popular courts, in the developed use of local juries, in the reconstituted national militia, in the legalised liberties of the towns. In a word, he began the varied training of the English people to co-operation in the work of government, which Edward I. took up and carried on to its completion. Moreover, the very tyranny and neglect of the other kings were direct instruments of benefits never intended. Richard I.'s careless absence and heavy exactions left his ministers free to expand the principles bequeathed them from Henry II.'s reign. A still greater debt of gratitude we owe to the misgovernment of John, the worst of the line, inasmuch as it alone supplied the pressure which could force the baronage for the first time to act with and for Church and people, and produced the coalition which extorted the Great Charter. Henry III.'s shiftiness recalled this coalition into action so often that it became a permanent union. The second Edward's failure taught the nation that a vigorous kingship was still a requisite of political stability, to control the baronage, and to be the working head of the government. Edward III., in his selfish haste for the means of warfare and ostentation, sold away the crown's power of extra-parliamentary interference in taxation and legislation. And Richard II.'s unsuccessful attempt at absolutism precipitated the downfall of prerogative, and gave constitutional government sixty years in which to strike its roots down too deep even for the destroying hand of Yorkist, Tudor, and Stuart kings to kill their latent life. And it is to the stern peace kept by the Angevin kings, to their repression of private justice and private war, to their firm but prudent attitude to the Church, that we owe the early rise of English literature and philosophy, the great age of the English Church, the enfranchisement of the peasantry, the populous independence of the towns, the growth of wool-trade and maritime commerce. All the Angevins were men of strong but conflicting character; none were without physical bravery, bodily activity, passionate emotions. Even the worst were men who superstitiously respected some forms of religion, while they violated its spirit: like Henry II., jesting and drawing pictures at mass, but dying before the chapel altar at Chinon; or Richard, after an agony of repentance for his sins, recovering, to plunge into them afresh. All inflicted, and in turn suffered, the ancestral curse, the pangs of filial or fraternal ingratitude. None are contemptible, save, perhaps, Henry III.; none, save John, fail to win some sympathy. They must remain to us as they were to their contemporaries—a marvellous race, with many elements of greatness, with immense personal endowments, and a certain mysterious shadow hanging over all; whose work, to which they sacrificed their peace and domestic happiness, and too often their conscience and fame, for the most part was destined to pass away, but through whom other results were brought about, destined to be of incalculable value and indestructible permanence.

ANGEVIN KINGS OF ENGLAND.

Henry II. .	1154—1189	Edward I. .	1272—1307
Richard I. .	1189—1199	Edward II. .	1307—1327
John . . .	1199—1216	Edward III.	1327—1377
Henry III. .	1216—1272	Richard II. .	1377—1399

Chroniques d'Anjou, with preface by M. Mabille, 1871; the works of Benedictus Abbas, Roger de Hoveden, Ralph de Diceto, William of Newburgh, *Itinerarium Regis Ricardi* (in the Rolls Series), Walter of Coventry, Matthew Paris, Giraldus Cambrensis (especially, his *De Institutione Principum*), and Ralph Niger. See also Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.*; Hallam, *Mid. Ages*; Stubbs, *Constitutional History*; Dr. Pauli, *Geschichte von England* (from Edward I. to Richard II.); Longman, *Life and Times of Edward III.*; M. Wallon, *Richard II.*

[A. L. S.]

Angles, THE. If identity of name and general probability be held fair proofs of identity of race, the Angles (*Angli*, *Anglii*), after whom this land is called, are first mentioned in the *Germania* of Tacitus (written about A.D. 98), seemingly as dwellers on the farther side of the Elbe. But in Tacitus's page they are merely one among a number of obscure names of German peoples. They would seem, however, to have been then in motion westwards; fifty years later Ptolemy found them on the left bank of the same river, in occupation of a territory conjectured to be in the neighbourhood of the modern town of Magdeburg. But neither did they remain here; by the fourth century, if not earlier, they had established themselves on the neck of the northern peninsula, now Jutland, and filled the district that is now known as Schleswig, but which an English writer of the tenth century (Ethelward) names *Anglia Vetus*, or Old England. And Bede, in calling this country of theirs *Angulus*, suggests a hint regarding the origin of their name, which a weighty authority, Dr. Guest, has not scrupled to take, speaking of their Continental home as "Ongle," and apparently looking upon them as "men of the corner." Next to nothing is told us of the Angles in written history. Scholars are, however, satisfied that they were of the Low-German stock, and were closely akin to, yet distinct from, the Saxons, having a speech that, though essentially the same as the Saxon, was not so far removed from the High-German, and showed more frequent marks of Scandinavian influence. But, like the Saxons, they were of pure German type; Roman civilisation had never reached them. A legal code, the Laws of the Anglii and Werini, presumably belonging to them, and as old as the eighth century, survives as a record of native usages in an intermediate stage between those of the *Germania*

and of the earliest-known English system. In the sixth century, at various but unknown dates, and by many but unconnected expeditions, the Angles crossed over to Britain, and conquered to their own use the whole of the east coast, from the Stour to the Forth. Pushing steadily their encroachments westwards, and slaying, expelling, or enslaving the bulk at least of the natives, they eventually formed several powerful kingdoms, and not a few smaller states—fought and prospered until two-thirds of the conquered land had passed into their possession. This great movement is believed to have caused an exhaustive migration of the race; Bede is our authority for a report that their fatherland was without inhabitants even in his time. Yet some will have it that their name still abides there in the local term, *Angeln*. In Britain, though they just missed winning political supremacy, they fixed their name ineffaceably on the whole German population and the land it lived in. Many have speculated upon, but none gained any solid knowledge of, their distinguishing characteristics; it would seem, however, that wherever they differed from their Saxon brethren, they more nearly resembled their Danish cousins.

Elton, *Origins of English History*, ch. xii.; Stubbs, *Constitutional History*, ch. iii.; Skene, *Celtic Scotland*, book i., ch. iv.; and the works of Tacitus, Ptolemy, and Bede. [J. R.]

Anglesey (Latin, *Mona*; Welsh, *Môn*), an island and county of North Wales, was in the earliest times celebrated as the headquarters of Druidism, and therefore of resistance to the Romans. It was conquered by Suetonius Paulinus in A.D. 61, and again more thoroughly by Agricola in 78. On the withdrawal of the Romans, it became the centre of the power of the kings of North Wales, or Gwynedd, and Gildas calls the famous Maelgwn "insularis draco." Yet it was conquered, with much other Welsh territory, by Edwin of Northumbria (Bede, ii. 5), and perhaps this Anglian conquest explains Nennius—"Mona insula quæ Anglice Englesei vocatur id est insula Anglorum" (*Mon. Hist. Brit.*, 52 D.). But Northumbria soon fell, and the "isle of the English" became Welsh again. It contained Aberffraw, the chief palace of the kings of Gwynedd. During the ninth, tenth, and eleventh centuries, it was repeatedly ravaged by the Danes, who very probably effected permanent settlements in it. After the Norman Conquest, it became the battle-ground of Irish Dane, native Welsh, and Norman adventurers. Under William Rufus, it was more than once captured by Earl Hugh of Chester, when "the French reduced all to be Saxons" (*Brut-y-Tys.*, sub an. 1096). Again, in 1098, it was the scene of the exploits of Magnus of Norway, and of the death of Hugh. But it soon got back its liberty, and has retained to this day that intensely Welsh character ("Môn mam Cymru") which makes its name so misleading. It continued the home of the princes of North Wales until the fall of Llewelyn ap Gruffydd annexed the principality to the crown, and it was erected into a regular county by Henry VIII. [COUNTIES, WELSH.]

Rowland's *Mona Antiqua Restaurata* hopelessly confuses the history with fable. *A History of Anglesey* (London, 1775) is little better. The chief facts are in Miss Williams' *History of Wales*, and Freeman, *William Rufus*, vi. 127, seq. [T. F. T.]

Anglesey, PEERAGE OF. In 1628 Sir Francis Annesley, of Newport Pagnell, Bucks, was created Baron Mount Norris in the peerage of Ireland, and Viscount Valentia. It was this nobleman who was arbitrarily tried and condemned to death by Strafford, when Lord-Deputy in 1635. Arthur, second Viscount Valentia (1614—1686), was, in 1645, sent as Commissioner to Ulster to oppose Owen Roe O'Neil. After the death of Cromwell, he was President of the Council of State, and took a considerable share in bringing about the Restoration. In 1660 he was created Earl of Anglesey in the peerage of England. During the life of Richard, sixth Earl of Anglesey, the title and estates were claimed by James Annesley, who asserted that he was the son of the fourth Earl. [For the litigation which ensued on this claim, see ANNESLEY'S CASE.] As a result of this litigation, it was held that the earldom of Anglesey became extinct in 1761, on the death of the sixth Earl. In 1815 the title of Marquis of Anglesey was conferred on Henry Paget, Earl of Uxbridge.

Anglesey, Arthur Annesley, 5TH EARL OF (*d.* 1737), held several posts in Ireland in the reign of Queen Anne. In 1711 he hastened from Ireland to take part in the debates on the war, and commented severely on the exhaustion of the country, hinting that Marlborough had averted peace from interested motives. But on a subsequent occasion he attacked the ministry, and publicly apologised for the part he had played in politics. During the last years of Queen Anne, he was one of the leaders of the faction of Hanoverian Tories, whom Swift calls the "Whimsicals." He was one of the Lords Justices appointed to administer the kingdom between the death of Anne and the arrival of George I.

Anglesey, Henry William Paget, 1ST MARQUIS OF (*b.* 1768, *d.* 1854), eldest son of Henry, first Earl of Uxbridge, in 1794 served under the Duke of York in Flanders, and again in Holland in 1799, as colonel of a dragoon regiment. In December, 1808, he joined Sir John Moore's force as a major-general, and greatly distinguished himself by the manner in which he covered the dis-

astrous retreat of the British army, and contributed in no small measure to the victory of the English at Corunna. In 1806 he was returned to Parliament for Milbourne Port, and he was called to the Upper House on the death of his father in 1812. In the campaign of 1815 the Earl of Uxbridge was appointed to the command of the cavalry. At Waterloo, where he led the heavy brigade in the terrible charge which overwhelmed D'Erlon's division, he distinguished himself by the utmost intrepidity. In the battle he was wounded in the leg, which was obliged to be amputated. For his services he was created Marquis of Anglesey, and received the thanks of both Houses of Parliament. In 1827 he was appointed Master-General of the Ordnance; and in 1828 the Wellington Cabinet made him Viceroy of Ireland. His advent was looked forward to with much dread in Ireland, owing to some thoughtless remarks he had once made as to using military force to quell disturbances. But he very much belied the anticipations that had been formed of him, and by his impartial conduct and strict justice, gained great popularity. His views on Catholic emancipation, of which he was a strong advocate, entirely differed from the policy of the Cabinet, and he was summarily removed from his post, to the great regret of all classes in Ireland. In 1830 he was again appointed Lord-Lieutenant, and carried on the government of Ireland till the dissolution of Lord Grey's government in 1833. In 1846 he was made a field-marshal, and in the same year once more became Master-General of the Ordnance, which office he held till 1852, when he retired into private life until his death.

Wellington Despatches; Clark, *The Georgian Era*.

Anglia, East. [East Anglia.]

Anglia Sacra is the title of a miscellaneous collection of ecclesiastical memorials, published by Dr. Henry Wharton, in two vols. folio, Lond., 1691. These volumes contain Eadmer's "Life of Anselm," William of Malmesbury's "Life of Aldhelm," John of Salisbury's "Life of Anselm," and other works relating more particularly to the early history of English dioceses, and the biography of English bishops.

Anglo-Saxon is a word which has been commonly applied to the aggregate of the Teutonic inhabitants of Britain who lived under native institutions, up to the date of the Norman Conquest; to the earliest form of the English language of which memorials survive; and, by a curious modern usage, to the sum total of the men of English speech and origin, to whatever nation they may belong, who are now scattered over the globe. The exact meaning of the word is not obvious. Mr. Freeman rules "Anglo-Saxon" to be a condensation of the phrase "Angles and Saxons," construing both its component parts as nouns; whilst the ablest of his predecessors has taken the compound to mean "properly Saxons of England, as distinguished from Saxons of the Continent," in which case the former half must have the force of an adjective. A scrutiny of the oldest forms of the word, whether English or Latin, would seem to justify the latter conclusion rather than the other. These forms are: in English, *Ongol-Saxna* and *Angul-Seaxna*; in Latin, *Angul-Saxones* and *Angli-Saxones*. Now, if *Ongol cyn* and *Angel cyn* be —as they usually are—construed into "English kin," we cannot easily escape the necessity of construing *Ongol-Saxe*, *Angul-Seaxe*, and *Angul-Saxones* into "English Saxons." And the Latin form seemingly admits of the same construction more readily than it does that of "Angles and Saxons." Camden, therefore, and Mr. Kemble would appear to have had some show of reason, the first for naming (*Remains concerning Britain*, pp. 24, 25) the inhabitants of England before the Norman Conquest "English-Saxons," and their tongue "English-Saxon," the second for calling his great work "The *Saxons* in England." On the other hand, Mr Freeman's explanation would unquestionably, if language permitted it, be a far more satisfactory one. An Anglo-Saxon king was certainly a king of Angles and Saxons; the population he reigned over was composed of Angles of the north and east, as well as Saxons of the south and west. It is noteworthy, however, and perhaps significant, that the word was barely recognised by the men of the time to which it is now so often given; neither in the Chronicle, nor in Ethelward—nor, indeed, in any purely native English historical record—is it once found. So long as these men were distributed into separate states, they looked upon themselves as Saxons or as Angles; when they fell into political unions they became, when contemplated as members of one community, Englishmen. When native writers would contrast West-Saxons, East-Anglians, and Northumbrians with their insular foes or continental neighbours, they had no other designation for them than "Engle," no other for their speech than "Englisc." This is the first reason that has moved some scholars to drop this and every cognate word altogether in writing, and use "English" as a descriptive epithet of every part of our history and every form of our language. The men whom Edgar and Harold ruled called themselves "English kin;" even Alfred, mere King of West-Saxons as he was, is represented in the Chronicle as having been "King of all the English kin except the part that was under the wield of the Danes." It is thought better to call the people as they called themselves. And undoubtedly the name has led to misconceptions. It has misled

people into thinking that their forefathers were not their forefathers, that the nation which was (temporarily) overthrown at Senlac was not the same nation that, 750 years later, overthrew Napoleon; into thinking the language of the Chronicle a different tongue from the language of Carlyle. "The unhistorical and conventional term Anglo-Saxon conveys," says Sir F. Palgrave, "a most false idea of our civil history. It disguises the continuity of affairs, and substitutes the appearance of a new formation in place of a progressive evolution." On the other hand, it is urged that as regards the language, at least, the name is necessary. To insist upon calling both the earliest and latest forms of our literary language "English," is to assert identity where there is no identity; to prevent misconception, therefore, we must alter the name either of our own or of Alfred's tongue. To do the second were not easy. But those earlier were the days of Angles and Saxons, if ever Angles and Saxons were; it surely ought to be at least fairly accurate to speak of their written language as the Anglo-Saxon form of English. And as to the people—seeing that during those days the Angles and Saxons, though coalescing, had not yet coalesced into a well-blended national unity—there is perhaps no intolerable error in describing their era as the Anglo-Saxon stage in the history of the English nation.

Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, esp. vol. i., appendix, note A; Marsh, *Origin and Hist. of the Eng. Language*, sect. ii.; Kemble, *Saxons*.

[J. R.]

Anglo-Saxon Chronicle is the name given to an historical document of the very first importance for the whole earlier portion of English history. It is in the form of annals, beginning with the Christian era, and terminating at various dates in the various copies, the most prolonged ending with 1154.

The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle is sometimes spoken of in the plural, as the Anglo-Saxon Chronicles; and each form of expression may be justified. The extant copies are so far alike in their contents that they can be regarded as variations of a common original, such hypothetical original being a compilation made in the ninth century. But the divergences are great even within this earlier part, and they tend in the continuations to a separation so wide as to produce in some cases a total independence of one another before the close. No one can really study this document without finding that there is at least equal propriety in the plural designation.

Manuscripts: There are six manuscripts, and some fragments of a seventh. These manuscripts have been designated by the letters A, B, C, D, E, F, G. They have each and all been identified (at least proximately) with one or other of the great religious houses of the southern part of the isl nd. The first (A) has been assigned to W nchester; the second (B) was probably compiled at St. Augustine's, Canterbury; the third (C) is manifestly from Abingdon; the fourth (D) from Worcester; the fifth (E) is from Peterborough, and is the most distinctly local of the whole series; the sixth (F), in the two languages Latin and Saxon, is from Canterbury. The seventh (G) is little more than a late copy of A. Of this last manuscript only three leaves have escaped the fire of 1731; but this loss is alleviated by the fact that this manuscript has been printed in full, and without admixture, by Wheloc (Cambridge, 1643). The places of deposit of these manuscripts are as follows:—A, in Corpus Christi College, Cambridge; B, C, D, F, G, in the Cotton Library, British Museum; E, in the Bodleian.

Of all these manuscripts, the Peterborough Chronicle (E) is the one of which the date and occasion of its production has been most satisfactorily made out. There was a great fire at Peterborough in August, 1116, which destroyed all the monastery except the chapter-house and the dormitory; most of the town was burnt also. All the books were probably lost. Five years later, in 1121, we find this new Chronicle, which must have taken time to collect and compile, brought down to the date of the current year in one handwriting. A new hand continues the history in 1122. We know from other sources that this was counted an epoch at Peterborough. The Latin *Chronicon Petroburgense* (Camden Society), of which the object was to describe the administration of Abbot Robert, which dates from 1274, begins with 1122.

Division of Contents: The first five hundred years is a literary compilation, made at a comparatively late date, from Latin authorities; then follows a mixed period down to A.D. 735, in which the greatest part is from Bede, with a few original annals interspersed. These annals are the earliest material proper to the Saxon Chronicle. From this date onwards, our Chronicles are the highest source for nearly all the history they contain. As a whole, the Chronicles belong to the south, but there is an important exception to this general character, in a series of annals between A.D. 737 and 806, embodied in the Worcester Chronicle (D), and manifestly derived from Northumbrian and Mercian sources, not otherwise known. The best and strongest writing appears with a natural propriety in the reigns of Ethelred and Alfred, the greatest crisis of the national life. In 1066 we may be struck with the fact that only one Chronicle (D) describes the battle of Hastings. A new and peculiar interest attaches to the later continuations of the Peterborough Chronicle (E). Here we see the language admitting gradual changes, and this goes with other points of internal evidence to link the records very closely with the events.

The earliest Latin historians are in close relation with the Saxon Chronicles. Florence of Worcester, who died in 1118, and whose latest annal is 1117, is for a large part of his work simply a translator of these Chronicles, especially of D. Asser is indebted to A. Henry of Huntingdon made large use of the Saxon Chronicles; and where he deviates from them his credit is deteriorated thereby. In general, it may be asserted that the existence of the Saxon Chronicles tends greatly to increase our confidence in the early Latin annalists. When we see how closely they have for the most part followed these vernacular annals, we are able to feel assured that in instances where vernacular authority fails, it was probably possessed by the Latin historian. This is the case where Simeon of Durham produces materials that we have no other trace of, and which is therefore attributed to some lost northern chronicles.

Editions: After Wheloc, the next editor was Gibson (Oxford, 1692), who constructed a text by a collation of several manuscripts. Both Wheloc and Gibson gave Latin translations,

and Gibson's is, for the time, excellent. The first translation into English was by Miss Gurney. It was privately and anonymously printed (Norwich, 1819). The next edition was in 1823, by Dr. Ingram, with English parallel to the Saxon. The next edition appeared in the folio *Monumenta Historica Britannica* (1848); and here the plan of a composite text was carried to its extreme perfection. In 1861 appeared the Rolls edition, by Thorpe, where all the texts are printed parallel in vol. i., with a translation in vol. ii. In 1865 came *Two Saxon Chronicles Parallel, with Supplementary Extracts from the Others*, ed. J. Earle (Oxford). A later edition is that of C. Plummer (Oxford, 1892).

Lappenberg, *Geschichte von England*, *Literarische Einleitung*, p. xlix.; *Archæological Journal*, papers by Dr. Guest, Mr. Freeman, and Dr. Stubbs; Introductions to *Mon. Hist. Brit.*, and to Earle's *Two Sax. Chron. Parallel*. [J. E.]

Anglo-Saxon Kingdoms. Much that specially distinguishes the development of our national history is due to the fact that the English Conquest was carried out, not by a single people or confederation of peoples, but by independently-acting bodies of adventurers who were sprung from a common stock, and had been living for ages under similar institutions. For thus it came about that, when the success of the long series of separate invasions was assured, and at least half of Britain south of the isthmus of Forth and Clyde had received an English population, and passed under the sway of the English system of rule, this newly-subjugated land was necessarily divided among a large number of distinct, almost isolated, kingdoms and states. By the last quarter of the sixth century, all the eastern and southern coast, from Queensferry to Portland Bill, formed an exclusive sea-board for an Anglian, Saxon, Frisian, and Jutish territory, while a traveller might still make his way from Stirling to the shores of West Bay entirely through Celtic land, without having once to cross tidal water save at the point where the Severn broadens into the Bristol Channel. But the line that parted the two races was somewhat irregular, and, owing to incessant warfare between them, continually changing. In the upper reaches of the English side of the island, two kingdoms had established themselves—Bernicia (Welsh, *Bryneich*, the country of the *braes*) and Deira (*Deifyr*), stretching, the former from the Forth to the Tees, the latter from the Tees to the Humber. These are both usually reckoned among the states founded by the Angles, though certain inquirers profess to have detected a Frisian element in their population. Below the Humber a cluster of Anglian settlements — Gainas, Lindiswaras, Mercians, Middle Angles, and others—covered a broader area of considerable but indefinable length, and would seem to have been already consolidating into the great kingdom of the Marchland, or Mercia. East Anglia filled the space between the lower half of the Mercian land and the eastern sea, and had the Stour as its southern boundary. Between the Stour and the Thames dwelt the East and the Middle Saxons, already, it would appear, united into a single kingdom. Westward to the lower Severn and the Forest of Selwood, and southward to the English Channel, spread the kingdom of the West-Saxons, in which Surrey had probably been already included. The belt of cleared land that ran, thrust in between the huge forest of Anderida and the sea, from Chichester harbour to the Rother, formed the territory of the South-Saxons: and the Kentish kingdom must have had pretty much the same limits as the present county of Kent. Though the men of Kent, Wight, and the part of Hampshire that bends round the Southampton Water, are called Jutes in early authorities, the distinctive name was not long maintained; and the four southern kingdoms may be taken to compose the Saxon constituent of the English race in Britain. It must also be borne in mind that, scattered over the newly-conquered country, there were not a few smaller states, such as the Hwiccas, the Gyrwas, the Meanwaras, either independent or owing an incomplete allegiance to one or other of the kingdoms; that Deira and Bernicia showed a disposition to combine into one state, had already once combined, and were sure to become soon permanently incorporated into a Northumbrian kingdom, while the co-existence of the two dioceses of Rochester and Canterbury, from the first organisation of the Church in England, has led to the belief that there may have been originally two kingdoms in Kent, the earliest dioceses being generally co-extensive with kingdoms. As yet these several kingdoms and states—at any rate, the greater among them—held aloof from one another. Nor had they yet learned—perhaps the resistance of the natives did not allow them the necessary leisure—even to quarrel among themselves. In fact, each, as a rule, went about its business of fighting with the Welsh, of settlement and apportionment of the soil, of general organisation, on its own forces only; loosely speaking, they had *no* relations with one another; the conditions that made the first step towards union possible did not exist. It is true that Ella, the first king of the South-Saxons, is represented by Bede as holding a sort of *imperium*, or military overlordship, over the "provinces" south of the Humber; but Bede's statement must be either an exaggeration of some insignificant fact, or altogether baseless. An imperial king of the South-Saxons in the fifth century is inconceivable. In another century (*circ.* 685) a great change had taken place. The southern part of Northumbria now stretched from sea to sea, its western border-line joining the coast at the head of Morecambe Bay. Mercia had grown considerably towards the south and the west; part of the lower Dee and half the Wye flowed within her confines, and her

kings had pushed their conquests from Wessex almost to the Bristol Avon and the upper Thames. But Wessex had helped to make up for these losses by extending her western frontier to the mouths of the Parret and Exe, and by taking Wight within her kingdom. East Anglia, Essex, Kent, and Sussex, having no weaker race in their neighbourhood to encroach upon, were substantially unaltered.

Among these kingdoms a state of things had arisen which Milton in his ignorance of the real facts of the case only caricatures when he calls their mutual dealings "the wars of kites or crows, flocking and fighting in the air." Strife and bloodshed were universal; no kingdom escaped them; even Christianity brought a sword; by far the greater number of battles that are henceforward recorded were fought between Englishmen. Indeed, the several peoples seldom came together save as enemies. And in the course of this warfare the vicissitudes of success were many and sudden: the irresistible conqueror of one day was the hunted fugitive or mangled corpse of the next. Ceawlin of Wessex, after years of nearly unbroken success, in which Briton and Jute went down before him, was, in 591, himself beaten down by his own subjects, and driven from his kingdom. Kent then rose to greatness under the guidance of Ethelbert, who won a sort of supremacy that is stated by Bede to have reached the Humber, at the same time that another restless warrior, Ethelfrith, was making the might of Northumbria terrible to the north and west of that river. But Ethelbert shrank back, and Ethelfrith fell in battle before the growing power of Redwald, King of the East Angles; and for a few years Redwald held the foremost place among the kings that ruled south of the Humber. Then the turn of Northumbria came: in 630 the authority or influence of her king, Edwin, bore undisputed sway from the Forth to the English Channel, save in Kent alone. Then Penda of Mercia vanquished and slew Edwin (634), and seized a part of his supremacy; but was himself vanquished and slain in 655 by a successor of Edwin's, Oswy, under whom Northumbria regained a fair share of her former ascendancy. But with the death in battle of her next king, Egfrith, in 685, the glory and greatness of the northern kingdom passed away for ever. For a hundred and forty years longer she kept her independence, and at times acted with vigour to the north and west; but her part in determining the destiny of England was played out. These were not futile fightings, after all. The kingdoms were merely taking the best way they knew of settling among themselves which was the most worthy to fulfil the trust of making England a nation. To bringing about this end, the newly-founded Church proved an effective ally. Her authority, being an undivided force that proceeded from a single centre, and her organisation covering the whole land, gently drew the separate communities together, made the idea of unity familiar, and must have fostered a vague longing for political union. And the practical effacement of all the smaller kingdoms except East Anglia must also have done something to smooth the way towards this consummation. Essex sank, first into a Mercian, then, seemingly, into a West-Saxon dependency; in the last quarter of the seventh century Ceadwalla of Wessex and his successor, Ina, reduced Sussex and Kent beneath their dominion; and these states, without as yet losing their separate existence, never again enjoyed a separate political life.

In the rivalry that was thus narrowed to Mercia and Wessex, the tide of success, during the greater part of the eighth century, ran decidedly in favour of the former; one of the Mercian kings, Ethelbald, was strong enough to fasten his yoke on the neck of Wessex itself. And, though the stubborn land succeeded in shaking off this yoke by a decisive victory at Burford (752), Offa, a later Mercian king, managed in his long reign (755—794) to raise his power to an unexampled height. Wessex was beaten in battle, and driven below the Thames; Essex and Kent had become almost parts of the Mercian kingdom; and in 792 a deed of the foulest treachery gave Offa the command of East Anglia. From the Welsh, too, the masterful king wrested the wide sweep of scrub-land that lay round Pengwern, and on the site of this place built the town of Shrewsbury (*Scrobbesbyrig*, *Scrub-bury*), and made the dyke that is still called after his name the western limit of his kingdom, thus bringing the area of England almost to its furthest expansion on the side of Wales. But the sceptre was destined for Wessex, notwithstanding. Pressed down from her northern frontier, and forced, as it would appear, to give up Surrey and Sussex also, she never paused in her slow advance towards Cornwall. Somerset was completed, and the making of Devonshire begun; by the end of the century the Exe, from source to sea, was a West-Saxon river. With the first years of the next Egbert, a wise and valiant descendant of earlier kings came from exile in Charlemagne's court, to take on himself the rule of the kingdom; and under his direction the West-Saxons went steadily forward on the path that led to national greatness. Egbert was long content to repel Mercian invasion, and to push his conquests further into the Cornish peninsula; in his reign Devon reached its final limits, and the men of Cornwall were driven to accept him as their overlord. At length, in 823, on the field of Ellandune, Mercia and Wessex measured their strength for the last time;

and there the might of Mercia was broken. Ere the year was over, Sussex and Surrey had rejoined, Kent and Essex been added to, the victorious kingdom; and the East Anglians had successfully revolted from Mercia, and put themselves under the protection of Egbert. The crowning year of triumph for Wessex was 827; then a single campaign made her king master of Mercia, and awed Northumbria into submission; from Edinburgh to Land's End he was supreme lord or immediate king. Of the nature and measure of this West-Saxon supremacy, no exact knowledge can be gained; doubtless it gave the right to demand help in war, and a commanding voice in the higher concerns of each kingdom. An unlooked-for force created the conditions that converted this supremacy into actual kingship. Northumbria, Mercia, and East Anglia, though bound to Wessex, still remained distinct kingdoms, each with its dependent king. These kingdoms the Danes laid in ruins; and after the narrow escape of Wessex from the same fate, the line of the Lea, the Ouse, and Watling Street divided England into two political systems, Wessex and the Danelagh, that were practically two hostile camps. Between these, after Alfred's death, the battle was fought out to the bitter end; and this end, when it came—as it did in the reign of Edgar (958—975)—made the whole of England a single kingdom. But either in this or in Canute's reign, the country between the Forth and the Tweed—the Lothians, as they are called—fell, or was torn, away from England: under what circumstances there is no record can tell us.

The *Anglo-Saxon Chron.*, Bede, and Ethelward, are our chief authorities for the history of these kingdoms. See also Lappenberg, *Anglo-Saxon Kings*, vol. i.; J. R. Green, *The Making of England*. [J. R.]

Angoulême, or **Angoumois,** a province in the south of France, was united with England by the marriage of Henry II. with Eleanor of Aquitaine. In 1218 it passed into the possession of the Count de la Marche, stepfather of Henry III. In 1303 it was annexed to the French crown, but by the Treaty of Bretigni in 1360, was restored to England, only to be re-conquered by the French in 1370.

Angria was a pirate-chief, who occupied the rock of Gheriah, off the Malabar coast of India. His depredations had caused him to be regarded as the scourge of the adjacent seas. Clive, on his return to India, in 1756, and Admiral Watson, with the English fleet, attacked and destroyed his station.

Angus (the older name of the county of Forfar) was the territory of one of the great Pictish tribes, or sub-kingdoms, and was governed by a succession of Celtic "maormors," one of whom, Dufugan, is styled "Comes" in the reign of Alexander I., and "was," says Mr. Skene, "no doubt, the first Earl." After him there is a further succession of four Celtic earls from father to son. Maud, the heiress of the last of these, carried the earldom by marriage first to the family of the Comyns, then to that of the Umphravilles. In 1297 Gilbert de Umphraville was summoned to Parliament as Earl of Angus. It is somewhat doubtful whether this was not merely a courtesy-title, and whether Umphraville was not in reality summoned in virtue of his barony of Prudhoe, in Northumberland (*see* Sir H. Nicolas, *Historic Peerage*); but his descendants were, at any rate, regularly summoned as Earls of Angus. By the marriage of Margaret, Countess of Angus, with William, first Earl Douglas (as his third wife), the earldom passed into one branch of the house of Douglas. In 1633 William, eleventh Earl of Angus, was created Marquis of Douglas. In 1700 James, third Marquis, was created Duke of Douglas. Archibald, son of the first Marquis, was created Earl of Ormond in 1651, and his son Archibald was created Earl of Forfar in 1661. His title and estates devolved, in 1715, on the Duke of Douglas, on whose death, in 1761, the honours of this family passed to the Dukes of Hamilton, for whom, and for the celebrated lawsuit which arose out of this succession. [Douglas, Family of.]

Edwards, *Description of Angus*, 1791; Skene, *Celtic Scotland*, iii. 289; A. Jervise, *Memorials of Angus*; Sir B. Burke, *Dormant and Extinct Peerages*, p. 175.

Angus, Archibald Douglas, 5th Earl of, quarrelled with his kinsmen of the royalist party, and at the head of the partisans of James II., defeated them at Arkenholm (1455). At the siege of Roxburgh, 1460, he was wounded by the bursting of the same cannon which killed James II. He was the leader of the baronial party in the conspiracy against the ministers of James III. at Lauderbridge, and from his famous remark on that occasion, "Heed not, I am he who will bell the cat," was ever afterwards called Archibald Bell-the-Cat. He commanded one wing of the insurgent army at the battle of Torwood, where James III. was killed. He became Chancellor of Scotland, and in 1488 was one of the leaders of the barons at Sauchieburn. In 1491 he entered into a private treaty with Henry VII. by which he agreed to do his utmost to promote harmony between the kings of England and Scotland.

Angus, Archibald Douglas, 6th Earl of (*d.* 1556), was the grandson of Earl "Bell-the-Cat." In August, 1514, he married Margaret, the Queen Regent of Scotland, and mother of James V.; but was shortly afterwards carried off to France at the instance of John, Duke of Albany. Returning to Scotland in 1519, he defeated his enemies, the Hamiltons, in the following year, in the

battle of "Cleanse the Causeway," and seized Edinburgh, though he soon found himself compelled to seek a temporary asylum in France. In 1525 he returned, and became guardian of the young king, whom he kept in close restraint for three years, until one of his many attempts to escape proved successful (1528). On the death of James V., he returned to his native country, after coming to a secret understanding with the English king that he would do all in his power to serve his cause in Scotland. In 1543, he received Sir Ralph Sadler, the English ambassador, at his Castle of Tantallon; but in the following year Angus with the Assured Lords threw over Henry, and joined the national party, an act which drew down on his lands the army of Lord Hertford. Shortly afterwards he defeated the English at the battle of Ancrum Moor.

Burton, *Hist. of Scot.*, iii. 85, &c.

Angus, McFergus (*d.* 761), obtained the Pictish throne, 731, after defeating the previous king, Alpin, at the junction of the Tay and the Earn, and annihilating the forces of Nectan MacDenli at Loch Inch. In 732 Angus invaded Dalriada, and drove its king to Ireland. In 736 he again laid waste the kingdom of the Scots, taking the capital, Dunad, and throwing Dungal into prison; this devastation was repeated in 741, when Dalriada for some years sank into the position of a Pictish dependency. Shortly afterwards Angus entered into an alliance with Eadbert of Northumbria against the Britons of Strathclyde, who submitted in 756.

Animals, Cruelty to. In 1822, chiefly owing to the exertions of Mr. Martin, M.P., an Act was passed to repress the practice of cruelty to animals. Subsequently Acts with the same object were passed in 1827, 1835, and 1854, in great part through the efforts of the Royal Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, instituted in 1824. In 1875 a Royal Commission was appointed to inquire into the question of the vivisection of animals. In 1876 an Act was passed regulating (but not abolishing) vivisection, and compelling physiological demonstrators and others to take out a certificate to vivisect.

Anjou. [Angevins.]

Anjou, Margaret of. [Margaret of Anjou.]

Anlaf (or **Olaf**) **Cuaran** (*d.* 980), was the son of Sihtric, Danish King of Northumberland. After his father's death, Anlaf went to Dublin, but soon left Ireland for Scotland, where he married the daughter of Constantine, King of Alban. It was this match which probably provoked Athelstan's invasion of Scotland in 933. Anlaf next appears as his father-in-law's ally at Brunanburh in 937. In 943, after his cousin Anlaf Godfrithsson's death, we find him ruling in Northumberland with Ræginald Godfrithsson. When Edmund conquered the five boroughs, Anlaf opposed him, and took Tamworth by storm, but being beset in Leicester he made peace with the English king. In 944, however, Edmund drove both his godsons from their kingdom. But Anlaf again appeared in arms in 949, and was received by the people, till in 952 he was driven abroad for the last time by his turbulent subjects. He now ruled in Dublin for several years, and commanded at the great battle of Tara; but his defeat there by the high king of Ireland seems to have wrought a change in the old warrior, for he started the same year on a pilgrimage to Iona, where he died.

The famous legend of *Havelok the Dane*, extant in old English and French, contains a romantic account of the early years of Anlaf Cuaran, and long served to keep his fame alive in Northern England, especially in Grimsby, the port of Scandinavian shippers, which is fabled to have derived its name from one of the characters in the story. See the poem edited by Sir F. Madden and Mr. Skeat for the Early Eng. Text Society; *Ang.-Sax. Chron.*; Florence of Worcester, *Chron.* sub an. 937, &c.; Skene, *Celtic Scotland*, i. 352, &c.

Anlaf (or **Olaf**) **Godfrithsson** (*d.* 941), King of Dublin and Northumberland, succeeded his father as King of Dublin in 933. He came with a great force of Irish and Danes to the assistance of his cousin Anlaf Cuaran at the battle of Brunanburh, whence he fled, as the English song of triumph tells us, "over the dark water Dublin to seek." On the death of Athelstan he was called by the Northumbrians to rule over them, but he perished soon after of a grievous disease.

Anlaf Haraldson, Anlaf Trygveson. [Olaf.]

Annates, or First-Fruits, was the first year's income of newly-appointed archbishops and bishops which was exacted by the Pope before he would confirm the election. According to Blackstone, these payments were "part of the papal usurpations over the clergy of these kingdoms, first introduced by Pandulph, the Pope's legate, during the reigns of King John and Henry III." Frequent attempts were made to check the payment of such large sums to the court of Rome, and in 34 Ed. I., when there was great complaint of the oppressive manner in which the papal legate exacted them, the first-fruits were granted to the king for two years. It was not, however, until 1532 that a bill was brought in declaring, that whereas "annates had risen, grown, and increased by an uncharitable custom, grounded upon no good or just title, and the payment thereof was enforced by the restraint of bulls, against all equity and justice," the payment of such annates should be discontinued, and that any bishop making such payments should forfeit all his lands and goods to the

king, whilst any bishops whom the Pope refused to consecrate for non-payment of first-fruits, should be consecrated in England, and "should enjoy their spiritualities and temporalities as completely as if they had obtained their bulls from Rome." The operation of this Act, however, was suspended for a time, as Henry waited to see whether the Pope would grant him the wished-for divorce from Catherine of Aragon; on his refusal the rupture with Rome took place, and the statute was re-enacted 1534, whilst a clause was introduced providing that archbishops and bishops should not "be presented to the Bishop of Rome, otherwise called the Pope, for confirmation, or sue out any bulls at his court; but that they should be elected by *congé d'élire*." In consequence, the payment of episcopal first-fruits to the Pope ceased from this time.

Anne, Queen (*b.* Feb. 6, 1665, *s.* March 8, 1702, *d.* Aug. 1, 1714), the last of the Stuart sovereigns, was the second daughter of James II. (while Duke of York) and Anne Hyde. She was bred a Protestant by the express command of Charles II., under the care of Dr. Henry Compton, afterwards Bishop of London. While still very young, her hand was sought by George Louis, electoral prince of Hanover, who eventually succeeded her on the English throne; but in 1683 she married George, brother of Christian V., of Denmark. Prince George was a personage completely without talent, capacity, or ambition, so that throughout his life his political position was altogether insignificant. Already, before her marriage, Anne had conceived what were, perhaps, the two strongest emotions of her life. The teaching of Compton, a zealous Anglican, who had suffered for the cause of Church and King in the rebellion, had made her a steadfast and devoted adherent of the Church of England. The design of altering the succession to the throne, on condition that Anne would become a Roman Catholic, entertained by the French and English courts, was nullified by the steady attachment of the princess to the Protestant faith; and Anne had already conceived that violent affection for Sarah Jennings, who became in 1678 the wife of John Churchill [Marlborough], which lasted during the greater portion of her life. It was owing to the Churchill influence chiefly that Anne consented to notify to William of Orange her approval of his landing, and that in the crisis of affairs she fled from Westminster to Dorset's house in Epping Forest. In spite of the efforts of her uncle, Clarendon, she made no objection to the accession of William III. and Mary. She was herself declared heir to the throne, failing issue to the sovereigns, and an allowance of £20,000 settled on her. Soon after the Revolution she gave birth to William, Duke of Gloucester, the only one of her numerous children who survived infancy and he died in 1700 at the age of eleven. Anne gradually became completely estranged from the king and queen, and a party, of which the Churchills were the heads, was formed about her in opposition, and came to be known as the "Princess Party." One of the points this party constantly pressed forward was an increase in Anne's income. In 1691, Anne's estrangement from the king went so far that she wrote a letter to James II., begging his forgiveness. On the disgrace of Marlborough, in 1692, Anne quarrelled with her sister, the queen; her guard of honour was taken from her, and she was treated with injudicious coldness and disrespect. After the death of Mary a formal reconciliation was made, through the mediation of Somers, but there was little friendship on either side. Anne resided at St. James's Palace during the remainder of William's reign, with some of the state befitting the heiress to the throne.

With the death of William, Anne became queen, and reigned over England during a period of twelve years crowded with important events, and singularly distinguished by illustrious men. The earlier portion of the period is that in which the influence of the Marlboroughs prevailed; in the second that of their opponents was predominant. By the year 1702 the Tories, Godolphin, Nottingham, Normanby, and Pembroke, had supplanted the great Whig ministers, who were chiefly responsible for the Revolution settlement. The war was entered upon with vigour, under the auspices of Marlborough and Godolphin; a commission was appointed to draw up terms of union between England and Scotland; and the union of the two rival East India Companies accomplished. The chief military events of the year were the capture of Venloo, Ruremond, and Liège, and the expedition against Vigo Bay. In 1703 violent opposition was offered in the Scotch Parliament to the Union scheme. The Methuen Treaty was concluded with Portugal. Queen Anne's Bounty, for the augmentation of the livings of the poorer clergy, was instituted. Next year some changes occurred in the ministry. The High Tories, Nottingham, Jersey, and Seymour, who thwarted Marlborough's war policy, were dismissed, and their places supplied by the Moderate Tories, Harley and St. John. In July Gibraltar was captured, and Marlborough won the great battle of Blenheim in August. An attempt to tack the Occasional Conformity Act to the Land Tax Bill was defeated in the Commons. The Aylesbury election case threatened a permanent breach between the two bodies of the Legislature. In 1705, Peterborough, in Spain, captured Barcelona, and established the authority of Charles II. in Catalonia and Valencia. Commissioners were appointed by

the Scotch Parliament to discuss the terms of the Union in London. It was gradually becoming evident that Marlborough would have to rely on a Whig ministry. In 1706 the chief event was the consummation of the Union with Scotland. The labours of the commission lasted through the year, and the royal assent was given in March of the following year. Marlborough gained the battle of Ramillies, thereby driving the French from the Netherlands; but in Spain Charles II. had to evacuate Madrid. Mrs. Hill now began to supplant the Duchess of Marlborough in the royal favour, and the influence of Harley commenced to be appreciable. He instituted a series of intrigues in company with St. John, with a view to drive the Whig ministers from office. Meanwhile, Louis had made offers for peace, which were rejected. In the following year, Harley's intrigues, which took the form of an attack on the naval administration, were discovered, and he was forced to resign. On the failure of a composite ministry, the Whig junto came into power. The military events of the year were unfortunate. In Spain the allies were utterly defeated at Almanza; nor was Eugene's attack on Toulon successful. In 1708 the Pretender made an unsuccessful expedition to Scotland; and Marlborough, in Flanders, gained a great victory at Oudenarde. The queen suffered great grief from the loss of her husband, to whom she was sincerely attached. Meanwhile, it was evident that the Whig ministry was insecure. Once more Louis offered to treat. His terms were rejected; and Marlborough won a bloody victory at Malplaquet. In 1710 important changes took place at home. Mrs. Hill, now Mrs. Masham, had completely supplanted the Duchess of Marlborough in the royal favour. The nation was weary of the war; and the injudicious prosecution of Dr. Sacheverell by the Whig ministry produced a violent outcry against them. Sunderland and Godolphin were dismissed, and Harley was entrusted with the formation of a Tory ministry. The conference at Gertruydenberg resulted in nothing. In Spain the allies gained victories at Almenara and Saragossa, and Charles was once more established in Madrid; but these results were neutralised by the defeat of Stanhope at Brihuega. It soon became evident that the new ministry had determined on a peace policy, and that some of them, at all events, were willing that the Stuarts should be restored. The chief event at home in 1711 was the formation of the South Sea Company. Harley, now exceedingly popular on account of Guiscard's attempt to stab him, rapidly opened negotiations for peace. Marlborough's campaign in the year was resultless. On his return he was violently attacked in Parliament, and deprived of his offices. Twelve new peers were created, in order to "swamp" the majority in the House of Lords. In 1712 Ormonde was placed in command of the army, with instructions to attempt nothing. The conference was opened at Utrecht, and the terms of peace were laid before the House. In July Ormonde separated from the allies. Marlborough quitted England in November, and remained abroad until the queen's death. The Treaty of Utrecht was signed in March, 1713. Meanwhile, the failing health of the queen made the succession question open. Harley was evidently unwilling to consent to a return of the Stuarts; but no such scruples restrained St. John, now Viscount Bolingbroke. The remodelling of the army was entrusted to Ormonde, but the scheme failed owing to the neglect of Harley to supply the necessary funds. As a blind, Bolingbroke introduced into the House a proposition that the Protestant succession was in no danger. The design of the Whigs to bring the Electoral Prince over to England was thwarted by the wise caution of George, and by the evident dislike of the queen to such a step. Bolingbroke now saw that he must drive Harley from office; and he therefore introduced his Schism Bill, which Harley, who was of Low Church principles, could not support. He was accordingly dismissed. Everything was now in Bolingbroke's favour, but his plans were foiled by the fatal illness of the queen. As she lay on her death-bed, she was induced by a deputation of the Council to entrust the Lord Treasurer's staff to Shrewsbury, now firm in his attachment to the house of Hanover. There is considerable reason, nevertheless, to believe that Anne would have consented to her brother's succession to the throne if only he would have changed his religion.

Anne was very popular with the nation, but this, perhaps, was rather due to the fact that she was the last of the dynasty, which, in spite of its faults, retained a strong hold on the sympathies of Englishmen, than to any special merits of her own. She was a woman of somewhat narrow intellect, violent prejudices, and weak judgment. Her strongest political passions were devoted attachment to the Established Church, and dislike to the Whigs, whom she regarded as the enemies of legitimacy and of royalty itself; but, except when her prejudices and her obstinacy were roused, she had little strength of will, and was easily led by her female favourites. While she was under the fascination of the Duchess of Marlborough, she lent herself readily to the great schemes of the duke; when, subsequently, the influence of Abigail Hill was completely established over her, she allowed herself with no less willingness to countenance the projects of Harley. Of taste and wit she had little, and she showed scarcely any conception of the great intellectual movement which has rendered her reign an illustrious period in English literary history. She had, however,

some compensating qualities. Her private life was exemplary and excellent; she was a good wife and a devoted mother. Her long and much-tried friendship with her haughty favourite was, at any rate, a testimony of the goodness of her heart and the strength of her affections. "Scarce any person," says Lord Stanhope, "ever endured more for a friend, or from a friend." As applied to her private character, at least, the familiar appellation of "good" Queen Anne is, perhaps, not undeserved.

Boyer, *Annals*, and Burnet, *Hist. of his Own Times*, both valuable, but both to be used with care, as being the works of violent Whig partisans; Macpherson, *Stuart Papers;* Coxe, *Memoirs of Marlborough;* Mrs. Thomson, *Memoirs of the Duchess of Marlborough, and of the Court of Queen Anne*, 1839; *Private Correspondence of the Duchess of Marlborough*, 1838; Cobbett, *Parliamentary Hist.;* W. Wilson, *Life of Defoe*, 1830; Lamberty, *Mémoires;* Tindal's *Rapin's Hist. of Eng.;* Swift's works (esp. *Journal to Stella, Inquiry into the Conduct of the Last Ministry*, and *Thoughts on the State of the Nation*), and *The History of the Last Four Years of Queen Anne*, generally ascribed to him, are the ablest expression of the Tory view; *see* also Torcy, *Mémoires;* and Bolingbroke, *Correspondence.*

There are good modern histories of England during Queen Anne's reign, by Lord Stanhope (1870), Mr. Wyon (1876), and Mr. T. H. Burton (1880); and a sketch in Mr. Lecky's *Hist. of the Eighteenth Century.* For Anne's personal history, *see* Miss Strickland's *Lives of the Queens of England.* [L. C. S.]

Anne Boleyn, Queen, second wife of Henry VIII. (*b.* 1507, *d.* 1536), was the daughter of Sir Thomas Boleyn, who married the Lady Elizabeth Howard, daughter of the Duke of Norfolk. She was in her youth taken by her father to the French court, but returned in 1522. She is described as a little lively brunette, with long black hair and beautiful eyes. She was the object of much flirtation in the English court, and Henry VIII., beginning from idle gallantry, advanced to an uncontrollable passion for her. Honours and emoluments were showered upon her father. At last, in 1527, Henry VIII. resolved to divorce Catherine that he might marry Anne, whom he lodged magnificently in his palace. The momentous proceedings to obtain a divorce were entrusted to the charge of Wolsey, and when, in 1529, his failure was manifest, his fall rapidly followed. Henry VIII. still pursued his efforts to obtain a divorce, and meanwhile went about the country in company with Anne Boleyn. This created much indignation amongst the people, and the mode of life of the King and Anne Boleyn was generally regarded as dishonourable. The vacillation of Pope Clement VII. had lasted too long for his firmness to be successful; when, at the end of 1532, he issued a brief, bidding Henry to take back Catherine, and forbidding him to marry Anne Boleyn, Henry VIII. had gone too far to retrace his steps. On Jan. 25, 1533, he was privately married, and the new Archbishop (Cranmer) pronounced his divorce from Catherine. The marriage with Anne was then avowed, and confirmed by the archbishop, and the new queen was crowned in June. On Sept. 7 she gave birth to a daughter, Elizabeth. But Anne Boleyn had but a brief enjoyment of the position for which she had waited so long. On January 7th, 1536, Catharine of Aragon died, and Anne Boleyn could not conceal her delight. Shortly afterwards she brought into the world a dead child, to the king's great disappointment, as he wished for a male heir. He looked on Anne's conduct with suspicion. The lightheartedness and brilliancy which had once attracted him now seemed to be culpable frivolity. On May-day the king abruptly left some games at which he was present with the queen, and on the next day Anne was committed to the Tower on the charge of treason and adultery. Her brother, Lord Rochford, Sir Henry Norris, Smeaton a musician, and Brereton and Weston, gentlemen of the bedchamber, were apprehended as her accomplices. Smeaton and Norris made some confessions of guilt, but it is hard to estimate how far they were true. That Anne was frivolous, and had behaved with some indecorum, may be admitted; but opinions must continue to differ as to the degree of her guilt. She was arraigned before a commission of twenty-seven peers, presided over by the Duke of Norfolk. The evidence of the confessions was regarded as sufficient for her condemnation. Cranmer was induced to declare her marriage null and void, and on May 19, 1536, Anne Boleyn was beheaded.

Calendar of State Papers of Henry VIII., with Mr. Brewer's Introd. to vol. iv.; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.;* Strickland, *Lives of the Queens of England*, vol. iv.; Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.*, vol. v. [M. C.]

Anne, Daughter of Edward IV. (*b.* 1475, *d.* 1511), was married in 1495 to Lord Thomas Howard, son of the Earl of Surrey, by whom she had one son, who died in infancy.

Anne, Daughter of Richard, Duke of York (*d.* 1475), was married first to Henry Holland, Duke of Exeter (q.v.), from whom she was divorced, and secondly to Sir Thomas St. Leger.

Anne Neville, Queen (*b.* 1454, *d.* 1485), wife of Richard III., was the younger daughter of Richard Neville, the great Earl of Warwick. In 1470 she was betrothed (though it is doubtful whether she was actually married) to Edward, Prince of Wales, son of Henry VI. After his death at Tewkesbury, in 1471, she was sought in marriage by Richard, then Duke of Gloucester. Clarence, who had married her sister Isabel, strongly opposed the match, and disguised her as a cookmaid; but she was discovered by Richard, married to him in 1473, and bore him a son in 1474. In 1483 she was crowned queen with Richard. In 1484 her young son died, "an unhappy death," according to the Continuator of the

Croyland Chronicle; and the queen did not long survive him, dying on March 16, 1485.

Cont. Croyland Chron.; the *Chronicles* of Rous, Hall, and Holinshed; Strickland, *Queens of Eng.*, ii. 373. [M. C.]

Anne of Bohemia, QUEEN (*b.* 1366, *d.* 1394), wife of Richard II., the daughter of the Emperor Charles IV., was married to Richard in 1382. Her sweet and gentle disposition earned for her the title of "Good Queen Anne," and her influence seems to have had some effect in mitigating the violence and disorder of her husband's reign. It is said that the cruel reprisals taken on the Kentish revolters were discontinued at her intercession; and that the quarrel between the king and the citizens of London, which culminated in the riot of 1392, was healed by her mediation. In one instance only does her influence appear to have been bad. She took an active part in attempting to bring about the divorce of the king's favourite, De Vere, Earl of Oxford, from his wife, who was connected with several of the great noble families, in order that he might marry one of her German ladies, "the landgravine," as Froissart calls her. Anne of Bohemia was said to be well versed in the Bible, and to have read it in a Bohemian or German version; and she and her attendants, English and Bohemian, are said to have looked with considerable favour on Wiclif. The proscriptions of the "merciless" Parliament of 1386 were specially directed against the queen's attendants, and King Richard afterwards declared, at the trial of the Earl of Arundel (see *State Trials*, vol. i.) that the queen was three hours on her knees before the earl, pleading with tears for the life of John Calverley, one of her esquires. There is little doubt that the connection between England and Bohemia, brought about by Anne's marriage, must have done much to make the writings of Wiclif better known on the Continent, and especially in Germany.

Walsingham, *Hist. Anglic.*, ii. 48, 119, 153, &c.; Strickland, *Queens of England*, i. 591. [S. J. L.]

Anne of Burgundy (*d.* 1432) was the daughter of John Sans Peur and sister of Philip the Good, Duke of Burgundy. She was married in 1423 to John, Duke of Bedford (q.v.).

Anne of Cleves, QUEEN (*b.* 1515, *d.* 1557), fourth wife of Henry VIII., was the daughter of John, third Duke of Cleves, by Marie, daughter of William, Duke of Jülich, Berg, and Ravensberg. Anxious to secure for England the goodwill of the Schmalcaldic League, Thomas Cromwell, after the death of Jane Seymour, proposed to Henry an alliance with the German Protestant princes by means of a marriage with Anne of Cleves; and the king, who was greatly pleased with a portrait he received of his intended bride, willingly lent himself to Cromwell's proposition. Landing at Deal Dec. 27, 1539, Anne proceeded to Rochester, where Henry first saw her. Her person, however, failed altogether to come up to the expectations he had formed from her portrait. He called a council to consider if there was any possibility of getting out of the marriage engagement to her without involving himself in a quarrel with her family. A sort of prior contract between Anne and Francis, son of the Duke of Lorraine, was, however, the only respectable objection to the marriage that could be raised; and this, when named to the Duke of Cleves's ambassadors, was completely disposed of by an offer on their part to produce a formal renunciation of the contract. Henry was therefore obliged to submit to the distasteful marriage, which was celebrated at Greenwich on January 6, 1540. For a time Henry was able to treat his queen with a fair show of respect; but after the execution of Cromwell, the original proposer of the marriage, he sought no longer to conceal his feeling of aversion for her. The marriage was finally annulled, and the decision to that effect duly ratified by Parliament, on three grounds, viz. (1) that she had been previously contracted to the Duke of Lorraine; (2) that he, Henry, had not *inwardly* given his consent; (3) that the marriage had never been consummated. As some consolation to Anne for this loss of position, it was arranged that she should be treated as an adopted sister, and that she should enjoy the honours of precedence next to the queen and the king's daughter. These terms, and the further promise of an annual settlement of £3,000, procured Anne's willing assent to the proposed divorce. She passed the remainder of her days in England, where she died at her palace of Chelsea, July 16, 1557. By Queen Mary's orders her funeral was solemnised in Westminster Abbey with regal splendour.

Strype, *Memorials*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.* [S. J. L.]

Anne of Denmark, QUEEN (*b.* 1574, *d.* 1619), wife of James VI. of Scotland and I. of England, was the second daughter of Frederick II., King of Denmark, and was married to James in 1589. She seems to have been at one time a Roman Catholic, and at her coronation as Queen of England she refused to receive the sacrament according to the rites of the English Church. But she took little part in politics, and the Roman Catholic party quickly found it was useless to hope for anything from her. With the exception of some occasional interference in the cause of a favourite, she seems to have contented herself with entertaining the king and his courtiers with balls and masques. She was never on very good terms with her husband, and took great delight in making him jealous and exposing him to ridicule. She is reported to have been on rather intimate terms both

with the Earl of Murray, who was assassinated (it is suggested with the king's connivance) by the Earl of Huntley, and with Alexander Ruthven, brother of the Earl of Gowrie, who met with a similar fate. The pleasantest fact that is recorded about her is her intercession for Sir Walter Raleigh's life. Her character has been very differently represented, but perhaps Hume's estimate, that she was "a woman eminent neither for her vices nor her virtues," is on the whole the fairest one.

Strickland, *Queens of Eng.*; Jesse, *Mem. of the Stuarts*; Aikin, *Court of James I.*

Annesley Case, The (1743), arose out of a disputed claim to the honours and estates of the Anglesey peerage. Soon after the assumption of the title by Richard, sixth earl, James Annesley, who professed to be the son of Lord Altham, elder brother of the earl, laid claim to the title and estates. The claimant, who was popularly known as "the unfortunate young nobleman," stated that he had been kidnapped in infancy by his uncle's orders, and sent to the American colonies. On November 11, 1743, he commenced an action against his uncle in the Irish Court of Exchequer. The result of the trial (which was said to have been the longest known up to that time) was that he gained a verdict, but made no further effort to obtain his title. On the death of Richard, sixth earl, in 1761, the right of his son Arthur to succeed him was disputed. The Irish House of Lords confirmed his title. The English House of Lords, however, held that the earldom of Anglesey had expired with the father of this nobleman, who, however, continued to sit in the Irish Parliament as Viscount Valentia, and was subsequently created Earl of Mountmorris.

State Trials, xvii. 1139, &c.; *Gentleman's Magazine*, vol. xiii.

Annesley's Case (1719) produced an important constitutional dispute between the English and the Irish Houses of Lords. A suit for the possession of certain lands in Kildare, between Hester Sherlock and Maurice Annesley, had been decided in favour of the latter by the Irish Court of Exchequer. On appeal, the Irish House of Lords reversed the decision. This might have been considered final; but Annesley appealed to the English House of Lords, who affirmed the judgment of the Court of Exchequer, and ordered Annesley to be put in possession of the estate. The court made an order accordingly, but the Sheriff of Kildare refused to execute it. He was thereupon fined £1,200, and brought his case before the Irish House of Lords. That body resolved, after taking the opinions of the judges, that the final right of appeal from the Irish courts lay with them, and ordered the Barons of the Exchequer into custody for acting on the decision of the English House. The latter, however, caused a Bill to be brought in (which passed by a majority of 63), asserting the inferior position of the Irish House of Lords, and depriving it of all appellate jurisdiction whatsoever. This Act was a mere stretch of power, for the Irish Lords had frequently entertained both writs of error and appeals in equity.

Parliamentary Hist., vii. 642; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*, v., chap. xviii.; Lecky, *Hist. of Eng.*, ii. 419.

Annuities are certain sums of money paid yearly, and are charged upon the person or personal estate of the individual from whom they are due. If an annuity is charged upon real estate it is called a rent charge. Before the reign of Anne the annuities which had been granted by the crown as a reward for services performed, or for other reasons, had been charged upon the hereditary revenues, and it had been held that the king had power, in law, to bind his successors. On the accession of Queen Anne an Act was passed to restrain the alienation of any portion of the hereditary revenues for a longer period than the life of the reigning sovereign; so that it became the practice to re-grant annuities and pensions at the beginning of a fresh reign. On the establishment of a civil list under George III., government annuities were charged on it instead of on the hereditary revenues; and the indiscriminate granting of pensions by the crown was checked by Act of Parliament, 1782, the Irish annuities being regulated in 1793, and the Scotch in 1810. In 1837 the right of the crown to grant pensions was restricted to £1,200 a year, and to "such persons as have just claims on the royal beneficence." The system of granting annuities as a political bribe, which had been much in favour under the Stuarts, was done away with in 1705, when holders of government annuities were declared incapable of sitting in Parliament, though the Act was occasionally evaded by the granting of secret pensions. The system of raising government loans by means of annuities began in 1692, when the "Million Act" empowered the raising of that sum for the expenses of the French war by means of a tontine annuity, and several similar statutes were passed during the war of Queen Anne's reign. During the Austrian Succession and Seven Years' Wars, government annuities were frequently granted by way of bonus or premium to the subscribers of government loans. In 1773 a measure was passed through the House of Commons, under the auspices of Burke, to enable the working classes to invest their savings in the purchase of deferred annuities, but it was rejected by the Lords. In 1779 the government was authorised to raise £7,000,000 by annuity. "The government of that period," says Mr. Walford, "was driven to great extremities for raising money; nearly every session one or two Annuity Acts were passed, generally accompanied by a lottery." Acts were passed on the subject in 1808, 1817, and

1853; the last named, besides consolidating and amending the law on government annuities, inaugurated the system of granting annuities for small amounts through the medium of Savings Banks.

May, *Const. Hist.*; Walford's *Insurance Cyclopædia* contains an elaborate and exhaustive article, embracing both public and private annuities. Statutes 4 W. & M., c. 3; 19 Geo. III., c. 18; 48 Geo. III., c. 142; 16 and 17 Vict., c. 45.

[S. J. L.]

Anselm, St. (*b.* 1033, *d.* 1109), Archbishop of Canterbury, was born at or near Aosta. His father, a vassal of Maurienne, was a man of some wealth and position, but of unthrifty habits and violent temper. When only fifteen Anselm ardently desired to enter the monastic life, but his father refused his consent. A severe illness did not soften the old man, and when his mother's death removed the last barrier to the father's tyranny, Anselm crossed the Alps with a single attendant to seek a career and escape his father's oppression. He spent three years in Burgundy, and was thence attracted to Normandy. After a sojourn at Avranches, where Lanfranc had once taught, Anselm removed to Bec, now flourishing under Lanfranc as prior. After a severe course of study and discipline he took the vows, at the age of twenty-seven. Three years later he was elected prior on Lanfranc removing to Caen. His administration made Bec inferior only to Cluny in general repute and superior to it in learning. Not only did Bec turn out great scholars, but Anselm infused a high intellectual tone into the whole monastery. He now published his famous *Proslogion* and *Monologion*, and in 1078, when Herlwin died, was made abbot. This office led to several visits to England, to look after the estates Bec had obtained from the Conqueror. These visits made him widely known among all classes of Englishmen. He renewed his connection with Lanfranc, now archbishop, became acquainted with Eadmer of Canterbury, his future biographer, and established cordial relations with Earl Hugh of Chester. He had a good word to say for English saints like Alphege when Lanfranc denied their claims to martyrdom. Lanfranc died in 1089, and everyone recognised in Anselm the one man who could, as at Bec, continue Lanfranc's work and keep William II. in check. But William kept the see vacant four years, to secure, with the rich temporalities, freedom from unpleasant advice. In 1092 Anselm again visited England, very unwillingly, lest he should be accused of ambition, but overcome at last by the importunity for spiritual consolation of Earl Hugh, now very ill. Anselm was still in England when a sudden illness stirred Rufus's sluggish conscience, and he resolved to atone for his past crimes by making the Abbot of Bec archbishop. Anselm was almost dragged before the sick king's bed, and after a show of resistance, ludicrous if not sincere, was positively forced to accept the office. But if archbishop he would maintain all the rights of his church. Only on William's promise to resign the temporalities, to listen to Anselm's advice in things spiritual, and to acknowledge Urban II. instead of the imperial anti-Pope Clement, did he submit to consecration (Dec. 4, 1093). William soon recovered, relapsed into his old ways, and quarrelled with Anselm. Anselm's present of 500 marks was scornfully rejected as inadequate. His desire for the convocation of a council to check the tide of profligacy and profanity was equally unheeded. At last William's refusal to acknowledge Urban, or to allow Anselm to go to Rome to receive the pallium from that Pope, led to a definite rupture. The Great Council of Rockingham failed to make Anselm give way to William; but the king ended the dispute himself by secretly acknowledging Urban, and getting from him Anselm's pallium. The fresh difficulty of Anselm's refusal to accept it from lay hands was got over by his taking it himself from the high altar of his cathedral. But within a year William brought him before the Curia Regis on a charge of inadequately fulfilling his feudal obligations in the Welsh war. Anselm now appealed to the Pope, wrung from Rufus a licence to travel, and left England in October, 1097. William at once seized on the estates of his see. At Rome, Anselm soon found that Urban, though very friendly, was too wary to quarrel with the English king. While in Italy he took part in two councils. At Bari he defended the double Procession against the Greeks. At the Lateran he shared in excommunicating all concerned with the sin of lay investiture. Tired of fruitless waiting, Anselm left Italy in the early summer of 1099, and lived chiefly at Lyons, till William's death and Henry's need of friends recalled him from exile. But though Henry had urged Anselm's immediate return, he required him before long to renew his homage, and be again "invested" with his archbishopric. Thus the investiture contest at last crossed over into England, but was conducted in a spirit different from that displayed by Gregory VII. and Henry IV. Anselm absolutely refused to yield; Henry insisted on prerogative and precedent; but king and prelate always treated each other with the utmost courtesy. An agreement to refer the matter to the Pope led only to Paschal II.'s strong support of Anselm; and as Henry would not give way, the primate went into exile a second time, in 1103. In 1105 Anselm felt compelled to threaten excommunication, but his ultimatum led to an interview and reconciliation with Henry, when the famous compromise was devised which half a generation later was accepted at Worms by Pope and Emperor. In 1106 Anselm returned. He gave canonical consecration to the bishops irregularly appointed during the rupture, and efficiently aided Henry against

the feudalists. He found time to compose a treatise on the Agreement of Grace and Predestination with Free Will. He died April 21, 1109, aged seventy-six, and was buried next to Lanfranc at Canterbury. Not till the end of the fifteenth century did he receive formal canonisation from the worst of popes, Alexander VI.; but long before this Dante had placed him in paradise among the greatest saints of Christendom. Anselm's personal character was lofty and pure. But the saint in private life was also a churchman and a politician of high rank, the successful governor of a great abbey and greater see, and the author of the investiture compromise. He represented the highest ideals of mediæval Christendom. His contest with William and Henry was to him a struggle for principle and divine law against mere force and worldliness. That it involved the subordination of budding nationality to dying cosmopolitanism, the subjection of the state to a spiritual tyranny as ruthless as that of William, could not be seen by Anselm.

As the precursor of at least one side of scholastic philosophy, Anselm has an equal claim to fame. Although his unsystematic treatises became unduly neglected when brought into competition with the vast and methodical tractates of the later schoolmen, he, more than anyone else, gave that impulse to justify Scripture and the Church by reason and dialectic, which was the dominant idea of the most characteristic school of mediæval philosophy. In the *Monologion*, he tried to "elicit from the necessity of reason, without the aid of Scripture, the idea of God and the real foundation of it," by recourse to the Platonic theory of "ideas," as expressed by St. Augustine. In the *Proslogion* he pursues the same line still further, and anticipates Descartes' famous principle "that the idea of God in the human mind necessarily involves the reality of that idea." His *Cur Deus Homo* attempts to establish a logical and rational theory of the Incarnation, and has profoundly influenced all subsequent speculation on that subject. His crude realism passed away with the advent of more systematic thinking, but the impulse he gave remained permanent.

The best editions of Anselm's works are those of Dom Gerberon (Paris, 1675) and Migne (*Patrologiæ Cursus Completus*). *Cur Deus Homo* has been translated into English (Oxford, 1858), and the *Monologion* and *Proslogion* into French, with comments, in Bonchitté's *Rationalisme Chrétien* (Paris, 1842). Some of the *Meditations* have been done into English by Dr. Pusey.

Eadmer's *Vita Anselmi* and *Historia Novella* (printed in Migne, *Patrolog.*, v. 159) are our great sources for the personal and political career of Anselm. After 1093 his history is the history of the time, and much therefore can be got from the general authorities for the period. They are fully and elaborately worked up in Mr. Freeman's *William Rufus*. Dean Church's *Saint Anselm* is the best general account of him in English, better than that in Dean Hook's *Lives of the Archbishops of Canterbury*. Church's preface enumerates the chief modern works on Anselm. Professor Hasse's *Anselm von Canterbury* is full and careful. Professor Franck's work is shorter and more meagre. M. Charles de Rémusat's *Saint Anselme de Cantorbéry* is of great importance. There are other accounts by Mohler, Saisset, and Montalembert. An elaborate, though not altogether satisfactory, *Life* has been published (1883) by Mr. M. Rule.

[T. F. T.]

Anson, George, 1st Baron (*b.* 1697, *d.* 1762), in 1716 became second lieutenant of H.M.S. *Hampshire*, and during the two following years sailed under Admiral Byng in the Mediterranean. In 1724 he attained the rank of post-captain. He visited South Carolina, and founded the town of Anson (1733). In 1740 he was despatched with six vessels to sail round Cape Horn and rifle the shores of Peru. Beset by terrible storms, he appointed the island of Juan Fernandez as a rendezvous for his ships. Next scurvy broke out. The vessels at length arrived at the island, except the *Wager*, which was wrecked. The Spanish fleet sent to attack them was driven back into the Rio de la Plata. Foiled in his attempt to catch the Spanish treasure ship, Anson sailed westward from America with the *Centurion*, his sole remaining ship, and arrived at Spithead in June, 1744, after an absence of three years and nine months, during which he had circumnavigated the globe. He was at once appointed Rear-Admiral of the Blue and Commissioner of the Admiralty. In 1746 he was made Vice-Admiral. In the following year he commanded the Channel squadron, and defeated De la Jonquière off Cape Finisterre. For this exploit he was raised to the peerage. In 1749 he became Vice-Admiral of Great Britain, and in 1751 First Commissioner of the Admiralty. He commanded at the descent on Cherbourg in 1758. Anson's talents were of a rather mediocre order, and scarcely bore a proportion to the honours and success he attained. He was dull and somewhat unready in business, so that it was said of him after his famous expedition that he had been round the world but never in it. He was, however, a man of great courage, coolness, and determination.

Waldegrave, *Memoirs; Anson's Voyage*, compiled from his papers soon after his return in 1744, and frequently reprinted; D. L. Purvis, *English Circumnavigators*, 1874.

Anstruther, Sir Robert (*b.* 1768, *d.* 1809), was quartermaster-general to Sir Ralph Abercromby's army in Egypt, in the campaign of 1800. In 1808 he went to Portugal with the reinforcements for Sir Arthur Wellesley's division, and was present at the battle of Vimiera, in command of a brigade. In the subsequent campaign of this year he commanded the rear-guard of Sir John Moore's army during the retreat. He died of exhaustion and fatigue, brought on by his exertions

during the campaign, the day after the army arrived at Corunna, and was buried at that city by the side of his commander.

Napier, *Peninsular War*.

Anti-Corn-Law League. [Corn Laws.]

Antigua, the most important of the Leeward Islands, was discovered by Columbus in 1493. In 1632 an English settlement was founded in the island by Sir Thomas Warner, a further influx of colonists from Britain taking place in 1663, in which year a grant of the island was made to Lord Willoughby. In 1666 it was ravaged by a French expedition from Martinique, but by the Treaty of Breda, in the same year, was formally ceded to Britain. In 1710 an insurrection caused by the misconduct of the governor, Colonel Park, took place, and the governor was slain; in 1737 a proposed rebellion of the negroes was crushed before it came to anything. The emancipation of the slaves in 1834 was effected without any of the disturbances which took place in Jamaica. In 1871 Antigua became part of the Federation of the Leeward Islands, and is the residence of the governor-in-chief; even before that date it was a representative colony, its affairs being administered by a governor, a legislative council nominated by the crown, and an elective legislative assembly of fourteen members.

B. Edwards, *Hist. of West Indies*; R. M. Martin, *Hist. of the British Colonies*, vol. ii.

Anti-Jacobin, The, was a magazine established in Nov., 1797, and brought out weekly until the following July, under the editorship of William Gifford. The object of the paper was mainly political, being intended to satirise the Jacobin principles of the Fox section of the Whigs. The most distinguished of its contributors were John Hookham Frere and George Canning, the latter of whom was the author of the celebrated story of the "Needy Knife Grinder." Though its object was political, it contained much parody of the literature of the day, especially of Southey and Darwin, both of whom afforded fertile subjects for Canning's wit. The *Anti-Jacobin* as at first projected had but a short life. The first number was published Nov. 20, 1797, and the last on July 9 in the following year. It was, however, continued on a new plan, with less of a political and more of a literary character, until 1818. Some of the papers that appeared in it have frequently been reprinted.

Anti-Slavery Association. [Slavery, Abolition of.]

Antrim, Alexander Macdonnell, 3rd Earl of (*b.* 1615, *d.* 1699), was a Roman Catholic, and an active supporter in Ireland of James II. after the Revolution. He was sent with 1,200 men to occupy Londonderry, but the inhabitants shut the gates in his face, and he thought it prudent to retire to Coleraine. At the battle of the Boyne his cavalry fled, without striking a blow, before the enemy. Lord Antrim was attainted of high treason, but was subsequently included in the provisions of the Treaty of Limerick, and his honours and estates were restored to him.

Antrim, Randal Macdonnell, Marquis of (*d.* 1682), was employed in 1641 to gain over the Irish army, and he greatly ingratiated himself with the Catholics. Though a Catholic and a Cavalier, he was eager to fight the Ulster rebels, and offered his aid to Monroe, who, however, treacherously seized him, and kept him a prisoner for eight months, when he escaped, joined Owen O'Neil, and became one of the Kilkenny Council, pretending that he would bring 10,000 men over to England. The 1,500 men under Kolkitto who joined Montrose in 1644 were sent by him. Clarendon says of him that he was a narrow-minded and vain man, and aspired to supplant Ormonde as a commander, though wholly unfit for the post.

Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion*; Froude, *Eng. in Ireland*.

Antwerp, The Surrender of (1706), was an important advantage for the allies in the War of the Spanish Succession. The town was the key to the Scheldt fortresses, and in fact commanded the whole of Brabant and West Flanders. "It might otherwise be described," says Mr. Burton, "as representing in enlargement the relation of its own citadel to the minor fortified works attached to its walls, since it was the centre of convergence to a group of fortified towns bound to it by an apparatus of dykes and canals." Marlborough was so convinced of its importance that he termed his plans against it "the great design." The fortress had previously been occupied by Boufflers, who had driven Opdam from it. After the battle of Ramillies, Cadogan was sent to summon the town. Marlborough awaited the news with anxiety, as a siege would cause great delay. The inhabitants were, however, to a man in favour of their new king, and the French were therefore compelled to give up the town. For the remainder of the war it remained in the hands of the allies.

Coxe, *Marlborough*; Burton, *Reign of Queen Anne*; Wyon, *Reign of Anne*.

Antwerp, Expedition against (1809). [Walcheren Expedition.]

Appa Sahib was the nephew of Ragojee Bhonslah [Mahrattas], on whose death (1816) he became regent of Nagpore, in consequence of the idiotcy of the heir, Passwajee. Being opposed by a powerful faction in the court and zenana, he turned to the English, and a subsidiary treaty was concluded May 27, 1816, which provided that a force of 6,000 infantry, and a regiment of cavalry, together with the

due proportion of artillery, should be subsidised by the Nagpore state at an expense of seven lacs and a half per annum; and that the rajah should engage in no foreign negotiation without the concurrence of the British government. On Feb. 1, 1817, Passwajee was strangled by order of Appa Sahib, who immediately mounted the throne with the title of Madajee Bhonslah. Anxious to be freed from dependence, he entered into the Mahratta confederacy against the English, while professing the most inviolable attachment to the latter. On hearing of the attack made on Mr. Elphinstone by Bajee Rao on Nov. 5, he inveighed against such perfidy in very strong terms, though at the same time he was preparing his resources for a treacherous attack on the English residency. This actually took place soon after, and was followed by the gallant defence of the Tulabuldee hills by the British against the forces of the rajah, which terminated in his complete defeat. On Dec. 15 the Resident was able to require the rajah to surrender at discretion, on the understanding that his throne would be restored to him. He was restored to his dignities Jan. 8, 1818; but again proving treacherous, was once more dethroned, and died a pensioner on the bounty of Runjeet Singh.

Mill, *Hist. of India* (Wilson's ed.), viii., ch. iv.—ix.

Appeal of Treason. [Treason.]

Appeals to Rome. [Papacy.]

Appellants, or **Lords Appellant,** was the name given to the nobles who in 1387 "appealed" of treason Richard II.'s ministers, De Vere, Neville, De la Pole, Tresilian, and Brember. When it was known that the king, with the aid of his supporters in various parts of the country and the citizens of London, was attempting to resume the full exercise of his authority, of which he had been deprived by the commission forced on him the previous year, the Duke of Gloucester, with a large body of troops, marched to London, and compelled him (Nov. 17) to receive a petition of complaint against the royal counsellors. On this proceeding he immediately fled. The Appellants exhibited the bill of impeachment in the Parliament which met in Feb., 1388, and, in spite of the protests of the judges, it was carried. Three of the ministers had already escaped from the kingdom; but Tresilian and Brember were arrested and put to death. The Appellants were five in number—the Duke of Gloucester, and the Earls of Derby, Nottingham, Warwick, and Arundel. [Richard II.; Gloucester, Thomas, Duke of.]

Appellate Jurisdiction is "the jurisdiction exercised by a court of justice at the instance of a person complaining of the decision of another court called, in reference to the court of appeal, the court below." Before the Norman Conquest no suit could be carried to a higher tribunal until it had been first heard in the Hundred Court; thence an appeal lay to the Shire Moot, and thence to the Witenagemot, which was the final court of appeal. Under the Norman kings, appeals were decided in the Curia Regis; while the appeal from the ordinary law courts under Henry II. lay to the sovereign as the source of justice, and to the *Concilium Ordinarium*. By degrees, however, petitions for redress were addressed to the Chancellor rather than the king; and in the reign of Edward III. the Court of Chancery was constituted as a Court of Equity, but not of appeal. The *Concilium Ordinarium* (and not the *Commune Concilium*) was for long the only court of appeal; by degrees its appellate jurisdiction passed to the House of Lords, whose power to hear common law appeals has never been questioned. In 1661, however, in the famous case of *Shirley* v. *Fagg*, the Commons denied that the Lords could hear appeals from equity; but this right, first asserted in the reign of Charles I., has never been attacked since. In 1358, the *Court of Exchequer Chamber* was created as an intermediate court of appeal between the Common Law Courts and the House of Lords; the powers of this court were extended in 1585, and reconstituted in 1831. Under Henry VIII., appeals from the ecclesiastical courts to Rome were forbidden under the penalty of præmunire, and appeals from the archbishops' courts were declared to lie to the king in Chancery, who was to appoint *Lords Delegates of Appeals* to hear appeals from the Admiralty, ecclesiastical, and baronial courts. In 1832 this appellate jurisdiction was transferred to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. By the Supreme Court of Judicature Act (36 & 37 Vict., c. 60) of 1873, the appellate functions of this committee, and of the Court of Exchequer Chamber, were transferred to the *High Court of Appeal* constituted by that Act, with appellate jurisdiction from all courts of common law and equity, and from the Palatine Courts of Durham and Lancaster. The final appeal was still left to the House of Lords. [Chancery; Exchequer Chamber; Lords, House of.]

Reeves, *Hist. of Eng. Law*; Stephen, *Commentaries*; H. Broom, *Const. Hist.* [F. S. P.]

Apprentices are persons bound by indentures to serve a master for a certain period, receiving in return for their services maintenance and instruction in their master's craft. The system of apprenticeship in England is of very ancient date, and probably was instituted as early as the trade gilds themselves. In mediæval times the principle of combination amongst members of one trade was universally recognised, and in

order to practise any craft it was necessary to become free of the company or gild of that craft. This freedom was obtained by serving an apprenticeship of so many years; and as the number of apprentices which each master was allowed to take was usually limited, a material check was placed upon the numbers of those who were privileged to exercise each trade. Although the system of apprenticeship existed in England from about the twelfth century, and is occasionally referred to in Acts of Parliament (*e.g.*, 12 Rich. II., c. 3), it was not until 1563 that the famous Statute of Apprentices was passed. By this Act no person was allowed to exercise a trade unless he had previously served a seven years' apprenticeship to it, though the restriction did not, of course, affect trades which were established in England after the passing of the statute. This Act was found very burdensome, and although it was judicially interpreted to apply only to towns, it was repealed in 1814 on the recommendation of a committee of the House of Commons; some reservations were, however, made "in favour of the customs and by-laws of the city of London and of other cities, and of corporations and companies lawfully constituted." In 1601 it was enacted that the overseers of a parish might bind pauper children as apprentices until their twenty-fourth year, but in 1728 the age was reduced to twenty-one. In 1845 an Act was passed which regulated the binding of boys apprenticed on board vessels, such boys to be between the ages of twelve and seventeen. The terms of apprenticeship in Ireland and Scotland were much less than in England, varying from five to three years, and in Scotland, says Adam Smith, "the corporation laws are less oppressive than in any part of Europe." Apprenticeship, though not now necessary, except in a few cases (as that of solicitors and the like), is frequently entered into by contract, the master being in all cases bound to provide necessary food, clothing, and lodging. The apprentices of the Elizabethan and Stuart periods were usually the sons of yeomen or tradesmen, and, being forbidden to wear the genteel rapier, carried a stout bat or club. Hence the cry when an uproar commenced of "'Prentices! clubs!" From the time of the Tudors the apprentices of London were the special "champions of mercantile jealousy arrayed against aristocratic arrogance; and are to be found in almost every London riot, until they were finally the conquerors at Marston Moor and Naseby."

Macpherson, *Annals of Commerce*, iii. 444, 607.

[L. C. S.]

Appropriation of Supplies. The successive maxims, the enforcement of which finally secured to the Commons the complete control of taxation, were: (1) that the Parliament alone could grant supplies, and the Commons alone originate such grants; (2) that their petitions for redress must be answered before supplies should be granted; (3) that the right to grant includes the right to decide the appropriation of the grant for definite purposes, and to demand the audit of its expenditure. The Parliament of the sixteenth century saw the two former of these claims constantly evaded by the arbitrary or underhand action of the crown. They began also to see that the way to counteract this, and to counteract at the same time the extravagance or dishonesty of the minister of the crown, was by putting in force the third claim. This had been suggested in the early struggles of the thirteenth century; as in 1237, when the crown offered to allow a committee of the Great Council to supervise the expenditure of the grant then asked for. The plan comes forward again in 1262 and in 1266; its importance, however, was not yet realised. No doubt under Edward I. it was felt to be enough that Parliament alone should make grants, while under Edward III., Parliament advanced to the principle of redress before supply; yet the principle of appropriation was, even in these reigns, plainly exhibited in the custom of explaining to the country in the writ of summons to Parliament what the specific purpose was of the grant about to be demanded, whether for a French, a Welsh, or a Scotch war, or for defence of the seas, or for protection against invasion. Indeed, under Edward III. the grant was commonly stated to be made for this particular purpose; while in 1377 the grant for defence of the seas is put by the Commons into the hands of the London citizens, Walworth and Philpot, to expend; and in 1390 is clearly displayed the distinction between the ordinary and the war expenditure, ten shillings and thirty shillings respectively being allotted to each, out of the forty shillings tax on every sack of wool. The principle thus established was fully accepted in the Lancastrian reigns. Tonnage and poundage, for instance, became the recognised appropriation for defence of the seas, as the household expenses were supposed to be provided out of the crown lands; and Fortescue wished the principle carried farther, so that the crown lands should be redeemed, and inalienably set apart for such extraordinary expenses as embassies, pensions, protection against invasion, &c. It was, in fact, the increasing poverty of the crown that directed attention to the distinction of the various heads of expenditure, and the need of a strict system of appropriation; and it was natural, therefore, that when the crown, in Yorkist and Tudor hands, became wealthy as well as despotic, these distinctions, and the appropriations among them, should be lost sight of. Parliament met but rarely; tonnage and poundage were granted for the king's life; benevolences filled up the royal coffers, already enriched by forfeitures; and

not till the reign of Charles II. is the control resumed by the old means—the first case being in 1665, when a grant was made for purposes of the war alone. After the Revolution, ministers brought in annual estimates of the sums required under different heads; and Fox's resolution in 1781 would have effected this still more completely, by making it illegal to issue any moneys not appropriated by Parliament. This has now become a constitutional rule, and in the annual estimates the sums asked of Parliament are specifically appropriated to their several purposes, and the Budget voted item by item. The principle has been completed by the reforms originated by Burke, which have reduced the Civil List to an amount fixed to meet the actual personal and royal expenses of the sovereign, and relieved him of many payments for national objects, so that Parliament no longer has schedules of crown debts to pay off at intervals, and its strict rights of appropriation now extend over crown expenses as over all other heads of public expenditure.

Sir John Fortescue, *On the Monarchy of England*; Gneist, *Das Self-government*; Gneist, *Verwaltungsrecht*; P. V. Smith, *The English Institutions*; and the Constitutional Histories of Stubbs, Hallam, and May. [A. L. S.]

Aquablanca, Peter of (*d.* 1268), was one of the numerous foreign ecclesiastics who thronged to England in Henry III.'s reign. In 1240 he was made Bishop of Hereford, and was one of the most obnoxious foreign advisers of the king. He was driven from his see by the barons in 1262, and his goods were sequestrated.

Aquitaine, The Duchy of, in the south of France, which comprised Guienne, Perigueux, Limoges, Auvergne, Saintonge, La Marche, Poitou and Gascony, besides smaller territories, was first brought into connection with England by the marriage of Henry II. with Eleanor, heiress of the last Duke of Aquitaine. John lost Poitou, but the rest of the province remained in the hands of the English king. By the Treaty of Abbeville, in 1259, Aquitaine became a fief, held by the King of England as a vassal of the French crown. For a short while in Edward I.'s reign, Aquitaine was occupied by the French; and one of the chief causes of the war with France in the reign of Edward III. was the attempt of Philip VI. to regain possession of the duchy. In 1360 the Treaty of Bretigny once more secured Aquitaine to the English king, with the addition of Poitou, but not including Auvergne. But the renewal of the war brought defeats and losses on the English, with the result that in 1374 nothing remained to them of Aquitaine but some small pieces of territory round Bayonne and Bordeaux. Henry V. won back the province, only for his son to lose everything; and the final result of the Hundred Years' War was the incorporation of Aquitaine into the French kingdom.

Freeman, *Historical Geography*.

Arabella Stuart, Lady (*b.* 1575, *d.* 1615), was the daughter of the Earl of Lennox, brother of Lord Darnley. Thus she was first cousin to James I. and great-granddaughter of Margaret, daughter of Henry VII. During her early life, Queen Elizabeth often spoke of Arabella as her possible successor, in case James did not conduct himself according to her satisfaction; and though on Elizabeth's death James I. succeeded to the English crown without opposition, there were some who maintained that Arabella, having been born in England, had a better title to the crown than James, who was an alien. [Stuart, Family of.] One of the objects of the Main Plot would seem to have been to depose James and place Arabella on the throne, though it is very improbable that Arabella herself knew anything of the designs of the conspirators. She continued to live at court till 1610, when, contrary to the king's wishes, she privately married Sir William Seymour, afterwards Marquis of Hertford, and a member of the Suffolk branch of the royal family. This union of two possible claimants to the throne was regarded by James with great apprehension; Seymour was at once sent to the Tower, and Arabella confined at Lambeth, to be shortly after conveyed to Durham. While on her way thither she managed to escape, and took ship for France, her husband having got out of the Tower and fled to Ostend. But before Arabella could reach Calais, the vessel was captured, and she was committed to the Tower. Her reason gave way, and after four years' imprisonment she died. Her character was remarkably amiable, and she never appears to have engaged personally in the intrigues carried on in her name.

Jesse, *Memoirs of the Stuarts*; S. R. Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng., 1603—1642*.

Aracan is a division of British Burmah, lying along the eastern coast of the Bay of Bengal, extending from Chittagong to Cape Negrais. The district at one time belonged to the Moguls, and was subsequently partly in the hands of the Portuguese. In 1783 it was conquered by the Burmese, by whom it was ceded to the English, as a result of the first Burmese War in 1826.

Aragon. [Spain, Relations with.]

Aragon, Catherine of. [Catherine.]

Arbuthnot, John, M.D. (*b.* 1667, *d.* 1735), author, wit, and physician, the son of a Scottish Episcopal clergyman, after taking a medical degree at Aberdeen University, came to London in search of a fortune. He acquired some literary reputation by a criticism of Dr. Woodward's *Account of*

the Deluge, and *Tables of Grecian, Roman, and Jewish Measures, Weights, and Coins*, a work of considerable research. About 1704 accident threw him in the way of Prince George of Denmark, Queen Anne's husband, and he became the queen's physician, and the intimate friend of the foremost political writers of the Tory party. In 1712 he wrote a political allegory, *The History of John Bull*, which Macaulay calls the most humorous political satire in our language. Its object was to throw ridicule on the War of the Spanish Succession, and he represents John Bull, the Englishman, Nick Frog, the Frenchman, and Louis Baboon (Bourbon), the Spaniard, as tradesmen squabbling over a lawsuit, Marlborough being the Attorney Hocus, who tries to prolong the contest. On the death of Queen Anne, in 1714, Arbuthnot joined Swift, Pope, and other Tory men of letters, in founding the Scriblerus Club, the object of which was to chastise literary quacks. The first book of their uncompleted work, *The Memoirs of Martinus Scriblerus*, was undoubtedly by his pen, and it is a very fine piece of light satire. Arbuthnot wrote besides many works on medical subjects, which had great reputation in their day.

Arbuthnot, *Miscellaneous Works*, 1770; Scott, *Life of Swift*.

Archbishops. The territorial extent of an archbishop's authority is called a province, from the name of an administrative division of the Roman empire. Archbishops do not form an order apart from bishops. An archbishop in England has a bishop's authority within his own diocese, and is also chief of the clergy, and has power to correct the faults of bishops throughout his province. When, in 597, at the bidding of Gregory the Great, Augustine was on his way to England, he received episcopal consecration at Arles. The design of Gregory was that there should be two metropolitan sees in England—at London and York—following the twofold division of the Roman province. Augustine, however, dwelt at Canterbury, which thus became the seat of the southern metropolitan. England was not wholly converted from Kent. Different missions succeeded at various dates in the kingdoms into which the land was divided, and in consequence a danger arose from lack of unity in the Church. From this she was saved by Archbishop Theodore (668—690). His plan was that there should be only one archbishopric, and he gathered all the bishops together in one synod. After his death his scheme perished. Pope Gregory's plan was revived as more in accordance with national feeling, and in 735 the see of York was made an archbishopric. Offa, King of Mercia, similarly attempted to give expression to the brief period of Mercian supremacy by setting up a third archbishopric at Lichfield, which lasted from 787 till 803. In 1143 Henry of Blois, Bishop of the royal city of Winchester, applied to Pope Innocent II. to convert his see into an archbishopric and rid him of the authority of Canterbury, but did not obtain his object. Before the Conquest the archbishopric of York was below that of Canterbury in dignity. In 1093 Thomas of York objected to the title of Metropolitan of Great Britain being applied to the Archbishop of Canterbury. The objection was held good. The Archbishop of Canterbury was declared to be Primate, first in rank, but York was and is also a metropolitan see, though the Archbishop of Canterbury has the title of Primate and Metropolitan of all England. In 1119 Thurstan of York defeated an attempt to make him profess obedience to the Archbishop of Canterbury. The Welsh bishops owned the authority of Canterbury. An unsuccessful attempt was made in 1199 to restore to St. David's the archiepiscopal dignity which it had in the time of the British Church. Until 1152 the Irish bishops received consecration from the Archbishop of Canterbury; and in the twelfth century his authority in Scotland was disputed by the Archbishop of York, until, in 1188, the Scotch Church was made immediately dependent on Rome. The Archbishop of Canterbury had a kind of patriarchal authority, and Archbishop Anselm was greeted by Pope Urban II. as the Pope and Patriarch of a second world. His position in the state was one of great importance, and he has always stood next after the sovereign, whom it is his duty to crown. The right of electing the archbishops pertains, as in the case of bishops, to the Chapters of their churches. The dignity of the see of Canterbury caused frequent interference with the right of the monastic Chapter of Christ Church. A voice in the election was claimed by the suffragan bishops; but their claim was disallowed by Innocent III. The crown interfered oftener and more directly in the appointment of one who was its constitutional adviser than in the case of other elections. The Pope managed in many instances to secure the election of his nominee. His influence was insured (1) because it was held necessary that the archbishops should receive from him the *pall*, an ecclesiastical vestment, without which an archbishop did not consecrate bishops; (2) and because (in later times) the Pope also granted to the archbishop the authority of a *legate*. The right of the Archbishop of Canterbury to the legatine commission was asserted by Archbishop Anselm, and finally gained by Archbishop Langton in 1291. This right did not preclude the visits of special legates *a latere*, but it was an infringement of it to grant a permanent legatine commission for England to any one else, as in the case of Henry Beaufort, Bishop of Winchester, since the Archbishop of Canterbury was *legatus natus*. The Archbishop of York also had the pall,

and from about 1350 the legatine commission. The provincial jurisdiction of the archbishops was exercised in their *Provincial Courts*. The judge of the Provincial Court of Canterbury was the *Official Principal*. In the *Court of Arches*, so called because held in St. Mary le Bow (de *Arcubus*), the *Dean of Arches* exercised the archbishop's jurisdiction over certain peculiars, or parishes exempt from the ordinary episcopal jurisdiction. As the offices of Official Principal and Dean of Arches were usually vested in the same person, the Court and Dean of Arches came to be inexactly spoken of as if they signified the court and judge of the archbishop's provincial jurisdiction. The final appeal from this court lay, after the breach with Rome, to a body called the *High Court of Delegates* (25 Henry VIII., c. 19). By 3 and 4 Wm. IV., c. 41, the appellate jurisdiction of this court was conferred on the *Judicial Committee of the Privy Council*. The office of Official Principal, both of Canterbury and York, is now, by the Public Worship Regulation Act (37 and 38 Vict., c. 85), merged in that of a judge appointed by the archbishops, subject to the approval of the Sovereign. This judge exercises the provincial jurisdiction of both archbishops as the Official Principal of the Arches Court of Canterbury and the Chancery Court of York. The archbishops summon and preside over the provincial synods or *Convocations* (q.v.). [For Archbishops of Dublin, St. Andrew's, &c., *see* IRISH CHURCH; SCOTLAND, CHURCH OF.]

Haddan and Stubbs, *Councils and Eccl. Documents* (1869–71); Bede, *Hist. Eccles.*; Eadmer, *Hist. Nov.* and *Vita Anselm.*; T. Stubbs, *Eborac. Archiepisc.*; Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops of Canterbury*; Phillimore, *Eccles. Law*; Brice, *Public Worship*; and esp. *Report of the Royal Commission on Ecclesiastical Courts*, 1883.

[W. H.]

ARCHBISHOPS OF CANTERBURY.

597.—Augustine.
604.—Laurentius
619.—Mellitus.
624.—Justus.
627.—Honorius.
655.—Trithona (Deusdedit).
668.—Theodore.
693.—Brihtwald.
731.—Tatwin.
735.—Nothelm.
759.—Bregwin.
766.—Jaenbert.
793.—Ethelhard.
805.—Wulfred.
832.—Feologild.
833.—Ceolnoth.
870.—Ethelred.
890.—Plegmund.
914.—Athelm.
923.—Wulfhelm.
942.—Odo.
960.—Dunstan.
988.—Ethelgar.
990.—Siric.
995.—Alfric.
1005.—Alphege.
1013.—Alfstan.
1020.—Ethelnoth.
1038.—Eadsige.
1051.—Robert.
1052.—Stigand.
1070.—Lanfranc.
1093.—Anselm.
1114.—Ralph d'Escures.
1123.—William de Corbeuil.
1139.—Theobald.
1162.—Thomas (Becket).
1174.—Richard.
1185.—Baldwin.
1193.—Hubert Fitz-Walter.
1207.—Stephen Langton
1229.—Richard of Wethershed.
1234.—Edmund Rich.
1245.—Boniface of Savoy.
1273.—Rob. Kilwardby.
1279.—John Peckham.
1294.—Rob. Winchelsey.
1313.—Walter Reynolds.
1328.—Simon Meopham.
1333.—John of Stratford
1349, July 19.—Thomas Bradwardine.
1349, Dec. 20.—Simon Islip.
1366.—Simon Langham.
1368.—Wm. Whittlesea.
1375.—Simon Sudbury.
1381.—Wm. Courtenay.
1396.—Thos. Fitzalan.
1398.—Roger Walden.
1414.—Henry Chicheley.
1443.—John Stafford.
1452.—John Kemp.
1454.—Thos. Bourchier.
1486.—John Morton.
1501.—Henry Dean.
1503.—Wm. Warham.
1533.—Thos. Cranmer.
1556.—Reginald Pole.
1559.—Matthew Parker.
1576.—Edmund Grindal.
1583.—John Whitgift.
1604.—Richrd. Bancroft.
1611.—George Abbot.
1633.—William Laud.
1645—1660. See Vacant.
1660.—William Juxon.
1663.—Gilbert Sheldon.
1678.—Wm. Sancroft.
1691.—John Tillotson.
1695.—Thos. Tenison.
1716.—William Wake.
1737.—John Potter.
1747.—Thomas Herring.
1757.—Matthew Hutton.
1758.—Thomas Secker.
1768.—Fred. Cornwallis.
1783.—John Moore.
1805.—Charles Manners Sutton.
1828.—William Howley.
1848.—Jn. Bird Sumner.
1862.—Charles Thomas Longley.
1868.—Archibald Campbell Tait.
1883.—Ed. White Benson
1897.—Fredk. Temple.
1903.—Randall Thomas Davidson.

ARCHBISHOPS OF YORK.

625.—Paulinus.
664.—Ceadda (Chad).
669.—Wilfrid (dep. 678; restored 686–692).
678.—Bosa.
705.—John of Beverley.
718.—Wilfrid.
734.—Egbert.
767.—Ethelbert (or Cœna).
780.—Eanbald.
796.—Eanbald.
808 (?).—Wulfsy (Wulfius).
837.—Wigmund.
854.—Wulfhere.
900.—Ethelbald.
921.—Redevald.
931.—Wulfstan.
958.—Oskytel.
972.—Oswald.
995.—Aldulf.
1003.—Wulfstan.
1023.—Alfric.
1051.—Kinsy.
1061.—Ealdred.
1070.—Thomas.
1101.—Gerard.
1109.—Thomas.
1119.—Thurstan.
1143.—William Fitz-Herbert.
1147.—Henry Murdac.
1154.—Roger de Pont l'Evêque.
1191.—Geoffrey Plantagenet.
1215.—Walter Gray.
1256.—Lewall Bovill.
1258.—Geoffrey Ludham
1266.—Walter Giffard.
1279.—Wm. Wickwan.
1286.—John Romain.
1298.—Henry Newark.
1300.—Thos. Corbridge.
1306.—Wm. Greenfield.
1317.—Wm. Melton.
1342.—Wm. de la Zouch.
1352.—John Thoresby.
1374.—Alexndr. Neville.
1388.—Thomas Arundel.
1397.—Robert Waldby.
1398.—Henry Scrope.
1407.—Henry Bowet.
1426.—John Kemp.
1452.—William Booth.
1464.—George Neville.
1476.—Laurence Booth.
1480.—Thos. Rotherham.
1501.—Thomas Savage.
1508.—Christphr. Bainbridge.
1514.—Thos. Wolsey.
1531.—Ed. Lea.
1545.—Robt. Holgate.
1555.—Nicholas Heath.
1561.—Thomas Young.
1570.—Edmund Grindal.
1577.—Edwin Sandys.
1589.—John Piers.
1595.—Matthw. Hutton.
1606.—Tobias Matthew.
1628.—Geo. Monteigne.
1628.—Sam. Harsnett.
1632.—Richard Neile.
1641.—John Williams.
1660.—Accepted Frewen.
1644.—Richard Sterne.
1683.—John Dolben.
1688.—Thos. Lamplugh.
1691.—John Sharpe.
1714.—William Dawes.
1724.—Lancelot Blackburn.
1743.—Thomas Herring.
1747.—Matthew Hutton.
1757.—John Gilbert.
1761.—Rbt. Drummond.
1777.—Wm. Markham.
1808.—Edward Vernon.
1847.—Thos. Musgrave.
1860.—Charles Thomas Longley.
1863.—Wm. Thomson.
1891.—Wm. Connor Magee.
1891.—Wm. Dalrymple Maclagan.
1908.—Cosmo Gordon Lang.

See Bp. Stubbs, *Registrum Sacrum Anglicanum*, Oxford, 1858.

Architecture. In England there are many remains—chiefly of a sepulchral character—of the people who dwelt in the land before the coming of the Romans. These pre-historic relics may be roughly classified

as (1) monoliths, single stones standing upright; (2) cromlechs, or table stones, consisting of one large stone supported by others, as at Kit's Coty House, near Maidstone; (3) stone circles, as at Stonehenge, Avebury, and Long Meg and her Daughters, near Penrith; (4) barrows, oblong or round, which consist of mounds of earth containing sepulchral chambers. These barrows are scattered over the country, but are generally found on moorland. Besides these, there are traces of lake dwellings — houses built on wooden platforms supported by piles driven into the bottom of lakes, accessible by planks from the mainland. There are also traces of sculptured ornaments on boulders of stone, which are especially frequent in Northumberland. There are, again, earthworks of camps and the foundations of fortified villages to be found in many places amongst the hills.

When the Romans came to Britain they brought with them the art of building in stone. They built towns and houses, which, however, were all destroyed, though the sites of Roman villas, their mosaic pavements, the hypocausts, or cellars with flues to warm the house, may be still traced in many places. But the greatest memorials of Roman building are their military works, especially the great wall extending from the Tyne to the Solway, whose course may still be traced, with its military stations and remains of buildings outside. The station of Housesteads, near Hexham, has been called "the English Pompeii." After the departure of the Romans the English conquest drove the Britons from the cities, which fell into decay. The English themselves lived in villages, in houses built of clay, or wood, or wattles. After their conversion to Christianity they began to build churches, of oaken planks, sometimes covered with lead. Benedict Biscop, a Northumbrian thegn, went over to Gaul and brought back workmen, who, at the end of the seventh century, built a stone church, or basilica, for the monastery of Wearmouth. Wilfrid followed, and built churches at York and Hexham, remains of which may still be seen. Still, before the Norman Conquest architecture did not make much advance in England. Stone towers were built with wooden naves, and the remains of what is called Saxon architecture are few. The tower of Earl's Barton Church, in Northamptonshire, is one of the most important examples.

The Norman Conquest gave the signal for a great age of ecclesiastical architecture in England. Vast cathedrals were built in the massive, round-arched style which had gradually developed from the Roman constructions, and which is known as Romanesque or Norman. Of this style, very striking specimens are the cathedrals of Norwich, Peterborough, and Ely, and Malmesbury Abbey. The cathedral of Durham shows an attempt at emancipation from the traditions of the Norman builders. The introduction of the pointed arch, which was probably first employed in rebuilding the east end of Canterbury Cathedral after the fire in 1174, made a great change in architectural construction. The activity in the way of church building in the north, as shown in the Yorkshire abbeys, still further developed an English style of architecture, which first made itself manifest in Lincoln Cathedral (1200), and Salisbury (1220—1258). This style, which is known as the Early English, is remarkable for its lancet windows, which are either single or grouped in graceful designs. The increase of the use of painted glass as a necessary part of church decoration led to an adoption of French principles and the introduction of geometrical tracery, which marked the architecture of the reigns of Edward I. and Edward II. The Angel Choir at Lincoln, the abbeys of Tintern and Gainsborough, and the chapel of Merton College, Oxford, may be given as examples of the progress of this geometrical style. It lasted, however, but a short time; the restlessness which marked the reign of Edward III. was expressed in the desire for new inventions, and geometrical tracery gave way to flowing or curvilineal tracery of the style that is called Decorated, specimens of which may be seen in Carlisle Cathedral. It would seem that the vagaries of the Decorated style awakened a reaction. In the flowing tracery strength and construction were alike lost sight of, till the Perpendicular style was hailed with delight as being sounder. This style was first made popular by William of Wykeham, in his buildings at Winchester and at Oxford, and prevailed for above a century, during the fourteenth and first half of the fifteenth centuries. Its characteristics were a stern regard to the needs of construction. Straight lines ran from the bottom to the top of the window, which was regarded as merely a frame for painted glass. Regularity and proportion were everywhere insisted upon, and fancy was no longer allowed a place. The chapel of King's College, Cambridge, is a good example of the Perpendicular style, but there are many instances to be found in every locality of a style which was so long in use.

The development of ecclesiastical architecture was the chief feature of this period. England produced no great municipal buildings. The towns did not rise to the same independent position as that which fostered the development of municipal architecture on the Continent. The dwellings of the barons were military fortresses, and were at first reproductions of the castles of Normandy. Castle-building, however, soon became an eminently English art. The massive keeps of the Norman castles were surrounded by curtain walls connecting one tower with another, and weaving the whole pile into a strong and picturesque mass of buildings. In the reigns of the

Edwards these castles assumed their largest proportions, and their remains are to be seen most clearly on the Welsh and Scottish marches. Some may be traced in ruins, others have been altered into modern dwellings, but still retain many of their ancient features. The castles of Alnwick, Berkeley, Chepstow, Kenilworth, Warwick, Rochester, and Windsor are amongst the most striking examples. Another class of mediæval buildings peculiar to England is found in the colleges of Oxford and Cambridge, and the schools of Eton and Winchester. Taking as their model monastic buildings, the architects adapted them to the conditions of secular life, and built quadrangles round the chapel and common hall. The great hall was, moreover, a feature of the castle, and received the greatest architectural care, particularly in the construction of the roof. The halls of the royal palaces of Westminster (Richard II.) and Eltham (Henry IV.) still remain as examples of the constructive ingenuity of their builders.

The Tudor reigns saw a great increase in the material prosperity of England and in its internal quiet. The suppression of the monasteries removed one of the principal supports of ecclesiastical architecture. The comforts of domestic life increased. The castles and fortified manor-houses of the troubled times of the Middle Ages were either abandoned or were converted into dwelling-houses more suitable for peaceful times. At first this was done in accordance with the principles of Gothic architecture. But the movement of the Renaissance towards a revival of the classical style had begun in Italy, and spread over France. It was long in taking possession of England, but it affected it unconsciously in details. The style known as Jacobean was Gothic in feeling, but adopted with some timidity classical ornamentation. It corresponded to the change through which England was passing in religion and literature alike. The memorials of this style are chiefly to be found in dwelling-houses. Churches were not required, as the number already existing was more than ample for the population. The University of Cambridge, which was at that period very flourishing, has some excellent examples in Caius and Clare Colleges, and in Neville's Court in Trinity. The great houses that were now built served for some time as models for English houses. They differed from the designs in vogue on the Continent, and showed an adaptation to the needs of English climate. They were built round courtyards, after the old fashion; but the entrance was on the outside, and the windows of the main rooms looked outwards to the country, not into the courtyard. Knowle may be taken as an example of the Gothic style of dwelling-house. Longleat, Temple Newsam, Longford Castle, Hardwicke Hall, and Hatfield House are examples of various forms of classical adaptations. All of them are picturesque, graceful in proportions, and comfortable in their arrangements, though their ornamentation shows learning misunderstood and improperly applied. The most conspicuous instance of this is the gateway of the Bodleian Library at Oxford, where the five orders of classical architecture are piled one upon another, and the whole is crowned by Gothic pinnacles.

In the reign of Charles I., the architectural style of the Italian Renaissance found its full development in England under the influence of Inigo Jones, an architect of great ability, who studied in Italy under the last great Italian architect Palladio. On his return to England, Inigo Jones designed a mighty palace for the king at Whitehall. The Banqueting House was executed from his designs, but the troubles of Charles I. prevented the plan from being carried out. Jones's scheme was conceived on a gigantic scale; had it been executed, the Palace of Whitehall would have been the most splendid in Europe. Jones showed the possibility of dignified simplicity in a Protestant church, by the building of St. Paul's, Covent Garden, the first ecclesiastical building of any importance since the Reformation. The Restoration found its architect in a man of real learning and cultivation, Sir Christopher Wren, whose earliest work is the Sheldonian Theatre at Oxford. The Great Fire of London, in 1666, gave Wren an opportunity, such as few architects have enjoyed, of modelling the architectural aspect of a great city. He prepared a plan for the rebuilding of London, which unfortunately was not carried out. However, he was asked to rebuild St. Paul's Cathedral and nearly fifty other churches. In St. Paul's Cathedral Wren built the largest and most splendid church, after St. Peter's in Rome, that had been attempted in the classical style. Besides this, he studded the city with graceful steeples, that lent dignity to the proportions of St. Paul's dome, which towered above them. The chief of these are the spires of Bow Church; St. Bride's, Fleet Street; St. Michael's, Cornhill; St. Stephen's, Walbrook; and St. Dunstan's-in-the-East. In all his buildings Wren showed great constructive ingenuity and a delight in solving difficult problems, though at times he has allowed this to overcome his artistic taste. Few cities bear so clearly the impress of one man's architectural genius as does London that of Wren.

The successors of Wren in the beginning of the eighteenth century were Hawksmoor, who built the church of St. George's, Bloomsbury, and Sir John Vanbrugh. Vanbrugh, a Dutchman by descent, was happy in the opportunity of having entrusted to him a monumental work of national importance. He was commissioned to build Blenheim Palace as a gift of the nation to the Duke of Marlborough. His plan is vast and grand. He certainly aimed at giving enduring stability to his

work. But though the general design was dignified, there is a clumsiness and a want of proportion in the adaptation of details that leave an impression of heaviness and gloom. In the building of Castle Howard, Vanbrugh shows the same attempt at grandeur, but with more sobriety. An architect whose work shows more artistic feeling is James Gibbs, whose most important buildings are the church of St. Martin's-in-the-Fields and the Radcliffe Library at Oxford.

The middle of the eighteenth century saw a development of the study of classical archæology, which immediately reacted on architecture. Especially Stuart's work on *The Architecture of Athens*, commenced in 1762, affected popular taste. The architecture of the Italian Renaissance, which had hitherto been pursued in England, was classical in sentiment, and used classical details while freely adapting them to its own purposes. The end of the eighteenth century saw a learned revival of pure classical architecture, freed from its Italian adaptations. This absolute copying of classical antiquity became a fashion. Churches were built like Grecian temples, as, for instance, the church of St. Pancras, with its caryatid porticoes and model of a small temple erected by way of a spire on a larger one. No large building was erected except in the severest classical style, with portico, whether needful or not. The British Museum is one of the least successful of the buildings of this school; St. George's Hall at Liverpool is one of the most happy. But this classical revival in architecture was soon met by a Gothic revival, which may be said to date from Horace Walpole, but took a great hold on popular taste after Beckford's revival of Fonthill Abbey in the shape of a gentleman's house. Its architect, Wyatt, was entrusted with the restoration of several of our cathedrals. Houses were built in the form of Gothic castles or abbeys. The rage for strictly classical imitations was succeeded by a rage for exact reproduction of Gothic designs. The writings of Britton, Rickman, Pugin, and many others lent the resources of careful archæology to this revival, which corresponded also with the Tractarian movement within the English Church. In obedience to the desire of restoring the assumed reverence and faith of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, churches throughout England have been "restored," or brought back, to what some ingenious archæologist guesses to have been their original aspect. Innumerable churches have been built in imitation of Gothic models; and in secular buildings, the Houses of Parliament, and more recently the Law Courts, were erected in Gothic style, and have taxed the ingenuity of their architects to find the accommodation necessary for modern purposes in buildings constructed in the style of an age when such purposes were unknown.

Rickman, *Attempt to discriminate Styles of English Architecture*; Pugin, *Principles of Pointed Architecture*; Billings, *Cathedrals*; Turner and Parker, *Domestic Architecture in England*; J. Fergusson, *History of Architecture*. [M. C.]

Arcot, Defence of (1751). The victories of the confederation formed by Dupleix against the English were checked by the expedition to Arcot under Clive. Chunda Sahib was obliged to detach a large force, thereby relieving the pressure on the British garrison cooped up in Trichinopoly. The fort of Arcot was defended only by a low and lightly-built parapet; several of the towers were decayed, and the ditch was partly choked up. From the day of its occupation, August 30, 1751, Clive had been incessantly employed in repairing the defences, but the place seemed little capable of standing a siege. Of his eight officers, one had been killed, and two wounded, in successive encounters with the enemy, and a fourth had returned to Madras. The troops fit for duty had been reduced by casualties and disease to 120 Europeans and 200 sepoys, and it was with this small body that Clive sustained for seven weeks the incessant assault of 10,000 native troops and 150 Europeans. On the last day of the siege the enemy endeavoured to storm the fort, but, during a conflict which lasted more than eighteen hours, they were repulsed on every point, and next morning retired from the town.

Arcot, State of. [Carnatic.]

Ardanesbi, Battle of (719), was a naval engagement fought between the two branches of the Scots of Dalriada—the Cinel Gabran and the Cinel Loarn. Dunchadt, King of Kintyre, was chief of the Cinel Gabran, and Selvach, at the head of the Cinel Loarn, the latter being defeated. Ardanesbi, according to Mr. Skene, is "probably the point of Ardminish, on the island of Gigha."

Chron. Picts and Scots (Skene's ed.), cxxx. 74.

Arden, Edward (*d.* 1583), was implicated in a project for the assassination of Elizabeth, by the confession of his son-in-law, the conspirator John Somerville. He had incurred the enmity of the Earl of Leicester, and, after an unfair trial, was executed at Tyburn, December, 1583. His guilt, however, is very doubtful, and he probably fell a victim to the enmity of Leicester.

Ardwulf (Eardwulf), King of Northumbria (798—810), was placed on the throne after the interregnum which followed the murder of Ethelred. He found anarchy throughout the kingdom, but eventually succeeded in restoring something like order by making a treaty with Cenwulf of Mercia, whose kingdom had been the refuge of all Northumbrian conspirators. His journey to the Emperor Charles the Great, and Leo the Pope, is the most interesting event of his reign. He obtained their mediation between

himself and his rebellious nobles, and by their assistance was firmly re-established on the throne of his kingdom.

Anglo-Saxon Chron.; Simeon of Durham; Eginhard.

Argaum, Battle of (Nov. 28, 1803), was fought during the Mahratta War, between General Wellesley and the Rajah of Berar. The rajah, who had been long pursued by Wellesley, attempted to raise the siege of Havilgur, a strong fortress in the Berar territory, and was caught by Wellesley on the plain of Argaum. Though late in the day, Wellesley resolved to engage, but his troops had no sooner come within range of the enemy's guns, than three battalions, who had behaved with distinguished gallantry on the field of Assaye under a far hotter fire, broke their ranks and fled. Fortunately the general succeeded in rallying them, or the battle would have been lost. They returned to the field, and after some hours of severe fighting, the Berar troops were compelled to retreat. The rajah abandoned all his cannon and ammunition; and few of his troops would have escaped, if there had been an hour of daylight left.

Wellesley, *Despatches*; Grant Duff, *Hist. of the Mahrattas.*

Argyle, Archibald Campbell, 5th Earl of (*d.* 1573), although a member of the Congregation, attached himself to the side of the Regent, Mary of Guise, and was of great service to her in averting a collision between the Reformers and the French troops in 1559. He was said to have formed a plot to carry off Mary Queen of Scots almost on the eve of her marriage with Darnley; and he acted as president at the mock trial of Bothwell for Darnley's murder, in 1567. On the abdication of the queen he was appointed one of the Commission of Regency during Murray's absence, but on her escape, 1568, joined her party, and commanded her troops at the battle of Langside. A year or two later, however, he submitted to the government of Morton and obtained an indemnity. He married the widow of the Regent Murray, and thus became possessed of some of the crown jewels, his enforced restoration of which by Morton caused him to head the party then forming against the Regent.

Argyle, Archibald Campbell, 8th Earl and also Marquis of (*b.* 1598, *d.* 1661), succeeded his father in 1638, and at once joined the Covenanters, whose forces he commanded when they were defeated by Montrose at Inverlochy and Kilsythe. His cruelties towards the Royalists in 1640-1 earned him the bitter hatred of all his opponents, and in 1641 a plot to murder him, known as the Incident, was formed. The same year he was created a marquis, and in 1651 supported the cause of Charles II., whom he crowned at Scone. Immediately afterwards, however, the marquis was taken prisoner at Worcester, and was supposed to have entered into close relations with Cromwell. In Richard Cromwell's Parliament of 1659 he represented Aberdeenshire. As a consequence, he was impeached for high treason immediately after the Restoration. He was executed at Edinburgh, suffering as much for his great power, which was an object of dread to Charles II., as for his treason.

S. R. Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng.*; Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*, vi. 205, vii. 149, &c.

Argyle, Archibald Campbell, 9th Earl of (*d.* 1685), was the son of the preceding. He was restored to his estates and earldom in 1663, which had been forfeited by his father's treason, and joined the Royalist party in Scotland. On the passing of the Scotch Test Act, in 1681, Argyle refused to take the required oath, except with a reservation, stating that he did not thereby debar himself from attempting any amendment in Church or State. For this he was brought to trial, and being found guilty of "leasing-making," was sentenced to death. He, however, managed to escape to Holland, where he remained till 1685, when he joined Monmouth in his attempt to dethrone James. But there seems to have been no sympathy between the two, and Argyle was suspected and distrusted by the English. Argyle landed in Scotland in May, 1685, but found himself joined by very few followers except his own clansmen. Divisions were rife in his councils, and after an abortive march on Glasgow, his followers dispersed without striking a blow, and he himself was captured in the disguise of a carter, taken to Edinburgh, and executed on his former sentence of death.

Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*; Macaulay, *Hist. of England.*

Argyle, George Douglas Campbell, 8th Duke of (*b.* 1823, *d.* 1900), was, as Marquis of Lorne, prominent in the controversy in the Presbyterian Church of Scotland relating to patronage. In 1852 he accepted office under Lord Aberdeen as Lord Privy Seal, and retained the same office under Lord Palmerston. He was Lord Privy Seal again under Lord Palmerston in 1859, Postmaster-General in 1860, and Secretary of State for India in Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet from 1868 to 1874. He joined Mr. Gladstone's second administration (1880) as Lord Privy Seal, but retired owing to a difference of opinion with his colleagues on their Irish policy.

Argyle, John, Marquis, afterwards Duke of (*d.* 1743), as Lord Lorne, was made commander of a regiment of foot by William III. In 1692 he, together with his kinsmen Breadalbane and the Master of Stair, planned the infamous massacre of Glencoe. The greater part of the troops employed

in that affair were Campbells. In 1703 he succeeded to his father's honours and estates, and was sworn of Anne's Privy Council. In 1705 he was appointed Lord High Commissioner to the Scottish Parliament, in which he zealously advocated the Union. For these services he was created a peer of England and Earl of Greenwich. In 1706 he fought under Marlborough at Ramillies, and commanded in the attack on Menin. He returned to Scotland, where he supported the efforts of the Commission for the Union. He fought at Oudenarde and Malplaquet; but was at enmity with Marlborough, his commander-in-chief. At this time he was closely connected with the Tories, and was appointed to the command in Catalonia in 1710. The army was demoralised by the defeat at Almanza, and he could obtain no supplies. He returned to England, and was made commander-in-chief of the land forces in Scotland. He was soon at variance with the ministry; and opposed, in the Upper House, a motion to the effect that the Protestant succession was in danger. As Queen Anne lay dying, Argyle entered the Council with the Duke of Somerset, and proposed that the queen should be requested to make the Duke of Shrewsbury Lord Treasurer. It was done; and it was owing to this vigorous action that Belingbroke's plans at once fell to the ground. On the accession of George I., Argyle was continued in his employments, and on the outbreak of Mar's rebellion, in 1715, Argyle, as commander-in-chief in Scotland, met the rebels at Sheriffmuir, where Mar was defeated. But the conduct of Argyle caused it to be suspected that he was unwilling to drive the Jacobites to extremities. Cadogan was sent to reinforce him. As soon as the duke marched forward, the Jacobites retreated before him; the Pretender fled to France, and the rebellion was crushed. Argyle was a follower of Walpole during the greater part of his long ministry, but in 1739 he distinctly joined the Opposition. Walpole, wishing to preserve so powerful a support, kept him in his places, but at length was compelled to dismiss him. On the resignation of Walpole, Argyle was again placed in office; but he was dissatisfied with the arrangement of the ministry, and resigned. Towards the end of his career, he intrigued with the Jacobites. It was only after Sir John Hinde Cotton, a noted Jacobite, had been placed on the Board of the Admiralty, that the duke condescended to join Pelham's administration. He was a brave soldier and an able orator; but his political career was a series of inconsistencies.

Coxe, *Walpole*; Burton, *History of Scotland*.

[L. C. S.]

Argyle, Peerage of. (The more usual modern spelling is Argyll.) In 1445 Sir Duncan Campbell of Lochow, the head of the great Argyleshire family of the Campbells, was raised to the peerage as Lord Campbell, by James II. of Scotland. His grandson, Colin, was created Earl of Argyle in 1464. He married Isabel Stewart, daughter of the Lord of Lorne, and added to his titles that of Lord Lorne. Archibald, the eighth earl, who was subsequently executed for treason in 1661, was created a marquis in 1641. His son Archibald, ninth earl (who was restored to the family estates and the earldom), was attainted for treason in 1685. The attainder was reversed at the Revolution of 1688, and Archibald, the son of the last-named earl, was advanced to the dignity of Duke of Argyle. His son John, second duke, received a British peerage as Duke of Greenwich in 1719. He left no male issue, and his English honours ceased; but his daughter Caroline was created in her own right Baroness of Greenwich. His Scotch honours devolved on his brother Archibald, third duke, from whom they passed to his nephew Archibald, the ancestor of the present holder of the title. John, the fifth duke, was created a peer of England as Baron Sundridge in 1766.

Arikera, Battle of (May 13, 1791). After the capture of Bangalore, during Lord Cornwallis's campaign in Mysore, the English army marched to Seringapatam, and (May 13) reached Arikera, about nine miles from that city. Tippoo was encamped between them and Seringapatam, with his right resting on the Cavery. Lord Cornwallis hoped by a night march to turn the enemy's left before daylight, and cut off his retreat. A terrific storm arose, and delayed the march by repeated halts, till it became impossible to carry out the original plan. In the morning Lord Cornwallis determined to gain a hill commanding the left of the enemy, and organised an attack in front, under cover of which Colonel Maxwell was to seize the hill. Tippoo perceived this, and made his preparations accordingly; but in spite of this Maxwell crossed a difficult ravine and gained the hill. The attack became general along the front, and was assisted by Maxwell's flank attack along the hill, and Tippoo's army was already wavering when Colonel Floyd and the cavalry charged his rearguard and nearly destroyed it, nothing but the unwieldy movements of the Nizam's horse, which now came up, allowed Tippoo's army to escape a total rout.

Mill, *Hist. of India*; Cornwallis, *Despatches*.

Arkenholm, Battle of (May 1, 1455), was fought in the valley of the Esk between the supporters of James II. of Scotland and James, Earl of Douglas, and his brothers. The rebels were defeated. Archibald Douglas, Earl of Murray, fell in the combat; Hugh Douglas, Earl of Ormond, was captured and

beheaded; and James Douglas was forced to take refuge in England. [DOUGLAS.]

Arklow, THE BATTLE OF (1798), was fought during the Irish rebellion. The town was defended by General Needham with 120 Ancient Britons, 800 Irish militia, 300 Durham Fencibles, and some yeomanry, against Father John Murphy, who led some 27,000 rebels with a few guns to the attack. In spite of the determined fury with which they came on, the rebels were beaten back with great loss, and had to give up the idea of marching on Dublin.

Arlington, HENRY BENNET, EARL OF (*b.* 1618, *d.* 1685), was originally intended to take orders in the Church, but on the outbreak of the Civil War he joined the Royalist army as a volunteer. After the death of Charles I., he joined Charles II., and was employed by him as ambassador to Madrid. In 1662 he was made one of the Secretaries of State, and in 1664 was created a baron. In 1667 he joined the Cabal ministry. In 1674 he was impeached by the House of Commons, and sold his office to Sir J. Williamson, purchasing in his turn the post of Lord Chamberlain, which he held till 1681. Arlington was a Catholic, but never showed himself very zealous for his religion, though ready to sign the secret clauses in the Treaty of Dover. Sharing the want of political principle, and "the cosmopolitan indifference to constitutions and religions" which distinguished the politicians with whom he was associated, Arlington was nevertheless in many respects superior to most of them. He was resolved to maintain himself at court, and in the pursuit of this object he displayed great subtlety, resource, and flexibility of temper; but "he was regarded as the man in England who least overstepped the line of good conduct. He possessed the culture of European society at that time; by the excesses which were in favour at the court he was little affected; his hours of leisure he devoted to the study of the literary products of that fruitful age." Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*, vol. iii., p. 517. See also Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*, vol. i., p. 212. [CABAL.]

Arlington's *Letters to Sir W. Temple* (published posthumously in 1701) are of some importance for the diplomatic history of Charles II.'s reign.

Armada, THE SPANISH, is the name usually applied to the great military and naval expedition despatched by Philip II. of Spain against England in 1588. The equipping of his great fleet was protracted by his incorrigible habits of delay and hesitation, but it is probable that it was ready to sail in 1587. It might in any case have been kept waiting one year more till the Prince of Parma had his army ready in Flanders, but, however that may be, it was delayed by Drake's vigorous action on the coasts of Portugal and Andalusia. Early in 1588 the damage he had done was repaired, and the Invincible Armada sailed from Lisbon in the latter days of May. It was commanded by Don Alonso de Guzman, Duke of Medina Sidonia, who succeeded to the command on the death of Don Alvaro de Bazan, the Marquis of Santa Cruz. It consisted of 130 vessels, manned by 8,450 sailors, and 2,088 galley-slaves. It carried 19,295 soldiers, and 2,680 pieces of artillery. The provisions of food and ammunition were abundant, but the ships were ill-fitted for the navigation of the Channel, of which the Spanish sailors knew nothing. From the beginning it met with losses and misfortunes. It was scattered by a gale immediately after leaving Lisbon, during which one galley went down, and two were seized by the slaves who revolted, and overpowered the soldiers. It was not till Friday, July 22 (N.S.), that Medina Sidonia could rally his ships, and sail from Corunna. On Thursday, July 28, the fleet was off the Lizard, and had its first sight of the English fleet on Saturday the 30th. The English Lord High Admiral, Lord Howard of Effingham, had thirty ships of the Royal Navy, and a large number of volunteer ships, with him, and was assisted by Drake, Hawkins, Frobisher, Winter, Raleigh, and other seamen. The Armada was steered for Calais Road. On Sunday, July 31, some fighting took place, in which the unwieldy Spanish ships were completely outmanœuvred. They were built so extremely high, and drew so few feet of water in proportion, that they could not carry enough sail. The handy English vessels closed and drew off as they pleased. Our seamen, acting on the principle which has always been followed in the English navy, trusted to their rapid and accurate artillery fire, and refused all temptations to board the enemy, whose vessels were crowded with soldiers. The first encounter proved the wisdom of this system of tactics. The flagship of the Andalusian squadron was disabled, and fell into the hands of Drake after a long fight. The Armada, arranged in the half-moon formation which had been adopted at Lepanto, continued its way through the Channel, keeping indifferent order. On August 2 there was another indecisive cannonade off Portland, in which the English seamen followed their usual system of attack; and though they did not do the Spaniards any considerable damage, they further proved their superiority in seamanship, and convinced the enemy that he could only hope to fight them on their own terms. By Saturday the 6th, the Spanish Armada had reached Calais, and waited for the Prince of Parma, who was to join it from Flanders. But the prince, by one of the extraordinary oversights which ruined all Philip's plans, had no armed ships, and was closely blockaded by the Dutch. On Sunday night (August 7) the English

admirals sent fire-ships among the Spaniards, who cut their cables and stood to sea in a panic. On Monday they were fiercely attacked, and soon became utterly disorganised. On Tuesday, August 9, the Armada, greatly diminished by loss of vessels, which had been sunk or compelled to strike, or driven on shore, was drifting helplessly on the coast of Zeeland. A sudden change of wind saved it for the moment, but the crews had no more stomach for the fight. By the next day they had quite lost heart and begun to fly to the north. They were followed for some distance by a few English vessels, but there was no effectual pursuit. Elizabeth's fleet had been ill-provided with powder and shot, and still worse with food. They had put to sea in a hurry, and they had moreover been now engaged almost incessantly for days. It is not to be wondered at, therefore, that after three general engagements and numerous skirmishes the ships were out of ammunition. The want of provisions is less excusable. It appears, however, that the volunteer vessels were almost as badly found as the queen's, and that what is often called Elizabeth's parsimony was in fact want of experience in equipping a large force. The brunt of the fighting fell on the vessels of the Royal Navy; the volunteers, though they proved the spirit of the nation, and helped to make a moral impression on the Spaniards, did comparatively little of the real work. The preparations on shore were probably distinguished more by spirit than efficiency, but they were never tested, and it is impossible to know what they would have done. It must not be forgotten, that though the Prince of Parma had a veteran force in Flanders, the majority of the soldiers on board the Armada were as raw as the English militia. The Spaniards straggled home round the north of Scotland, through continual storms, in which the greater part of their vessels went down or were driven on shore. Only fifty-three ships reached Spain, and the loss of life was so terrible, that it was said that every family in the country lost a member.

The standard historians of Elizabeth's reign, and Camden, Fuller, or Hakluyt, need scarcely be mentioned, and the same may be said of Froude or Motley. There is a very good account of the Armada in Southey's *Life of Lord Howard of Effingham*, in the *Cabinet Cyclopædia*, with copious citations of authorities; and a French writer, M. Forneron, has told the story very fully in his recent *Life of Philip II.* On the Spanish side, may be mentioned Strader, Herrera, and Cabrera, in their Lives of Philip. Cabrera was an official historian, who wrote under royal dictation, and gives, of course, the royal view. He is chiefly valuable as showing what the Spanish government wished to be believed. Several accounts by eye-witnesses are to be found in the *Documentos Inéditos* (Spanish State Papers), particularly in the fourteenth and forty-eighth volumes. (*See also* the publications of the Navy Records Society.)

[D. H.]

Armagh, The School (or University) of, was the centre of early Irish monastic civilisation and learning. It was from here that the scholars who made Ireland famous in France, and those who founded Glastonbury, came. The most famous among the Irish scholars trained at Armagh is of course John Scotus Erigena, whose death may be placed in the year 875. Even the capture of Armagh by Olaf's Danes was not sufficient to destroy entirely its school and its fame for learning. The continuance of the existence of a school there is vouched for by the proceedings of a synod in 1158, which decided that no one was to be instituted as a professor of theology who had not completed his education at Armagh. The presence of foreign students can be traced at least as far as the eleventh century. The existence of a learned body in Armagh is all the more remarkable as the see was, after the arrival of the Ostmen, almost always in the hands of laymen.

Armagh, The Synod of, was held in 1170, when the Irish prelates, alarmed at the English invasion, which they regarded as a divine visitation, determined that all English slaves should be set free.

Armed Neutrality. In 1780 a coalition known as the *First Armed Neutrality* was entered into by the northern powers, who resented the right of search which was claimed by England in respect of all neutral vessels. In the treaty then made between Russia, Sweden, and Denmark, the principle was proclaimed that "free ships make free goods," that the flag covers the merchandise, and that a port is to be considered blockaded only when a sufficient force for its blockade is in front of it. There was some ground for the contention that the rights of neutrals on the sea should be the same as on land. At this time Great Britain was in the midst of the war with the American colonies; France and Holland were also at war with her; and the right of search was indispensable, if she was to make any use of her naval superiority. Nevertheless, pressed as she was, it was impossible for her to take any active steps in opposition to the treaty, though she continued to exercise her right, which had been admitted by the several powers in former treaties. The armed neutrality was abandoned by Sweden in 1787; in 1793 Russia entered into a treaty with Great Britain, which expressly recognised the right of search on neutral vessels; and in the same year America made a similar treaty with Great Britain. But in 1799 Napoleon, by a remarkable exercise of diplomatic skill, induced the Americans to adopt a maritime code on the basis of the Armed Neutrality of 1780; and at the same time the other powers saw an opening for a profitable trade with France, if the right of search were abolished. The principles of the Armed Neutrality were accordingly

revived; and the determined persistence of the British government, combined with the skilful diplomacy of Napoleon, induced the northern powers again to enter into a coalition, known as the *Second Armed Neutrality* (1800), to enforce its principles. The English government acted with decisive energy. A fleet was despatched to the Baltic; and the bombardment of Copenhagen, followed by the death of Czar Paul, effectually broke up the northern coalition. On June 17, 1801, the Maritime Convention of St. Petersburg was opened; and finally a series of treaties was made between Great Britain and the northern powers by which the Armed Neutrality was abandoned, but the right of search was strictly defined, and it was agreed that blockades must be efficient to be valid. [NEUTRALITY.]

Koch and Schoell, *Hist. des Traités*, iv. 34, and vi. 92, *seq.*; Alison, *Hist. of Europe*; Judgments of Sir W. Scott in *Robinson's Reports*.

Arminians was the name sometimes given to the High Church party in the reign of Charles I. Strictly speaking, the Arminians were those Dutch Protestants who followed Arminius (Harmenssen), in opposition to the more rigid followers of Calvin. The party was the fruit of the reaction which had arisen in the beginning of the seventeenth century in the minds of many men against what seemed the bigotry of extreme Protestantism, and which made them inquire whether the Reformers, in their desire to get rid of the evils of Popery, had not also destroyed much that was vital in Catholic Christianity. In the Netherlands the controversy between the Arminians and "Gomarists" led, early in the 17th century, to violent commotions. To disputes of dogma were added those concerning the rights of the Church with reference to the authority of the civil government in ecclesiastical affairs. The Arminians, with their leanings to the doctrines of Zwingli, maintained the right of the State to conduct the government of the Church, in conformity with the model of Scripture, and urged that, by the independence claimed by spiritual authority in the Reformed Church, a new popedom was being set up. The Gomarists, on the other hand, strictly adhering to the principles of Calvin, demanded the complete autonomy of the Church. This schism spread to the political world. The heads of the municipal oligarchy sided with the Arminians. The leaders of the popular party, under Maurice the Stadtholder, declared against their rivals for the Gomarists. At the national Synod of Dort, which commenced its sittings in 1618, the victory rested with the latter in regard both to doctrine and Church authority. The Synod declared its adherence to the strict Calvinistic views on unconditional election by grace, and the independence of the Church. Silenced in Holland, Arminianism took firm root in England, and was welcomed by many who shared in the reaction against Puritanism. A violent controversy began between Calvinists and Arminians. James I. attempted to silence it (1622); but, in fact, in his later years, the king, who had been a Calvinist all his life, and had even written a book against Vorstius, the successor of Arminius, leaned towards Arminianism. For the Synod of Dort, by ascribing equal authority to all ministers of God's Word, no matter what their position, indirectly condemned the English Church. The Puritans and Presbyterians regarded the spread of Arminianism with great dislike, and on March 2, 1629, the Commons resolved that "whosoever shall bring in innovation in religion, or by favour seek to introduce Popery or Arminianism, shall be reputed a capital enemy to the kingdom and commonwealth." But Arminianism continued to gain influence among the High Churchmen, and the term came to be applied generally to all those who objected both to the Roman and Calvinist doctrines and theory of Church government (though they considered the Roman Catholic Church as corrupt and unsound), and who wished that the English Church should occupy a middle position between Rome and Geneva. Charles I. and Laud were claimed by this party as its champions. They were supposed to be equally averse to Romanism and Puritanism, and they were regarded by the English Arminians as the great defenders of the Church from the dangers which threatened her on both sides. After the Restoration the name "Arminian" fell into disuse. [LAUD.]

Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*, i. 425, &c.; Hook, *Archbishops*; Perry, *Hist. of the Eng. Church*; S. R. Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng., 1603—1642*; Geffcken, *Church and State*.

Arms, ASSIZE OF. [ASSIZE.]

Armstrong, SIR JOHN, of Gilnockie (*d.* 1528), was the head of a powerful family, which held practically independent power on the borders of England and Scotland and the "debateable land." The Scots government, however, regarded the Armstrongs as robbers, and James V. determined to suppress them. In 1531 the king entered the border country at the head of a powerful force. Sir John Armstrong came to meet the king in great state, and attended by a train of gentlemen. He was immediately seized and hanged, together with his brother Thomas. The Pitscottie Chronicle represents him as saying to James, when his entreaties for mercy proved fruitless, "I am but ane fool to seek grace at a graceless face; but had I known, sir, that ye would have taken my life this day, I should have lived upon the borders in despite of King Harry and you both; for I know King Harry would downweigh my best horse with gold to know that I was condemned to die this day."

Chron. of Pitscottie; Armstrong, *Hist. of Liddesdale*; Burton, *Hist. of Scot.*, iii.

Army. [Military System.]

Army Plot (1641) was an attempt to use the English army, which had not been disbanded after the Scotch War, to coerce the Parliament. There were two distinct plots for this purpose: (1) Percy Wilmot and other officers and members of Parliament proposed to induce the officers of the army to sign a declaration that they would stand by the king: (*a*) if parliamentary pressure were put upon him, either to compel him to assent to the exclusion of the bishops from the House of Lords, or to force him to disband the Irish army before the Scots were disbanded; (*b*) or if the full revenue he had enjoyed for so many years were not placed in his hands. At the same time, a plot somewhat similar, but contemplating the direct employment of force, was being contrived by Sir John Suckling and Henry Jermyn with the approval of the queen. They intended to commence operations by placing the command of the army in the hands of the Earl of Newcastle and George Young. Charles at first endeavoured to get the two parties to work together, and finding this impossible, decided against Suckling's plan. Young, seeing no prospect of becoming lieutenant-general, betrayed the plot to the Earl of Newport, through whom it reached Pym (April 1). Meanwhile, Suckling had by no means abandoned his scheme, and he was also arranging an attempt to rescue Strafford from the Tower. Pym made use of his knowledge of this double plot to secure the agreement of the two Houses, and the support of the people. On May 3, the Protestation was drawn up, on the next day it was taken by the Lords, on the 5th it was agreed that a Bill should be brought in to provide against the dissolution of the Parliament, on the 8th that Bill and the Attainder Bill both passed their first reading in the Lords. The king, left without any support, gave his assent to both Bills on the 10th. Percy, Jermyn, Suckling, and others fled to France, but were declared guilty of high treason. Thus the first attempt to use the army against the Parliament gave fresh strength to the popular party. (2) At the end of May or the beginning of June, Daniel O'Neill was sent by the king to sound the officers of the army as to the feasibility of bringing up the troops to London if the neutrality of the Scots could be secured. At the same time, one of the officers was entrusted by the king with a petition, to which he was to obtain signatures in the army. The petition protested against the unreasonable demands of the popular leaders, the diminution of the king's "just regalities," and the tumultuous assemblies round the Houses of Parliament. It concluded with a promise to defend King, Church, Parliament, and Laws. The leaders of the army repudiated the petition, and O'Neill was obliged to fly, but the king still persisted in his intrigues for this purpose both during his journey to Scotland and his stay in that country. The knowledge of this new plot made Pym, on the outbreak of the Irish Rebellion, demand that the king should employ only such ministers as Parliament should approve; otherwise the Commons would be obliged to provide for Ireland without the king. He followed this by bringing the evidence before the Commons, who passed a resolution affirming that there was "a second design to bring up the army against the Parliament, and an intention to make the Scottish army stand as neutral." This event did much to secure the passing of the "Grand Remonstrance."

Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion*; May, *Hist. of the Long Parl.*; Whitelocke, *Memoirs*; S. R. Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng.* [C. H. F.]

Arnee, Battle of (June 7, 1782), took place in the Mysore War between the British, under Sir Eyre Coote, and the troops of Hyder Ali, commanded by the Sultan in person. After an indecisive action, Hyder retreated.

Arnold, Benedict (*b.* 1740, *d.* 1801), was a druggist at Newhaven, in Connecticut, when the American War of Independence broke out. On the news of the battle of Lexington, he collected a body of volunteers, seized some arms, and obtained a commission to capture Ticonderoga on Lake Champlain. Subsequently he proceeded on his own account, after surprising St. John's, to equip a small flotilla on the lake. He displayed great bravery and skill, but he offended Congress by his independence, and he was in turn offended by their want of confidence, though he was appointed to the command of Philadelphia, on its evacuation by the British forces. At length, mortified by the insults put upon him, he entered into communications with Sir H. Clinton to betray West Point. The project failed through the capture of Major André (q.v.), but Arnold managed to escape to the British lines, and for some time he commanded a corps of American refugees. He subsequently settled in the West Indies, and after being captured by, and escaping from, the French, he came to London, where he died.

J. Sparks, *Life of Arnold*; Bancroft, *Hist. of America.*

Arrah, Defence of (1857). On July 25, the 7th, 8th, and 40th Native Regiments, quartered in the district of Shahabad, Bengal, mutinied, plundered the town and station of Arrah, and, headed by Koer Singh, a Zemindar, who had rebelled, attacked a house where sixteen Englishmen and sixty Sikh police had taken refuge and fortified themselves. Mr. Boyle, an engineer, was the life of the defence, and it was to his services that

the successful conduct of it was due. An attempt to relieve the besieged from Dinapoor failed; but Major Vincent Eyre, of the artillery, formed a small field force, with which he defeated the rebels with severe loss on August 2nd, and on the 3rd released the gallant little garrison.

Sir J. Kaye, *Hist. of the Sepoy War*, vol. iii.; *Annual Register*, 1857; *Statistical Account of Bengal*, xii. 204.

Arran, Peerage of. 1. Scotch.—In 1467, Sir R. Boyd was created Earl of Arran. His widow married James, Lord Hamilton, and the earldom passed into that family. [Hamilton.] 2. Irish.—In 1693, Charles Butler, Warden of the Cinque Ports, and Master of the Ordnance in Ireland, second son of Thomas, Earl of Ossory, the son of James, Duke of Ormonde, was created Earl of Arran. The peerage, however, became extinct with him. The present peerage was conferred on Sir Arthur Gore in 1758. He was the descendant of Sir Paul Gore, captain of a troop of horse in Elizabeth's reign, who arrived in Ireland and obtained large grants of land in County Mayo.

Arran, James Hamilton, 2nd Earl of and Duke of Chatelherault (*d.* 1575), the head of the house of Hamilton, and a near relative of James V. of Scotland, acted as Regent for some time, until he was displaced by his rival the Earl of Angus, the head of the house of Douglas. On the death of James V. he again became Regent. The confirmation of a treaty with England, 1543, was quickly followed by a league on the part of the Regent and Cardinal Beaton against all English interference, and soon afterwards the English ambassador, Sir Ralph Sadler, was requested to withdraw. In 1547 Arran was defeated at Pinkie, and in 1554 the regency was transferred to Mary of Guise, Arran being rewarded for his acquiescence by the dukedom of Chatelherault, conferred on him by the French king. He joined the Lords of the Congregation and supported the Reformers; and by his opposition to the Darnley marriage, incurred the resentment of Queen Mary, so that he judged it prudent to retire to England. Returning some time afterwards, he was reconciled to the queen, and during the Civil War he and the rest of the Hamiltons supported her against the Reforming Lords. On the abdication of Mary, 1567, he was named one of the Council of Regency. In 1569 he was imprisoned by Murray in Edinburgh Castle. He was a man of fickle and vacillating character, of courteous manners, and pleasant address, but by no means fitted to fill the high position to which he was called.

Arran, James Hamilton, 3rd Earl of (*d.* 1609), was the son of the Duke of Chatelherault and the heir of the Hamiltons. Having left France, where his life was in danger from the Guises, he became one of the numerous suitors of Mary Queen of Scots, whom he planned to carry off in 1561. His failure in his suit seems to have affected his reason. He became mad, and continued a maniac till he died.

Arran, James Stuart, Earl of (*d.* 1596), was a son of Lord Ochiltree, and a brother-in-law of Knox. In 1581 he received the estates and title which the house of Hamilton had forfeited, as the reward for his zeal in procuring the condemnation of the Regent Morton. He aided Lennox in compassing the ruin of his enemy Morton; a prisoner at the "Raid of Ruthven," Arran quickly revenged himself by collecting an army in the interest of James VI., and by taking the lead against the conspirators; and having extorted a confession from Gowrie by fair promises, used it against him to his ruin. He became Chancellor and Lieutenant-General of Scotland, and on the strength of the king's favour, set himself in opposition to the rest of the Scotch barons, rousing their hatred by his arrogance. The English government found means to accuse him of instigating a border raid, and he was ordered to withdraw from the Scottish court in 1584. Shortly afterwards, on a combination against him of the Hamiltons (whose estates he held), and the banished lords, Arran had to escape as best he could to the hills of Ayrshire. He was slain by James Douglas of Torthorwold in revenge for the death of Morton.

Arras, The Congress of (1435), was assembled for the purpose of making peace between England, France, and Burgundy. Ambassadors came from England, France, Burgundy, the Pope, the Council of Basle, Castile, Aragon, Naples, Portugal, Sicily, Cyprus, Navarre, Poland, Denmark, Milan, and Brittany. The French offered to cede Normandy and Guienne to the English, but this was indignantly refused, and the Treaty of Troyes was insisted upon, certain territories south of the Loire being offered to Charles of France. This being rejected, the English representatives withdrew, and a treaty of peace and alliance was signed between France and Burgundy, by which the latter power agreed not to treat with the English without the sanction of the King of France.

Array, Commissions of, first issued under Edward I.—though their germs may be traced as early as the reign of William Rufus—were commissions given to certain individuals called Commissioners of Array to press a number of men in their district, or sometimes all men capable of bearing arms for the king's service, and to train them in military duties. Under Edward I. the forces thus raised were paid by the king, but under Edward II. and Edward III. the

cost usually fell on the townships which furnished the men. There was no doubt that these commissions, when issued without the consent of Parliament, were unconstitutional, and Edward III. had to promise that all troops levied by this means should be paid for by the king—a promise which, however, was not kept. In 1352 and 1403 it was provided that "the common assent and grant of Parliament" should be obtained before these commissions were issued, and the latter of these statutes further provided that, "except in case of invasion, none shall be constrained to go out of their own counties, and that men chosen to go on the king's service out of England shall be at the king's wages from the day they leave their own counties." Commissions of Array, which were frequently issued under the Plantagenet kings, and were not uncommon under the Lancastrians and Tudors, ceased on the creation of the office of Lord Lieutenant in the sixteenth century. The latest bears date 1557. [MILITARY SYSTEM.]

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*

Arrest, FREEDOM FROM, is the special privilege of members of both Houses of Parliament, and is enjoyed by them during the session, and for forty days before and after, except in cases of treason, felony, or breach of the peace. The earliest mention of an analogous privilege is in a law of Ethelbert in the sixth century, which provides that "If the king call his people to him, and any one there do them injury, let him compensate with a twofold 'bot,' and fifty shillings to the king." In 1290 this privilege was confirmed by Edward I., who, in reply to a petition from the Master of the Temple that he might distrain for the rent of a house held of him by the Bishop of St. Davids, replied, that "It does not seem fit that the king should grant that they who are of his council should be distrained in time of Parliament." So too in the Prior of Malton's case, in 1315. The first recognition of the privilege by Act of Parliament was in 1433, when it was enacted that any assault on a member on his way to Parliament was to be punishable by a double fine; though in 1404 Henry IV. had replied to a petition that a threefold fine might be inflicted for such an offence, that though he admitted the privilege, the existing remedy was sufficient. The existence of the privilege was thus, by usage and by statute, clearly established; but frequent violations occurred under the Angevin and Lancastrian kings. In 1301 Henry Keighley was imprisoned by Edward I. after the Parliament of Lincoln. In 1376, Peter de la Mare, the Speaker of the Good Parliament, was imprisoned at the instance of John of Gaunt: whilst in 1453 occurred the famous case of Speaker Thorpe, who was imprisoned during the prorogation of Parliament at the suit of the Duke of York. The Commons tried to obtain his release "for the despatch of the business of Parliament," but failed, though the judges held that "if a member were arrested for any less cause than treason, felony, breach of the peace, and sentence of Parliament, he should make his attorney and be released to attend in Parliament." Thorpe, however, was not released, owing to the influence of the Duke of York. In 1460, Walter Clerk, member for Chippenham, was arrested "for a fine to the king, and damages to two private suitors," whereupon the Commons demanded and obtained his release. In 1477 John Atwyll, member for Exeter, was imprisoned for debt, but was released on the petition of the House. Up to the reign of Henry VIII. arrested members had obtained their release either by special Act of Parliament if they were imprisoned in execution after judgment, or by a writ of privilege issued by the Chancellor if confined on mesne process (*i.e.*, after the commencement of a suit but before judgment); but, in 1543, in the case of George Ferrers, who had been arrested as surety for a debt, the House demanded his release by virtue of its own authority, and on the refusal of the sheriffs to liberate him committed them to prison for contempt, their proceedings being confirmed by the king. From this time members were usually released by the Serjeant by warrant of the mace, not by writ. In 1603 occurred the case of Sir Thomas Shirley, whom the warder of the Fleet refused to release for fear of becoming personally liable for his debt. This led to an Act discharging from all liability the officer from whose custody a person having the privilege of Parliament has been delivered, and enabling the creditor to sue out a new writ on the expiration of the period of privilege. The privilege of freedom from arrest for some time belonged not only to members of Parliament but also to their servants (as in Smalley's case, 1575, and Johnson's case, 1621), but in 1770 was confined to the persons of members, owing to the frequent abuse of the privilege, which was used as a means of escape from debt. As lately as 1880 it was decided on precedents that the duration of the privilege is forty days before and after the meeting of Parliament; on the ground that the time must be clearly defined. The House of Commons has always maintained its powers of imprisoning its own members for contempt, as in the case of John Stone in 1547, and Arthur Hall in 1581. The right of a member of Parliament to claim freedom from arrest has never been allowed to extend to criminal offences; and though in 1572 Lord Cromwell obtained his release after committal for contempt of court, in more recent times, members committed by courts of law for open contempt have failed in obtaining release by virtue of privilege, "though," observes Sir Erskine May, "each case is still

open to consideration when it arises." [PARLIAMENT.]

J. Hatsell, *Precedents*, vol. i. (ed. of 1818); Sir E. May, *Parliamentary Practice;* Hallam, *Const. Hist.* [F. S. P.]

Arthur, KING, the famous British and Christian hero of romance, had already become the centre of much Celtic legend, especially in Brittany, when Geoffrey of Monmouth published, in 1130, his *Historia Britonum.* This work, though it poisoned the very fountains of history, acquired, in spite of protest (*e.g.*, by William of Malmesbury), wide popularity, and became the source of that elaborate legend of Arthur and his Round Table which has inspired so much that is best in literature. Geoffrey's fictions were largely regarded as history, until, by an inevitable reaction, Milton and most of the eighteenth century writers were led to disbelieve that any Arthur had really lived. Gildas, nearly a contemporary, makes no mention of him, though the frequent allusion to him in the obscure utterances of the Welsh bards, edited by Mr. Skene, may be set against this. But many deny the historical value of the *Four Books*, and the earliest really historical notices of Arthur are found in "Nennius" and the Welsh tenth century chronicle called *Annales Cambriæ* (MS. A.). Nennius says (*Mon. Hist. Britan.*, 73-4), "Artur pugnabat contra illos [videlicet Saxones] cum regibus Britonum; sed ipse dux erat bellorum, et in omnibus bellis victor exstitit." He then gives a list of Arthur's twelve victories, ending with the battle "in monte Badonis." This the *Annales Cambriæ* place in A.D. 516, and make Arthur a Christian hero. The same authority places his death at the battle of Camlan, in 537. Will this evidence compensate for the silence of Gildas? All really depends on our estimate of Nennius. Many, like Milton, repudiate Nennius as a "very trivial author;" but others, including Dr. Guest and Mr. Skene, fully accept his authority, though recognising the fragmentary and unequal character of the series of treatises that collectively go by his name. Mr. Skene (*Four Ancient Books of Wales*, i. 50—89; *Celtic Scotland*, i. 152; cf. Glennie's *Arthurian Localities*) claims that Arthur was the leader of the Northern Cymry of Strathclyde and Cumbria against the Saxons; and identifies places in those regions as the scenes of the twelve battles—Mons Badonis being Bouden Hill, near Linlithgow. Arthur, according to this view, is not a king, but a temporary general, the "Gwledig," who led the combined hosts of the princes of the Northern Britons to unwonted victories. He was the successor of the Roman generals of the legions encamped along the Pictish wall. His victories led to the restriction of the Saxons to the country east of the Pennine range, and so created the Cumbrian kingdom. He died defeated by a revolt of the heathen British, perhaps in alliance with the Saxons. The great authority of Dr. Guest (*Archæological Journal*, Salisbury volume, 1849) also accepts Arthur as a real person, but places the scene of his victories in the western border-land of the growing State of the West Saxons (*e.g.*, Mons Badonis is Badbury, in Dorsetshire). Mr. Elton (*Origins of British History*, p. 362) doubtfully follows Mr. Skene; while Professor Rhŷs (*Celtic Britain*, p. 231) regards Arthur as the "ideal champion of the Brythonic race," whether in Wales, Cumbria, Cornwall, or Brittany. "Whether he was from the first a purely imaginary character, in whom the best qualities of his race met, or had some foundation in the facts of long forgotten history, it would be difficult to say." Perhaps nothing more decided than this can safely be said.

Besides the above-mentioned authorities, the *Myvyrian Archaiology of Wales* may be referred to as containing the texts of the Welsh legends of Arthur. Geoffrey of Monmouth's *British History* is translated in Bohn's series, and the *Mabinogion* has been translated by Lady Charlotte Guest. For the influence of the Arthurian legend on the literature of Germany, France, and Scandinavia, see an essay by Albert Schulz (Llandovery, 1841). There are many editions of *Les Romans de la Table Ronde* (*e.g.*, Paris, 1860), and Malory's *Morte d'Arthur* has been reprinted, in 1817 by Southey, in 1856 by Wright, and by Walter Scott, 1886. The literature on the Arthurian legend is almost endless. [T. F. T.]

Arthur of Brittany (*b.* 1187, *d.* 1203) was the son of Geoffrey Plantagenet and Constance, Duchess of Brittany. His mother's championship of the independence of her duchy no doubt damaged her son's chances of succeeding to the crown of his uncle. She had, moreover, completely alienated Richard and Queen Eleanor, so that, on Richard's death, John was unanimously accepted as king. Arthur's only hope lay in gaining the assistance of Philip Augustus, who at first seemed willing to help him; and the Barons of Anjou, Maine, and Touraine, declared for him. War broke out between Philip and John, but the former was more eager for his own interests than for Arthur, and very soon peace was concluded, by which Philip's eldest son Louis was to marry Blanche of Castile, John's niece, John giving her the county of Evreux as a marriage portion. Arthur, who was betrothed to one of Philip's daughters, was forced to do homage to John for Brittany. Quarrels very shortly broke out between John and Philip, who offered to receive the homage of Arthur for the county of Anjou, and allow his knights to join him in conquering it. Arthur commenced operations by attacking his grandmother Eleanor at Mirabel; but he was captured by John, who imprisoned him, first at Falaise, and afterwards at Rouen, where he died. The manner of Arthur's death is unknown, nor is it ever likely to be determined with certainty. All that the historians of the next reign could say was that Arthur disappeared. "Elapso igitur aliquanto tempore Arthurus evanuit." (Matt. Paris, *Chron.*

Anglo., iii., p. 221.). The generally received account of his death, which has been consecrated by tradition and poetry, was, that he was murdered by his uncle's own hand, and his body thrown into the Seine. The peers of France found John guilty of the murder, but it is doubtful how far this can be held as confirmatory of the accusation.

The *Chronicles* of R. Hoveden, Radulf de Coggeshall, and Matthew Paris (Rolls Series); C. H. Pearson, *Hist. of Eng. in the Early and Mid. Ages.*

Arthur, PRINCE (*b.* 1486, *d.* 1502), was the eldest son of Henry VII. His marriage with Catherine of Aragon was first agreed upon between the Kings of Spain and England in March, 1489, when he was not yet three years old, and he was little more than fifteen when the actual wedding ceremony was celebrated at St. Paul's, Nov. 14, 1501. Bacon describes the young prince as a studious youth, and learned beyond his years. His name of Arthur was a graceful acknowledgment on Henry's part of his own British descent through Sir Owen Tudor.

Bacon, *Hist. of Henry VII.*

Articles, LORDS OF THE, appointed first in 1369, in the reign of David II., became gradually a recognised part of the legislative machinery of Scotland. The "Lords" consisted of a committee chosen equally from each estate to prepare the various measures, which, when completed, were laid before the Estates for final adoption or rejection. William III. endeavoured to remodel the system in 1689, and ordered that the Lords should consist of twenty-four persons, eight being chosen from each estate, and took away their power of rejecting absolutely any motion laid before them. The Estates, however, voted that a permanent committee was objectionable, and in 1690 William gave his assent to a measure abolishing the Lords of the Articles, and providing for temporary committees, to be elected as occasion might arise. [ESTATES.]

Articles of Grievances, voted April, 1689, by the Scotch Estates, protested against sundry laws which were held to be burdensome and dangerous, and were intended to show William III. in what cases reforms were needed. The Estates complained chiefly of the laws passed in the Parliament of 1685; of the reference of legislative proceedings to permanent committees to the injury of free parliamentary discussion; and of the Act of 1669 which made the Sovereign head of the Church. The Articles of Grievances differed from the Claim of Right in that the former laid down fundamental rules of the constitution which had been violated by James II.; the latter merely petitioned for certain necessary reforms.

Articles of Religion. In England, as in other European countries, the Reformation period was marked by several attempts to codify or embody in an authoritative form the articles of religious belief. With a view to putting an end to discussion, Henry VIII., with the aid of his theological advisers, compiled a *Book of Articles*, which was laid before Convocation in 1536, and subscribed by all its members. These Articles established the Bible, the three Creeds, and the first four Councils as the basis of belief; limited the Sacraments to three, baptism, penance, and the Eucharist; declared that, though the use of images, the worship of saints, and the ritual of the church services had not in themselves power to remit sins, yet they were useful to lift up men's minds unto God; accepted purgatory, but denounced pardons, and masses for the dead. These Articles pleased neither the Reformers nor the Romanists, and were accepted merely at the king's command. In 1539 Henry VIII.'s policy led him to check the growth of the reforming doctrines, and Parliament passed the Bill of the *Six Articles*, which affirmed transubstantiation, the reception of the communion under one kind, the celibacy of the clergy, the binding power of vows of chastity, private masses, and auricular confession. Soon after the death of Henry VIII., in the Parliament of 1547 the Statute of the Six Articles was repealed. In 1551 an order of the Council was issued to Archbishop Cranmer bidding him frame Articles of Religion. This task the archbishop discharged with caution and deliberation. He consulted with others, circulated a rough draft, and laid it before the Council. After many revisions it was handed for final consideration and emendation to five of the royal chaplains, and to John Knox, the Scottish Reformer. Though it was thus discussed and revised, the draft was in the main the work of Cranmer and his friend Bishop Ridley, who is said to have supplied the greater share of learning. There is some doubt whether or not these Articles were submitted to Convocation; but the evidence seems to show that they were. Finally, they were issued in 1553, with the royal mandate to all the bishops ordering them to call on all clergy, schoolmasters, and churchwardens, to subscribe. These Articles of Edward VI., from their number, are sometimes known as the *Forty-two Articles.* They show that Cranmer in framing them used the Lutheran Confessions of Faith, especially the Confession of Augsburg, though he did not merely copy them. The accession of Queen Mary within two months of the publication of the Forty-two Articles did not give them much time to sink into the minds of the clergy. On the accession of Elizabeth, Archbishop Parker was called on to provide for the troubled condition of ecclesiastical matters. In 1559 *Eleven Articles* were issued by authority, to be held by all clergy. They were limited to the definition of fundamental truths, and the points in

which the Church of England held the Roman practice to be superstitious. These were meant to be temporary only, while Parker reconsidered the Forty-two Articles of Edward VI. He revised them, and laid the results of his revision before Convocation in 1562. As Cranmer had used the Confession of Augsburg, Parker made further use of the Confession of Wurtemberg. In his revision he omitted four of the original Forty-two Articles—the tenth, "Of Grace;" the sixteenth, "Of Blasphemy against the Holy Ghost;" the nineteenth, "All men are bound to keep the Moral Commandments of the Law" (the first part of which was added to the seventh); and the forty-first, against "Heretics called Millenarii." He added four others—the fifth, twelfth, nineteenth, and thirtieth of the present edition. Besides these greater changes, the phraseology was altered in many points. The Convocation made further alterations, and several important omissions. It struck out the end of the third Article, concerning the preaching of Christ to the spirits in prison, and entirely discarded three articles—"The souls of them that depart this life do neither die with the bodies, nor sleep idly;" "The resurrection of the dead is not yet brought to pass;" "All men shall not be saved at the length." The Articles, now reduced in number to thirty-nine, were submitted to the queen, who further struck out the present twenty-ninth Article, "Of the wicked which eat not the Body of Christ in the use of the Lord's Supper." She further added to the twentieth Article the clause, "The Church hath power to decree rites or ceremonies, and authority in controversies of faith." The Articles were originally in Latin; but an English translation was soon issued of the *Thirty-eight Articles* as they passed the revision of the queen and Council. In 1571 the Articles were committed by Convocation to Bishop Jewel for editorship. They were then put into their present form, and were issued both in Latin and English—both versions being authoritative and official. The twenty-ninth Article was restored, and the other alteration of the queen, on the authority of the Church to determine rites and ceremonies, was retained in the English Articles, but omitted in the Latin. The *Thirty-nine Articles* were then approved by Parliament, and a statute was passed requiring subscription from all candidates for holy orders. From this time forward they have been the standard of the opinions of the Church of England. Accordingly, the "Constitutions and Canons Ecclesiastical" passed by Convocation in 1603, and confirmed by royal authority, enacted excommunication as the penalty to any one who "declared the Thirty-nine Articles to be erroneous, superstitious, or such as he may not with a good conscience subscribe unto." But these Canons, not having been passed by Parliament, are binding only as ecclesiastical law on the clergy, not on the laity. As regards the legal aspect of the Thirty-nine Articles, the Act of 1571 enacted that no one should be admitted to a benefice till he had subscribed the Articles in the presence of the Ordinary, and publicly read them in the parish church, with a declaration of his unfeigned assent. The Canons of 1603 further enacted that no one should teach, either in a school or in a private house, unless he subscribed the Thirty-nine Articles and obtained a licence from a bishop. The Act of Uniformity, passed in 1662, embodied this provision. The Toleration Act of 1689 exempted from the penalties of existing statutes against conventicles such dissenting ministers and teachers as should subscribe the Thirty-nine Articles, omitting the thirty-fourth, thirty-fifth, thirty-sixth, and the words of the twentieth which declare that the Church has power to decree rites and ceremonies. Those who had scruples about infant baptism were exempted from subscription to part of the twenty-seventh Article. This Act was the beginning of a period of indulgence and security from persecution to Dissenters, which went on till in 1779 was passed the Dissenting Ministers' Act, enabling Dissenters to preach and act as schoolmasters without any subscription to the Articles. From this time forward subscription to the Articles ceased to be a test for the exclusion of Dissenters, except in the Universities. At Oxford, the Earl of Leicester as Chancellor had, in 1581, imposed subscription to the Articles before matriculation. At Cambridge, subscription, since 1616, was required of all who took a degree. Thus, Dissenters could not enter the University of Oxford; they might be educated at Cambridge, but were not admitted to any of the endowments. These disabilities were not removed till the passing of the University Tests Act in 1871, which exempted laymen from any religious test. Thus the Articles have ceased to be used as a standard of orthodoxy for any save the clergy of the Church of England. Even in their case it was felt that subscription to a body of doctrinal statements was an excessive obligation, if it was meant to imply literal agreement with every sentence contained in them. To avoid further ambiguities, and to relieve scrupulous consciences on this point, the Clerical Subscription Act of 1866 did away with subscription in the case of the clergy, and substituted a declaration of assent to the Thirty-nine Articles and the Prayer Book.

Cardwell, *Synodalia*; Hardwick, *History of the Articles*. [M. C.]

Articles of War are framed by the crown for the better government of the army and navy. Those which are in force for the army were first authorised in 1714, and are confirmed annually in the Mutiny

Act, the Articles of War for the Navy being based on a Bill passed in 1749. The Articles of War, "which are to be obeyed as being the commands of a superior officer," are divided into sections, some of which correspond to clauses in the Mutiny Act: others, however, though they relate to subjects in the latter, are occupied with definitions of the crime and the punishment appropriate to it. There are some Articles, moreover, which have no counterpart in the Act. It is to be observed that the legality of the Articles of War, as of other orders, may itself become the subject of examination and controversy in a court martial; but the Mutiny Act, being part of the statute law, must be obeyed without question. [MILITARY SYSTEM.]

Articuli Super Cartas were certain articles, twenty in number, which were added to Magna Charta when it was confirmed by Edward I. in the Parliament which met, 1300. The most important clauses are those which appoint commissioners to investigate all cases in which the charters had been infringed; those which reform and regulate the jury system; those which remedy the abuses of purveyance and jurisdiction of the royal officers; and those which order that no common pleas shall be held in the Exchequer contrary to the form of Magna Charta, and forbid the issue of common law writs under the Privy Seal. One article, which Dr. Stubbs calls "a curious relic of the ideas of 1258," allows the office of sheriff to be elective in counties where the office is not of fee or heritable. There were also articles regulating administration of the forests, and limiting the royal jurisdiction over them.

Statutes of the Realm, i. 136; Matthew of Westminster, p. 433; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, ii., ch. xiv. The articles are given in Stubbs, *Select Charters*.

Arundel, PEERAGE OF. Roger de Montgomery, one of the most trusted followers of William the Conqueror, besides grants of land in Shropshire, received vast estates (seventy-seven lordships) in Sussex, including the castle of Arundel. In 1102, upon the forfeiture of Roger's son, Robert de Belesme, the castle of Arundel passed to the crown, and was settled by Henry I. on his second wife, Adeliza of Louvain, who, after the king's death, conveyed it to her second husband, William de Albini. It is doubtful whether William de Albini, the son of this marriage, received a grant of the third penny of the county of Sussex; but he is styled Earl of Sussex, as well as Earl of Arundel and Chichester. In 1243 Hugh de Albini, fifth Earl of Sussex, died without issue, and part of his estates, together with Arundel Castle, passed to John Fitz-Alan, a descendant of Isabel, daughter of the third Earl. He and his sons are frequently styled Lords of Arundel. Richard Fitz-Alan (*d.* 1283) is the first of this family actually summoned as Earl of Arundel (1291) by writ. His son Edmund was beheaded in 1326, and his honours forfeited. They were, however, restored to Richard, third Earl, in 1331. In 1580 Henry Fitz-Alan, twelfth Earl, died without male heirs, and the earldom and estates passed to Philip, son of Thomas, fourth Duke of Norfolk, who had married Mary, daughter of this earl. Philip was summoned to Parliament as Earl of Arundel. The earldom has since continued in the line of the Fitz-Alan Howards, Dukes of Norfolk. [HOWARD.] The peerage of ARUNDEL OF WARDOUR was conferred in 1605 on Sir Thomas Arundel, a distinguished soldier, who had fought in the wars against the Turks, and had been created a Count of the Holy Roman Empire by Rudolph II.

For interesting questions connected with the peerage of Arundel, see the *Lords' First Report on the Dignity of a Peer*, esp. *Appendix*; and Sir Harris Nicolas, *Historic Peerage*.

Arundel, EDMUND FITZ-ALAN, 2ND EARL OF (*d.* 1326), was one of the Ordainers appointed in 1310. He was one of the few nobles who remained faithful to Edward II. after the landing of Isabella and Mortimer. He was seized by the latter at Bristol, and hanged with Hugh Despenser.

Arundel, RICHARD FITZ-ALAN, 4TH EARL OF (*d.* 1397), was the son of Richard, Earl of Arundel, and Eleanor, daughter of Henry, Earl of Lancaster. He succeeded his father in 1375, and served in the French and Scotch wars; but he was chiefly remarkable for his valour and conduct at sea. He was for several years admiral and captain of the east, south, and west, gained several naval victories, and captured Brest. He joined Gloucester against De la Pole and De Vere; and was one of the first Lords Appellant. In 1397 he was involved in Gloucester's fall, and was seized, tried, and beheaded.

Arundel, THOMAS FITZ-ALAN, 10TH EARL OF (*d.* 1524), was one of the chief nobles attached to Henry VII.'s court. On the occasion of the shipwreck near Weymouth, in January, 1506, of the Archduke of Austria, Philip, and his wife, the Earl of Arundel was the royal messenger sent to congratulate Philip upon his recent escape, and to welcome him to England. The Earl of Arundel had also done the king good service as a soldier in Flanders, during the wars in aid of Maximilian.

Arundel, HENRY FITZ-ALAN, 12TH EARL OF (*d.* 1580), was in 1547 appointed one of the twelve councillors who, under the will of Henry VIII., were to assist the executors in carrying on the government during the minority of Edward VI. He was one of the chief promoters of the attack on Somerset, which ended in his downfall; and having given an unwilling assent to the alteration of the succession of Edward VI. in favour of Lady

Jane Grey, he was regarded with suspicion by Northumberland, who endeavoured to prevent his leaving London. However, he managed to escape to Baynard's Castle, and at once, with the rest of the Council, declared for Mary; shortly afterwards he arrested the Duke of Northumberland at Cambridge, and conveyed him to London. After the accession of Queen Elizabeth, Arundel became one of her councillors, "feared by all men, trusted by none," and was even named as a probable suitor for her hand, a fact which led to a bitter quarrel with Leicester in 1561. In 1568, as the leader of the old nobility and the Catholic party, he showed himself violently opposed to Cecil and the Reformers, and was present at the Westminster Inquiry as a partisan of Mary Queen of Scots; in the following year he was placed under arrest for complicity in the northern rebellion, and in 1571 was privy to the Ridolfi conspiracy.

Froude, *Hist of Eng.*; P. F. Tytler, *England under Edward VI. and Mary.*

Arundel, Philip Howard, 13th Earl of (*d.* 1595), son of Thomas, fourth Duke of Norfolk, who was attainted and beheaded in 1572, inherited the earldom of Arundel in right of his mother. He was restored in blood and made privy councillor in 1580. On his first appearance at court he won the favour of Elizabeth, but quickly lost it through his immoral life. In 1583 he was charged with complicity in the plot of Francis Throgmorton, having incurred suspicion by becoming "reconciled" to the Catholic Church in 1581 on the solicitations of the Jesuits; but though there was no doubt of his guilt, he was speedily released. On attempting to escape from England, in 1585, he was captured and again sent to the Tower, where he remained until his death. In 1589 he was found guilty of high treason on a charge of having prayed for the success of the Spanish Armada. He was also charged with correspondence with Allen and other Catholic conspirators. He was condemned to death, but by the advice of Cecil and Hatton was not executed. "In her conduct towards this unfortunate nobleman," remarks Mr. Lingard, "the queen betrayed an unaccountable spirit of revenge. He seems to have given some deep but secret offence which, though never divulged, could never be forgotten."

Strype, *Annals*; Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.*

Arundel, Thomas (*b. circa* 1352, *d.* 1414), was the third son of Richard, Earl of Arundel, and was made Bishop of Ely in 1374. He joined Gloucester in his opposition to De la Pole and other ministers of Richard II., and in 1386 was appointed Chancellor. On the banishment of Neville he received the archbishopric of York, and retired from the Chancellorship in 1389. He was Chancellor again from 1391, till his appointment to the archbishopric of Canterbury in 1396. Shortly afterwards he was accused of treason, and at the king's request translated by the Pope to the see of St. Andrews. He was banished from the realm, and concerted with Bolingbroke plans for regaining power in England. He accompanied Henry on his expedition to England, and on the deposition of Richard received the archbishopric once more. He strenuously supported the rights of the Church during the remainder of his life, and was instrumental in getting the statute *De Hæretico Comburendo* passed. He held the Chancellorship again from 1407 to 1409, and from 1412 to 1413.

Hook, *Archbishops of Canterbury*; Foss, *Judges of England*; Walton, *Richard II.*

Arundel, Sir Thomas (*d.* 1552), was one of the most trusted and sagacious of Henry VIII.'s councillors. He enjoyed much influence with the king, and was appointed one of the twenty-four executors appointed to carry out that sovereign's will. He was the brother-in-law and intimate friend of the Protector Somerset, in whose fall he was involved. He was executed on a charge of treason, Feb., 1552.

Asaf-ul-Dowlah (*d.* 1797) succeeded his father, Sujah Dowlah, as Vizier of Oude, in 1775, and was ultimately recognised by the Emperor. A treaty was concluded with the English, by which the Vizier agreed to surrender Benares and certain other districts of the annual value of twenty-two lacs. This Vizier misgoverned, as his father had done, and by 1781 was in a state of the greatest pecuniary embarrassment. Hastings therefore concluded an arrangement with him, one main object of which was to relieve him from burdens which he professed himself totally unable to bear. It was provided by the new treaty that a portion of the British forces should be withdrawn, that the Vizier might resume all jaghires on payment of compensation. The second article enabled the Vizier to dispossess the Begums (his mother and grandmother) of Oude of their jaghires, and was the prelude to the cruelties exercised to compel them to surrender their treasures, 1782. The impoverishment of the Vizier, however, continued steadily, owing to his misgovernment and debauchery, and in 1786 his repeated requests that the British force should be removed induced Lord Cornwallis to make a fresh treaty with him, by which the money paid for the support of the brigade at Futtygurh was reduced from seventy-four to fifty lacs on the condition that it should be punctually paid. The misgovernment, however, continued, and the Vizier passed the rest of his life in oppressing his subjects, and indulging in boundless sensuality.

Cornwallis Despatches; Mill, *Hist. of India*; Macaulay's Essay on Warren Hastings.

Ascalon, a town on the coast of Syria, about twelve miles from Gaza, was a place of

great strength and importance in the earlier Crusades. It was to this town that Richard I. led the crusading army after the fall of Acre in the early part of 1192. On the way his troops were intercepted by a great Saracen army, under the command of Saladin, said to amount to over 300,000 men. The two wings of the Christian army were broken; but the centre, commanded by Richard himself, held firm, and at last drove back the enemy in great disorder. 40,000 of the Saracens are said to have perished. The victory threw the town of Ascalon into the hands of the Crusaders.

Ascension Island, situated in the South Atlantic, was discovered by the Portuguese on Ascension Day, 1501. It was never colonised until it was seized by the English in 1815, during the captivity of Napoleon in the neighbouring island of St. Helena.

Ascham, Antony (*d.* 1650), an author "of much reputation," was sent by the Commonwealth, in 1650, as ambassador to Madrid. A few days after his arrival there, he was assassinated by some refugee Royalists. The murderers, with the exception of one who was executed, were allowed to escape, public opinion in the Spanish capital being entirely in their favour. [Dorislaus.]

Ascham, Roger (*b.* 1515, *d.* 1568), one of the earliest of English Greek scholars, and at one time public orator at Cambridge, became successively Latin secretary to Edward VI., Queen Mary, and Elizabeth, and was also tutor to the last-named princess in 1548, being charged with her instruction in the learned languages. In 1550 he accompanied Sir William Morysine in the capacity of secretary to the court of Charles V. On the accession of Queen Elizabeth, Ascham was, in 1559, made a canon of York. As a writer of English prose Ascham deserves high praise. His style, though somewhat rugged, is pithy and vigorous. His work on education, entitled *The Schoolmaster*, is interesting and valuable. He also wrote *Toxophilus*, a treatise on archery, and *A Report of the Affairs and State of Germany*, which is of some historical value.

Ascham's *Works*, ed. by Dr. Giles, 1856; A. Katterfeld, *Roger Ascham: sein Leben und seine Werke*, 1879. An edition of *The Schoolmaster*, with notes, has been published by Mr. J. E. B. Mayor.

Ascue (**Askew,** or **Ayscough**), Anne (*d.* 1546), daughter of Sir Thomas Ascue, of Kelsey, in Lincolnshire, was arrested as a heretic for denying the doctrine of the Real Presence in the Sacrament. From her intimacy with Catherine Parr, Anne Ascue's prosecution for heresy is memorable, as it instanced, among other things, the hostility of Bishop Gardiner and Lord Chancellor Wriothesley to the queen; for before being handed over to the executioner for the punishment of burning, Anne, in spite of her sex, was made to undergo in the Tower the torture of the rack, with a view of extorting from her in her agony some avowal implicating other court ladies, and possibly the queen. Wriothesley's efforts are generally thought to have been entirely fruitless; though Parsons, in his "Examen" of Foxe's account of her, states that she actually did so: "By her confession, he (the king) learned so much of Queen Catherine Parr as he purposed to have her burned also, had he lived."

Narratives of the Reformation (Camden Soc.); Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*

Asgill, John (*b.* 1659, *d.* 1738), was the author of various pamphlets, including a treatise, published in 1698, on the possibility of avoiding death. He was elected to the Irish Parliament, and subsequently to the English Parliament, but was expelled on account of the blasphemy of his book. The character of the treatise was animadverted upon in the trial of Dr. Sacheverell. Asgill wrote also a tract, *De Jure Divino*, on the hereditary claims of the House of Hanover; *The Succession of the House of Hanover Vindicated;* and an *Essay for the Press.*

Asgill, Sir Charles (*b.* 1762, *d.* 1823), in 1780 was a lieutenant in the army of Lord Cornwallis in North America, when that general capitulated at York Town. In the following year the Americans, to revenge the death of a certain Republican officer, cast lots for a victim among their English prisoners. The lot fell on Asgill; but his mother went over to France, and persuaded Marie Antoinette to interest herself on his behalf with the American envoy. The intercession of the French queen was successful. Asgill was released, continued in the army, and in 1794 served under the Duke of York in the Low Countries. In 1798 he was placed in command of a large body of troops for the suppression of the Irish rebellion, and after the Union was for many years employed in various offices in Ireland.

Ash, Simeon (*d.* 1662), was one of those clergymen who were ejected from their livings by Laud for refusing to read the declaration concerning the *Book of Sports*. He became chaplain to the Earl of Manchester, and had considerable influence with Presbyterian leaders in the war. He was, however, a strong opponent of the Commonwealth, and was one of those who went to Breda to congratulate Charles II. on his restoration.

Ash was present at the battle of Marston Moor, and wrote an interesting and valuable account of the campaign, *A true relation of the moste chiefe occurrences at and since the late battell at Newberry . . . . to vindicate the Earle of Manchester* (Lond., 1644).

Ashantee is a country of western Africa in the interior of the Gold Coast and to the north of the river Prah. It first came under the notice of Englishmen in 1807,

when its king, Sy Tutu, attacked Annamaboe, a fort on the coast built by the English after the settlement in 1661. Soon afterwards peace was concluded on disgraceful terms, and it lasted until 1824, when, the Ashantees having attacked the Fantees, over whom the English had established a protectorate, Sir Charles MacCarthy, governor of Cape Coast Castle, advanced with a handful of men against the king, but was surprised and slain at Esmacow. In 1826, the death of MacCarthy was avenged at the battle of Dudowah. Though there were one or two skirmishes between the Ashantees and the English troops, peace was, on the whole, maintained from that date until 1863, when on the refusal of Governor Pine to give up some runaway slaves to the King of Ashantee, war was begun by the latter. The governor drove the savages back to the Prah, but his West Indian troops fell victims to the climate, and he was compelled to withdraw. Once more peace was proclaimed. In 1871 the question whether England or Ashantee should rule the territory between the Prah and the coast, was brought to a final issue by the cession to England by the Dutch of all their claims on the Gold Coast on condition that they should be allowed to annex lands in Sumatra. Thereupon King Coffee Calcali, who had ascended the throne in 1867, objected to the transfer of the town of Elmina on the ground that it always paid him a fixed annual tribute; he had also taken captive some missionaries, whom he did not wish to ransom. He therefore decided on renewing the war, and his general, Amanquatia, accordingly crossed the Prah, and drove the cowardly Fantees before them to the coast, but was himself driven from before Elmina by Colonel Festing. Sir Garnet Wolseley was sent out in October to take civil and military command of the Gold Coast, while Captain Glover, R.N., who had been sent out by the Colonial Office, made an attempt to raise a native force at the mouth of the Volta. Native troops were, however, very untrustworthy, and pending the arrival of some English soldiers, Sir Garnet Wolseley could only occupy and stockade the advanced posts on the road to the Prah. With the arrival of English troops in December, Sir Garnet was able to invade Ashantee; and on Jan. 31 he encountered the Ashantees at Amoaful, and defeated them. On Feb. 4 the English reached Coomassie, which they fired. The army was overtaken on its return march by envoys from King Coffee, and a treaty was concluded, by which the king agreed to pay 50,000 ounces of gold, to renounce all rights over the tribes formerly under the protection of the Dutch, to allow free trade, to keep the road between the Prah and Coomassie open, and to discontinue human sacrifices. In 1895 these engagements were broken by King Prempeh, against whom a British expedition was sent under Sir F. Scott. It entered Coomassie without opposition on Jan. 18, 1896. To enforce payment of the fine imposed, the king and other hostages were taken to the coast, and a Resident was appointed at Coomassie. In 1900 a rising broke out, but was suppressed by Sir James Willcocks. In 1901 Ashantee was definitely annexed by Great Britain, the Governor of the Gold Coast being appointed its Governor.

Brakenbury, *The Ashantee War;* H. M. Stanley, *Coomassie and Magdala;* Reade, *Story of the Ashantee Campaign.* For the 1895-6 campaign, B. Burleigh, *Two Campaigns.*

Ashburnham, Sir John (*d.* 1671), a descendant of an old Sussex family, sat in the Long Parliament, and took a prominent part on the Royalist side, and at the outbreak of the Civil War joined the king, and was appointed treasurer and paymaster to the army. He attended Charles I. when he gave himself up to the Scots, and immediately afterwards fled to France. In 1647 he returned, and became one of the king's personal attendants, and was the chief contriver of Charles's escape from Hampton Court. The business was mismanaged, and Ashburnham was accused of treachery by the Royalists; for which, however, there seems to be little ground. He remained in England after the king's death, and compounded for his estate, but being detected in sending money to Charles II., he was in 1654 imprisoned in the Tower, where he remained till Cromwell's death. At the Restoration he received large grants of land, and was made Groom of the Bedchamber to the king.

Ashburnham's *Narrative of his Attendance on King Charles the First* was published by his descendant, Lord Ashburnham, in 1830.

Ashburton, John Dunning, 1st Lord (*b.* 1731, *d.* 1783), was the son of an attorney at Ashburton, in Devonshire. After being articled to his father, he came up to London and was called to the Bar. In 1760 he made a great reputation by the defence which he drew up on behalf of the East India Company against the Dutch claims. In 1763 he still further increased his fame by his eloquence in the cause of Wilkes against the legality of general warrants. In 1766 he became Recorder of Bristol; was appointed in the next year Solicitor-General; and obtained, in 1768, a seat in Parliament as member for Calne. In 1770 he went out of office, and throughout Lord North's long administration, vigorously opposed the government policy. He warmly maintained the legality of the Middlesex election, opposed the Test Act, seconded Sir George Savile's motion for an inquiry into government pensions, and was one of the most persistent opponents of the policy pursued towards the American Colonies. In 1782, when the Marquis of Rockingham came into power, Dunning was appointed Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, and raised to the peerage.

Ashburton Treaty, The (1846), was concluded between England and America for settling the frontiers of the two countries. It defined them to run along the forty-ninth parallel of north latitude from the great lakes to the middle of the channel which separates the continent from Vancouver's Island, and thence southerly through the middle of that channel to the Pacific. It neglected, however, to define the middle of the channel, and in consequence a dispute, which was settled in 1872 by arbitration, arose as to the ownership of the little island of San Juan.

Ashby, Sir John (*b.* 1642, *d.* 1693), a distinguished naval officer, was appointed captain of the *Defiance*, and took part in the engagement with the French fleet in Bantry Bay. In 1692 he fought in the battle of La Hogue, and, together with Delaval, was entrusted with the pursuit of the French ships. Nottingham afterwards accused him in Parliament, together with Admiral Russell, of negligence in the latter part of the engagement, and though triumphantly acquitted, Ashby seems never to have taken active service again. [La Hogue.]

Ashby *v.* **White.** [Aylesbury Case.]

Ashdown (Æscdun). The name of the place on the Berkshire downs, near Didcot, where was fought, in 871, a great battle between the West Saxons, led by Ethelred and Alfred, and the Danish host, which had spread over East Anglia and invaded Wessex this year. The Danes had seized Reading, and before this town the Saxons were badly beaten. A few days later they again attacked their foes at Ashdown. A desperate battle was fought, lasting all day, and ending in the flight of the Danes. One of their kings and five of their "jarls" fell in the battle. The victory was in great part due to the vigour and promptitude of Alfred, who led one of the two divisions of the Wessex army. [Alfred.]

Anglo-Sax. Chron., an. 871; Asser, *De Reb. Gest. Ælfredi.*

Ashtee, The Battle of (1818), was fought between the English troops under General Smith and Bajee Rao. The latter, after the battle of Korgaom, retreated, pursued by the British, who on the 19th of February came up with him at the village of Ashtee, and prepared immediately for the attack. The Peishwa, heaping reproaches on his brave general, Gokla, for this surprise, fled at once, leaving his army to cover his retreat. Gokla, stung by the insult, placed himself at the head of 300 horse, rushed on the sabres of the British cavalry, and fell covered with wounds. After his death the Peishwa's army was easily discomfited, and fled in hopeless confusion.

Aske, Robert (*d.* 1537), was a gentleman of Yorkshire, and the chief organiser of the famous rebellion of Henry VIII.'s reign known as the Pilgrimage of Grace (q.v.). His sympathies with the prevalent discontent seem to have been excited originally by his accidental sojourn at Lincoln during the disturbances there in September, 1536. While the various leaders of the movement were executed, Robert Aske had the distinction of being hanged in chains on one of the towers of York. Aske's talents for organisation and command, and his moderation and integrity, make him a very remarkable character.

Asquith, The Right Hon. Herbert Henry (*b.* 1852), was educated at the City of London School and at Balliol College, Oxford. He was called to the Bar in 1876, and took silk in 1890. He entered the House of Commons as Member for East Fifeshire in 1886, was one of Mr. Parnell's counsel before the Commission, and first took office as Home Secretary under Mr. Gladstone in 1892. After the fall of the Ministry in 1895 he returned to the Bar. From 1903–5 he vigorously opposed Mr. Joseph Chamberlain's fiscal policy. In 1905 he became Chancellor of the Exchequer in the Liberal Ministry. On the resignation of Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman he was summoned by the king (April 5, 1908), and formed a new Cabinet, himself becoming Prime Minister and First Lord of the Treasury.

Assam. A province of British India lying along the upper valleys of the Brahmaputra, and extending from the frontiers of Bengal to Northern Burmah. The country was conquered in the early Middle Ages by tribes from Burmah, who, however, gradually assimilated in language and religion with the Hindoos. The Mohammedans never succeeded in conquering the country, though they frequently attempted it. In the early part of the nineteenth century the Assamese became closely connected with Burmah, and their hostile attitude to the East India Company brought about the First Burmese War, the result of which was the annexation of Assam in 1826. It was placed under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal; in 1874 it was made a separate Chief-Commissionership, and in 1905 was with Eastern Bengal constituted a Lieutenant-Governorship. [Burmese Wars.]

Assandun, The Battle of (1016), was the last of the battles between Edmund Ironside and Canute. Owing to the treachery of Edric, the English were defeated. Assandun is identified by Mr. Freeman with Aslington, near Rochford, in Essex.

Assassination Plot, The, was an attempt on the life of William III., first designed in 1695, but postponed by William's departure for Flanders. It grew up side by side with Berwick's plot for the invasion of England by a French army. It was entrusted by the court of St. Germains to Sir George Barclay. Ranke thinks that "all direct evidence" is against the complicity of Louis XIV. and James II.; though "both of them

would have been very ready to pluck the fruit." Certainly Barclay was given a commission by James himself authorising him to "do such acts of hostility against the Prince of Orange as should most conduce to the service of the king." Barclay landed in England in January, and in conjunction with Charnock and Parkyns hatched the conspiracy. He was joined by twenty men of James's body-guard, whom he called his Janissaries. It remained to gain twenty more adherents, and but little care was taken in their selection. It was determined to attempt the life of the king on Turnham Green, on his way back to Kensington after hunting in Richmond Park, on the 15th of February. But the hearts of some of the conspirators failed them, and information was conveyed to the Duke of Portland. William thereupon postponed his hunting. Still the conspirators imagined they were undetected; but they were speedily undeceived by the arrest of some of their number, and the issue of warrants against others. A joint address was voted by both Houses of Parliament, acknowledging the Divine goodness which had preserved the king to the people.

Commons' Journals; Burnet, *Hist. of his Own Time;* Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.;* Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*

Assaye. [ASSYE.]

Asser (*d.* 910) was a monk attached to the famous monastery of St. Davids, of which his uncle was bishop. The fame of his learning led King Alfred in 855 to invite him to assist him in his studies. He was made by that monarch Bishop of Sherborne, but seems to have resided a great part of his time at the court, assisting the king in the revival of learning, which he brought about. His name occurs in some catalogues of Bishops of St. Davids; but their historical value is small, and his occupations in England make it highly improbable that he ever attained the bishopric of his native place. His Life of King Alfred (*De Rebus Gestis Alfredi*) was long considered a thoroughly trustworthy authority. There is, however, little doubt that the work, as we have it now, contains large additions from the hands of later copyists, the great Camden being among the number. Some scholars have even gone so far as to declare the *Life* entirely spurious. This seems an extreme conclusion; but there is little doubt that the work cannot be relied on as a thoroughly authentic contemporary biography. Accepted with these qualifications, the work is valuable and extremely interesting. [ALFRED.]

No MSS. of Asser are in existence, nor any printed copies earlier than Elizabeth's reign. The work is printed in *Monumenta Histor. Britann.*; and translated in Bohn's *Antiquarian Library.*

Assessment. The assessment of taxation begins to be important when direct taxation itself assumes so much more importance with the Norman reigns. For the century and more during which taxation was looked for only from the land, Domesday remained the great rate-book, and its assessment remained unaltered. A township was rated in Domesday at such and such a number of hides, and paid its Danegeld or hidage accordingly. The towns arranged with the sheriff or the itinerant justices what sums they should pay. Only as the knight's fee became the universal mode of reckoning the liability of military tenants, this liability had to be expressed in a new compilation—the *Black Book of the Exchequer*, or rate-book for tenants-in-chief; which again was revised more than a century later in the *Testa de Nevill.* But Domesday itself was a return sent in to royal commissioners by each hundred and township, a joint work of the royal and popular powers. When, after the Saladine tithe of 1188 upon movables as well as rents, taxation began to fall more and more on personal property, and to advance towards the subsidy of the fourteenth and succeeding centuries, then more than ever the assessment of a tax required the free co-operation of each locality. Only from a jury of neighbours could a due estimate be reached of a man's property. The assessment of taxation was committed to representatives in each district, and taxation itself was rapidly becoming a function for the united representatives of the whole nation. When this latter point is reached in the Parliamentary system of Edward I., the matter of assessment loses its main constitutional importance, having already done its work. The knights of the shire, who in 1220, for instance, assess the average on their neighbours, in 1295, assembled in one body, grant the tax, and in the Good Parliament of 1376 demand the right to settle its appropriation. And indeed, as early as 1334, assessment becomes little more than mechanical when the rating of the fifteenth, made in that year and recorded in the Exchequer, was thereafter taken as a standard. Henceforth the only question which remains to give trouble is concerned with the assessment of the clergy. When, from the date above given (1188), their "spiritualities," *i.e.*, revenues from fees, &c., came under contribution, the assessment was carried out by the same method of juries of neighbours, until, in 1256, the Norwich taxation made by order of Pope Alexander IV., and in 1291 the valuation superseding it, which was made by order of Nicholas IV., and which covered both "temporalities" and "spiritualities," gave the clergy a permanent independent rate-book, which was acted on till the Reformation. But it left an opening for constant disputes in the next two centuries as to the mode and rate of assessment to be applied; first, to lands acquired by the Church since the valuation of 1291, and secondly as to the large class of chantry priests and private chaplains

whom that valuation had left out of account. This clerical valuation and the lay assessment of Domesday, as well as the rating to subsidies of the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries, were probably far below the real value. Not only were exemptions wide and numerous, but the rating itself was evidently at a nominal valuation. The Domesday hide, for example, omitted unproductive ground: and the later subsidies did not fall on a knight's equipment or a peasant's implements. The lightness of the assessment must, in fact, be set against the burdensomeness of early taxation due to its uncertainty, its wasteful modes of collection, and its suicidally short-sighted principles. When the methods of assessment ceased in the fourteenth century to have a formative effect on the constitution, their chief importance is over. But here, too, the Tudor and Stuart kings, going back for precedents to an age before the national liberties were set on a firm constitutional basis, revived on several occasions more arbitrary methods, and disregarded the valuations which had been accepted for two centuries. Thus the commissioners under Wolsey's great scheme of taxation in 1522, and again in 1525, were to assess each man, clerk or lay, to the value of his chattels. In 1621 the assessors were to disregard old rates, and to rate every man according to their own knowledge, not even accepting his own declaration, and such was the precedent followed in the raising of ship-money. The whole practice, too, of benevolences and of forced loans levied according to official estimates of the individual's property, was an application of arbitrary assessment. Again, in the seventeenth century, with the establishment of the excise arose a question of some practical moment, how this was assessed. Similar points of social interest are connected with the injurious effects of certain taxes, assessed on a false principle, as the window-tax; or the introduction of the income tax, in which recourse has to be made to a rude method of joint assessment by the payer himself and by an official commissioner. But these methods are, as a matter of fact, guaranteed against unjustly operating, by the right of appeal to a higher body or a court of law.

Madox, *Hist. of the Exchequer*; Lingard, *Hist. of England*, iii. 116—119; Pauli, *Geschichte von England*, i. 683—685; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.* and *Select Charters and Documents*; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*; May, *Const. Hist.* [A. L. S.]

Assiento, The (1713), or the "contract" for supplying the Spanish colonies in the Western world with negro slaves, was at first an arrangement between France and Spain. After the merchandise had been carried on by Genoa and Portugal, it had been undertaken in 1702 by a French company. By one of the stipulations of the Treaty of Utrecht, this right was surrendered to England, and confirmed by a special treaty of forty-two clauses. After France had resigned the Assiento, Spain was to convey it to England for thirty years, at the end of which period, and a further term of three years, the traffic was to be wound up. England was to furnish 4,800 negroes annually. With the Assiento England was to have the right of sending two ships a year, each of five hundred tons burden, to America with negroes. A contest for this profitable monopoly soon arose between the African and the South Sea Company; the latter were successful, and obtained the fourth part reserved for the queen by the terms of the treaty. On the outbreak of war with Spain, England lost the Assiento, but it was once more renewed in 1725, and was again restored to her by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748), for the remaining four years which it had to run. "Not one person," says Mr. Wyon, "seems to have imagined that there was anything immoral or unjustifiable in the business itself."

T. H. Burton, *Reign of Queen Anne*; Wyon, *Reign of Queen Anne*; Lecky, *Hist. of Eng.*

Assize (assisa-assisia) is a word of doubtful etymology; probably at least two words have converged to create the ideas underlying the various senses of the term; viz. (*a*), *assido* or *assideo*, to sit down—*i.e.*, a session or a settlement, the notions perhaps common to most meanings of assize; (*b*) *accido*, to tax (*cf.* excise and *assisus redditus*). Besides these (*c*) there must be some connection with the Anglo-Saxon asetniss, a law (*cf.* établissement de S. Louis); and (*d*) Ducange's editors can explain assisia only by reference to Arabic.

Meanings — (1) *Session*, and, specially, *Judicial Session.*—This meaning, which is found so early as in the Pipe Roll 2, Henry II., may possibly be the original one; *cf.* Watsius, *De Jure Vet. Munic. Norm.*, i. 56; "assize est une assemblée de plusieurs sages hommes en laquelle ce qui y sera jugié doit avoir produrable fermeté." From this come the "Grandes" and "Petites Assises" of France, and the Courts of *Criminal* Jurisdiction, called "Cours d'Assises," in the Code Napoléon. The modern English use to denote the court of the justices on circuit is, perhaps by an accident, an example of this use of the word. A specialised case is the old use of assize for—

(2) *The Select Body Engaged in Administering the Trial—e.g.*, Provisions of Oxford, in the "provisum est quod nullus miles non ponatur in juratis vel assisis"—*i.e.*, all knights are liable to be *jurymen*. The words are clearly synonymous, though the old law books make a distinction. The "sworn men" are also the "men settled" to try a case.

(3) *A Law or Ordinance*—*i.e.*, the "lex assisa," the settled edict of the king. In reality a law, the "Assize" in this sense

professed to be rather an occasional enactment, valid during pleasure, an executive, not a legislative, act. Thus, the mediæval reverence for the "written law," which sprang from the solemn sense assigned to "lex" in the Bible and Roman Law, was respected, and real legislative changes produced by a legal fiction—*cf.* the Prætor's Edict, the Capitularies of the Carolingians, the Provisions of Henry III., the "Establishments" of St. Louis, all of which had the same object. Instances of such assizes are the "Assises de Jérusalem," a code for the Frank kingdom of Palestine, drawn up by Godfrey of Bouillon and his barons (1099), Henry II.'s Assizes of Clarendon, Northampton, Woodstock, Arms, Essoines, &c. ("novas leges quas assisas vocavit"), for which see below; the Assizes of Antioch, Sicily, Roumania, and in Brittany the Assizes of Count Geoffrey in 1185, and the Assize of Count John (against the Jews) in 1239. Wherever Norman or Frank influence went, twelfth-century law assumed the form of assizes.

(4) *State Regulations of the Price, Quality, &c., of various Commodities.*—A sense kindred to previous paragraph. These were the "assisæ rerum venalium" of old English and French law. Richard I. aimed—not very successfully—at uniform weights and measures (Assize of Measures in Hoveden, iv. 33). John "fecit generaliter acclamari ut legalis assisa panis inviolabiter observaretur" (Matthew Paris, A.D. 1201). This points to pre-existing custom. There were also assizes of wine, ale, salt, boards, timber, wood, coal, butter, and cheese. These restrictions on trade and on adulteration were kept up quite late—*e.g.*, there were three editions of the assize printed in 1528, 1530, and 1580. In 6 and 7 Wm. IV., Acts regulating the assize of bread were formally repealed. They were carried into New England and long kept up there.

(5) *A Mode of Trial prescribed by an Assize* (in sense of law)—*e.g.*, the Grand Assize of Henry II. and the other "real actions," the assizes of Mort d'Ancester, Novel Disseisin, and Darein Presentment (see below). Spelman calls them "brevia regia et litigandi formulæ." Assize here means (*a*) the law; (*b*) the rule instituted by it.

(6) *The Trial itself—e.g.*, in the assize of Northampton the royal direction to the justices to try robbers (ut faciant assisam de latronibus); *cf.* "cum brevibus assisarum et placitorum" in royal writ of 1231.

(7) *Assessment—i.e.*, the settlement of the incidence of a tax—*e.g.*, *Dialogus De Scaccario*, i. 8. "Fiunt per comitatas communes *assisæ* a justiciis errantibus—quæ ideo dicuntur communes quia cognita summa quæ de comitatu requiruntur," &c.

(8) *A Tax—e.g.*, *Liber Niger Scacarii*, cap. *De Danegeldo*, "ex constitutis duobus solidis summa una quæ communis *assisa* nuncupatur excrescit:" *cf.* "levare assisam," to levy a tax.

(9) *Fines.*—Fixed by courts of justice—*e.g.*, in Brittany, "le seigneur peut demander pour son betail l'essise ou le dedommage a san choix."

(10) *Assisus Redditus.*—The fixed rent which customary tenants paid to the lord of the manor, beyond which they were free. This is analogous to the preceding.

The various law glossaries, such as Spelman and the modern works based on him, collect the chief uses of assize; *cf.* Ducange's *Glossarium Mediæ et Infimæ Latinitatis*, and the old law books, Britton, Bracton, &c. [T. F. T.]

Assize, Justices of, were originally the judges commissioned to try the special assizes or real actions mentioned in Assize (5). By 27 Ed. I., s. 1, c. 3, it was ordered that Justices of Assize should, if laymen, also make deliverance of the gaol; and before long, the common law judges always were laymen. Gradually various other commissions were given to them, as it was a main object of Edward I.'s judicial reforms to simplify and consolidate the too numerous Acts which had oppressed the nation under his father. So the commissions of *nisi prius*, of *oyer and terminer*, and of the peace, were added to those above mentioned; until the judge, with his five commissions under the Great Seal, was on his provincial circuit generally called the Justice of Assize, though, properly speaking, that was only one of his commissions. By 3 and 4 Wm. IV., the actions of "assizes" were abolished, so that the present commission is only fourfold, but the name has survived the fact, and their courts are still generally called the "assizes," and the town of their meeting the assize town.

Assize of Arms, The, was an ordinance issued by Henry II. in 1181. It revived and organised the old national militia, based on the obligation of all freemen to serve in the fyrd. Henry hoped it would be a safer support to his throne than the feudal levies or the unpopular mercenaries. By this assize all freemen were required to provide arms suited to their rank and means. A knight, or possessor of over sixteen marks yearly, provided a coat of mail, helmet, shield, and lance: the freeholder of ten marks, a hauberk, iron cap, and lance; and all burgesses and "tota communa liberorum hominum" a gambeson, iron cap, and lance. Doubtful cases were decided by a jury. Elaborate provisions were annexed for the enforcement of the law. Paralleled in most other European countries, this assize was renewed by Henry III.'s system of watch and ward, and by Edward I.'s Statute of Winchester.

Stubbs, *Select Charters*, 155—157.

Assize of Clarendon (1166), Henry II.'s first great measure of judicial reform, was remarkable as formally instituting, and giving legislative recognition to, the jury

system in criminal trials, as connecting the local with the central jurisdiction, and as the first effort to constitute a great administrative system. Henry I. had probably borrowed the institution of justices itinerant from the Carolingian missi. His plan was now enlarged and made permanent. A commission was sent round to each shire, to whom, in conjunction with the sheriffs, grand juries of the county were to present accused or suspected persons. The ordeal by water furnished a further means of discrimination. This new system of presentment and ordeal abolished compurgation. Other provisions required all qualified persons to serve on juries, opened every franchise to the sheriff, regulated the treatment of waifs and strangers on purely Anglo-Saxon principles, directed sheriffs to help each other, to make lists of fugitives, forbade religious houses to receive "aliquem de minuto populo," unless sick to death or of good repute, and forbade hospitality to the heretics condemned at Oxford.

Stubbs, *Select Charters*, 140—146.

Assize of Darrein Presentment. An action to determine the lawful patron of a benefice. "If a tenant in fee or in tail had himself presented, or if his ancestors had presented, to a benefice, or if a tenant for life or years had himself presented and the nominee had been duly instituted, but afterwards the old possessor of the advowson had been debarred from exercising his right, he could institute a recognition of *darrein presentment*." This inquest was originated by Henry II., and is alluded to in Glanvil. By Magna Charta (art. 18) it was to be held, along with the assizes of *mort d'ancester* and *novel disseisin* four times a year, by two justices in the county court, in conjunction with a jury of four knights of that county; but the Charter of 1217 reserves cases of *darrein presentment* to the Justices *in banco* (art. 15). By the Statute of Westminster the first (3 Ed. I., c. 51), the assize was again assimilated to the other two, and directed to be held every Advent, Septuagesima, and Lent. It became early obsolete, as the writ *quare impedit* gave an easier means of prosecuting claims to advowson, and was abolished, with all "real actions," by 3 and 4 Wm. IV., c. 27.

Assize of Mort d'Ancester. When the heir to an estate was deprived by a stranger of part of what had been in the possession of his predecessor (antecessor) at the time of the latter's decease, he could apply for a possessory writ *de morte antecessoris*. Glanvil, to whom we owe our earliest knowledge of what was probably then one of Henry II.'s novelties, describes the process of the inquest. The sheriff empanels a jury of twelve lawful freeholders of the neighbourhood, and the suit is determined by their testimony. It was held by the justices in the shire, mostly with a jury of four knights four times a year, according to Magna Charta, § 18. But the Charter of 1217 directs the assize to be used only once a year. By the Statute of Westminster the first, it was held thrice in the year. It became obsolete, and was abolished by 3 and 4 Wm. IV.

Assize of Northampton (1176). A re-issue and expansion of the Assize of Clarendon, marked by the increased severity of the punishments, the lessened trust reposed in the sheriffs, and the gradual limitation of the ordeal. Those presented by the jury who escaped on the ordeal, had to find bail for good behaviour if accused of a small offence; but if felony or "murdrum" had to abjure the realm. Confessions before the jury must not be revoked before the judge. Some new legal articles are of great importance in relation to land tenure, reliefs, dower, and other feudal obligations. The concluding political articles require, in reference to the 1173 rebellion, oaths of fealty even from villains, the destruction of castles held against the king, the safe custody of all others, the registration of fugitives and outlaws. The justices are to make exhaustive inquiries of all kinds, hold all pleas, and look after the royal revenue. The country is divided into six circuits, to be visited by six commissions.

Stubbs, *Select Charters*, 143—145.

Assize of Novel Disseisin. An action that lay with a tenant unjustly dispossessed of his lands, tried by the itinerant justices before a jury of the neighbourhood. The importance attached to this assize illustrates the widespread lawlessness of the times. Its limitation to *recent* disseisins is equally significant. The Assize of Northampton (chap. 5) directs "Ut Justitiæ Regis faciant recognitionem de dissaisinis factis a tempore quo dominus rex venit in Angliam post pacem," and this seems to be the original text of the assize. The assize is called by Bracton "Summaria cognitio absque magna juris solennitate," and by the Statute of Westminster the second "festinum remedium." Its history is the same as the history of the assizes of *mort d'ancester* and *darrein presentment*. Analogous to it was the *assize of fresh force*, so called, because the plaint was to be within sixty days of the injury. It was a writ that lay by custom of a town when a man was disseised within the borough. Similar also was the *assize of nuisance*.

Assize of Utrum lay with the possessor of an ecclesiastical benefice to recover lands of the Church alienated by his predecessor. The term "utrum" was the emphatic word which directed the jury to inquire *whether* the tenements or lands were in frank almoign of the descendant's church, or the lay fee of the tenant. It was instituted by statute 14 Ed. III., c. 17, and practically ended by the restraining statute 13 Eliz., c. 10.

Assize of Woodstock, or the **Assize of the Forest,** drawn up by Henry II. in 1184, was the first code of any elaborateness for the government of the forests, which, from the time of the Conquest at least, were regarded as specially subject to the uncontrolled jurisdiction of the monarch. The forest jurisdiction is arranged on just the same lines as the county jurisdiction, just as the manor organisation was based on that of the free township. The punishments are said to be milder than those in vogue under Henry I., but the whole assize is full of vexatious clauses, which must have been very irksome to dwellers in the forest. No one can possess a dog or a bow and arrows without a royal licence. Elaborate regulations have reference to the woods and clearings within the forest that belonged to private individuals. All men, from archbishop and earl down to the simple freeholder, are required to attend the forest courts on the summons of the master forester (this was repealed by Magna Charta). All persons over twelve years old dwelling within the forest are to swear to keep the peace of the forest. Hounds are to have their foreclaws cut off, and no tanners or bleachers of hides are to dwell therein, beyond the limits of a borough. [FORESTS.]

Select Charters, 150—152: Reeves' *History of English Law* and Blackstone's *Commentaries* give a full account of this and most of the above assizes. Most of them are printed in Dr. Stubbs's *Select Charters* (with invaluable comments). See also his *Const. Hist.*, vol. i.

[T. F. T.]

Assize, THE GRAND. A form of inquest by sworn recognitors in cases of suits to determine the possession of a freehold, instituted by Henry II. as an alternative to wager of battle, which, since the Conquest, had been the ordinary way of trying such suits. The procedure, according to the assize, was as follows. On the motion of the possessor, the Curia Regis stopped proceedings in the local courts until after the inquest. On the claimant's command, four lawful knights were selected and summoned, through the sheriff, to Westminster, where they elected twelve lawful knights of their neighbourhood, before whom, and the king or his justices, the trial comes off. If the jury know the facts, they have only to declare their verdict. If not, those ignorant are replaced by better informed witnesses. Their decision is final. Long obsolete, the Grand Assize was only abolished by 3 and 4 Wm. IV., cap. 27. The text of Henry II.'s ordinance is lost, but a copious account of it is given in Glanvil, with much about its equity and superiority to the "duellum."

Assizes, THE BLACK. A name often given to the assizes at Oxford in 1577, when "a pestilent savour" rose either from the noisome smell of the prisoners, or the damp of the ground, owing to which all present were seized, within forty hours, of fever, and many died (some accounts say, with probable exaggeration, 300), including the chief baron, the sheriff, and a large number of the Oxfordshire gentry.

Assizes, THE BLOODY. A term often applied to the summer assizes of 1685, held in the Western Circuit after Monmouth's rebellion; when Chief Justice Jeffreys sentenced more than 300 rebels to death for treason after the barest mockery of a trial.

Macaulay, *History*, ii., chap. 5. A tract called *The Bloody Assizes* contains contemporaneous accounts of the executions.

Associated Counties was the name given to the counties of Essex, Cambridge, Norfolk, Suffolk, and Hertford, to which were subsequently added Huntingdon and Lincoln. These counties formed an association in 1642 to keep the war out of their own districts and raise an army for the Parliament. The Association was first commanded by Lord Grey of Wark, and subsequently by the Earl of Manchester and Cromwell. Other counties formed similar associations, "but," says Carlyle, "the 'Eastern Association' is alone worth naming. All the other associations, no men of emphasis being in the midst of them, fell in a few months to pieces; only this of Cromwell's subsisted, enlarged itself, grew famous: and, indeed, kept its own borders clear of invasion during the whole course of the war."

Association in favour of William III., (1) (1688), was devised by Sir Edward Seymour after the prince had landed in England, in order to bind his supporters by some mutual obligation. It was signed first at Exeter and then in all the western counties. (2) The more famous association, that of 1696, was formed on the discovery of the Assassination Plot. The idea was proposed by Sir Rowland Gwyn, and eagerly adopted by Montague. The members of the House of Commons, each for himself, solemnly recognised William as rightful and lawful king, and bound themselves to stand by him; and they vowed that, if his life should be shortened by violence, they would avenge his murder, and support the order of succession settled by the Bill of Rights. The measure was opposed by the Tories in the Lower House, headed by Musgrave, on the ground that the formula implied an abjuration, and that William could not be properly described as "rightful and lawful king." Leeds, in order to conciliate opposition in the Upper House, proposed the verbal alteration that it should be declared that William had a right by law to the English crown, and that no other person had any right whatever to that crown. This quibble satisfied nearly all the Tory peers. The country in general was seized with great enthusiasm. The municipal corporations all

over the country appended their signatures to similar documents. Everywhere orange ribands were worn, on which were written in letters of gold the words "National Association for King William."

Burnet, *Hist. of his Own Time*, iv. 299; Macaulay, *History*, iv. 670.

Association Project (1582) was the name given to the proposal, emanating from France, for associating James VI. and his mother, the Queen of Scots, together in the government of Scotland.

Association to Protect Queen Elizabeth, Bond of, 1584, was an attempt to organise all English Protestants into "a universal vigilance committee" (Froude), to defend the queen against the plots of the Papists. In Nov., 1584, Burleigh and Walsingham framed an instrument declaring that the signers of it bound themselves together on oath to withstand any attempt against the queen's person, and if any such attempt should be made and should be successful, to pursue to the death the person or persons who had been concerned in it. The association was primarily directed against Mary Queen of Scots, and was meant to show her partisans that her own death would follow closely on the assassination of Elizabeth. The oath of association was taken with enthusiasm by the nobility, privy councillors, judges, the clergy, and all who held office under the crown, and a large number of private persons throughout the country. Many of the Roman Catholic nobility and gentry were among those who signed the Bond.

State Trials, vol. i.; *Calendar of State Papers, Domestic Series* (1581—1590); Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*, xii. 43.

Associations (Ireland) Bill (1826), 6 George IV., c. 4, was directed chiefly against the Catholic Associations. It forbade periodical sittings of political associations, the appointment of committees for more than fourteen days, the levying of money to redress grievances, the administering of oaths, the exclusion of men on account of their religion, and the affiliation of societies. It lasted for three years, but failed to crush O'Connell's agitation.

Assured Lords, The, consisted chiefly of Scottish nobles taken prisoners at the battle of Solway Moss, Nov. 25, 1542, who, from a long sojourn at the English court, had become to a certain extent identified with English interests. On their return to Scotland after the death of James V., they undertook to serve Henry VIII. at the Scotch court, giving hostages to the English king for their fidelity. Henry, however, soon found that their good faith was doubtful, and in 1544 they openly joined the national party. The assured Lords consisted of the Earls of Cassilis and Glencairn, Lords Fleming, Somerville, Maxwell, and Oliphant, taken at Solway Moss; together with the Earl of Angus and his brother, Sir George Douglas, who had long been refugees at the English court.

Assye, The Battle of (Sept. 23, 1803), during the Mahratta War, was fought between an army of 4,500, commanded by General Wellesley, and the great army of Dowlut Rao Scindiah and the Rajah of Berar; which, after the capture of Jalnapoor on the 2nd, was retreating towards the Adjuntee Pass, while the English, in two divisions, under Wellesley and Colonel Stephenson, were attempting to intercept them. The Mahrattas were strongly entrenched, with their left resting on Assye, when Wellesley came up with them, and without waiting for Colonel Stephenson, resolved to attack them. Wellesley had given the most positive injunctions to the officer commanding the pickets to avoid the cannon planted in the village, but in spite of this he led his troops directly up to the muzzles of the guns, which poured an incessant shower upon the assailants. The 74th Regiment, which supported them, was thus exposed to a hotter fire than any troops had ever before encountered in India. To save it, more troops had to be moved up amid this terrific fire. The indomitable courage and energy of the British troops, however, bore down all resistance, and Scindiah's infantry gave way. The English cavalry then charged, and forced them off the field. The victory was complete; but it was dearly gained by the loss of one-third of the army.

Wellington, *Despatches*; G. Duff, *Hist. of the Mahrattas*; Mill, *Hist. of India*, vi. 520.

Astley, Jacob, Lord (*d.* 1652), had served in many foreign countries, and had distinguished himself in Germany under Gustavus Adolphus. He joined the army of Charles I., and, having taken part in the battles of Edgehill, Brentford, and Newbury, was raised to the peerage. At the battle of Naseby, Astley commanded the infantry, and in 1646 he made a last stand at Stow-on-the-Wold against the Parliament. Here he was defeated by Brereton and taken prisoner. He compounded for his estate, gave his parole not to serve any more against Parliament, and spent the rest of his life in retirement.

Aston, Sir Arthur (*d.* Sept. 12, 1649), was a distinguished soldier, who had acquired military experience abroad. He was governor of Oxford at the beginning of the Civil War, but was soon after disabled by a wound. At a later period he was governor of Reading. In 1649, Ormonde made him governor of Drogheda, hoping that he would be able to hold out till the rains. This he was unable to do, and on the taking of the place he was literally hacked to pieces by the Puritan soldiers.

Atheling (ÆTHELING) was a title of honour among the Anglo-Saxons, meaning one who is of noble (*æthel*) blood. In the earlier period, the *Eorlas* and *Æthel* are used to designate the class spoken of by Bede as *nobiles*, in all probability "the descendants of the primitive nobles of the first settlement, who, on the institution of royalty, sank one step in dignity from the ancient state of rude independence" (Stubbs). As the nobility of blood became superseded by the nobility of service, the title of *Ætheling* was gradually confined to the princes of the blood royal, and in the ninth and tenth centuries is used exclusively for the sons or brothers of the reigning king. Though he seems to have held no official position in right of his birth, the atheling was superior in dignity to all men but the king and the great functionaries of the Church, as shown by his "wer-gild." In the "north people's law" of the tenth century, the gild of the atheling and the archbishop (and in this case of the "eorl" who corresponds no doubt to the Danish "jarl"), is 15,000 thrymsas, while that of the bishop or ealdorman is 8,000. So too in the laws of Athelstan of Wessex. The atheling attended the Witenagemot as one of the magnates of the kingdom, and was one of those who were least seldom absent from it. The name was kept up after the Norman Conquest, and is applied not only to the young princes, the sons of Edmund Ironside, but also to William "Clito," the son of Henry I. and Matilda, and possibly to Henry himself.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, ch. vi.; Thorpe, *Anc. Laws and Institutes* (§ *Wer-gilds*); Freeman, *Norm. Conq.*, vol. iv., appendix E E.

Atheling, EDGAR. [EDGAR ATHELING.]

Athelney (Aethelinga eigge), the Isle of Princes, is situated about seven miles from Taunton. Hither, in 878, Alfred the Great repaired after his defeat by the Danes, and here he remained concealed for nearly a year, when, sallying forth, he defeated the invaders and compelled them to make peace. At that time Athelney was a veritable island in the midst of fens and marshes, but it has since been drained and cultivated.

Athelstan (*ÆTHELSTAN*) (*b.* 895, *s.* 925, *d.* 940) was the son of King Edward, and grandson of Alfred. According to William of Malmesbury, his mother, Ecgwyn, was of humble origin, and it has been thought that he was illegitimate. On the death of Edward, the Mercians and West-Saxons chose Athelstan as their king, and he was crowned at Kingston-on-Thames. There appears to have been some opposition to his accession, and it is probable that a conspiracy was formed against him by some of the leading nobles and princes of the royal house. The plot, however, was suppressed, and Athelstan speedily attained to a position of greater power and dignity than that of any of the preceding West-Saxon sovereigns. One of his sisters married Sihtric, the Danish King of Northumbria, and on his death Athelstan invaded the territories of his successor, Guthfrith, and compelled him to hold his kingdom as a tributary state. Subsequently he made several expeditions against the Welsh of Wales and Cornwall, and reduced their rulers also to the position of subject princes. Thus under him the state of Wessex became one of the great powers of Western Europe, and was held in high estimation by foreign governments. Of Athelstan's sisters, one, Elgiva (Ælgifu), married Otto the Great, Duke of the Saxons (afterwards Emperor), and another Ethilda (Eadhild), Hugh, Duke of the French, and father of Hugh Capet. Athelstan took a considerable share in the politics of northern France, and it was chiefly by his efforts that Louis d'Outremer, the son of Charles the Simple, was restored to his throne. In 937 a formidable league was formed against the power of Wessex, between the Danes, Scots, and Britons. Constantine, the King of Scotia, Anlaf (Olaf), the son of Guthfrith of Northumbria, and Anlaf (Olaf) Cuaran, the Danish King of Dublin, together with Owen of Cumberland and other British chieftains, united their forces. A great battle was fought at Brunanburh, in Northumberland, in which the invaders were completely defeated, with terrible loss. [BRUNANBURH.] Athelstan's subsequent years were peaceful and uneventful. Athelstan is greatly praised by the chroniclers, and he appears to have been a wise and vigorous ruler. Such of his laws as remain show that his wars and foreign policy were far from absorbing the whole of his attention. His ordinances are more particularly directed to the enforcement of the system of mutual assurance and association, which hel so great a place in Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence. One of the most important of his acts was that in which it is law that every landless man shall have a lord; and the "Judicia Civitatis Lundoniæ," attributed to Athelstan, are highly valuable in connection with the history of gilds and civic associations. The chief imputation on Athelstan's character is the alleged murder, by drowning, of his half-brother, Edwin, on the pretext that he was engaged in a conspiracy against the king; but the story is doubtful. It is told in the Chronicle, but is not accepted by William of Malmesbury.

Anglo-Sax. Chron.; William of Malmesbury; Henry of Huntingdon; Simeon of Durham. Also Lappenberg, *Anglo-Saxon Kings*; and Palgrave, *Eng. Commonwealth.* For Athelstan's Laws, *see* Thorpe, *Ancient Laws and Institutes*; and Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, i. 87, &c.. and *Select Charters*, 67. [S. J. L.]

Athenry, THE BATTLE OF (1316), was fought between Feidlim O'Connor and the English, under William de Burgh and Richard

de Bermingham. Eleven thousand O'Connors fell beside their chief, and the sept disappears from history. The O'Connors were ostensibly fighting in the interest of Edward Bruce.

Atherton Moor, or **Adwalton,** The Battle of (June 30, 1643), was a skirmish fought between the Royalists, under the Earl of Newcastle, and the Parliamentarians, under Fairfax. The latter were completely routed, and the capture of Bradford (from which Atherton Moor is some four miles distant) by the Royalists was the immediate result.

Athlone, Godart de Ginkell, Earl of (*b.* 1640, *d.* 1720), was one of the Dutch officers who accompanied William of Orange to England. In 1689 he reduced some Scotch regiments who had mutinied at Harwich when under orders to be in readiness to cross to the Continent. He accompanied William to Ireland, and commanded a body of horse at the battle of the Boyne. When William left Ireland, Ginkell was appointed commander-in-chief. He reduced Ballymore without difficulty and proceeded to lay siege to Athlone, which he carried by assault, and subsequently won the victory of Aghrim over St. Ruth. This victory completed the conquest of Ireland (July 12). Ginkell then besieged Limerick, which he captured (Oct. 2), and granted fairly favourable terms to the defenders. A violent dispute arose between Ginkell and Sarsfield, the Jacobite leader, as to the destination of the Irish troops; till at length it was decided that they might make their choice between England and France. For these services Ginkell was created Earl of Athlone. The small estate that was given him in Ireland for his services was one of the objects of the Commons' attack in 1700. [Resumption Bill.] After the declaration of war with France he competed unsuccessfully against the Duke of Marlborough for the position of commander of the Dutch forces. Before the arrival of the great duke in Flanders, his clever occupation of Nimeguen prevented its seizure by Marshal Boufflers. Ginkell had little knowledge or understanding of English feelings and institutions; but his abilities as a general were certainly above the average.

Athlone, The Capture of (June 19—30, 1691), was Ginkell's first important success over the Irish followers of James II. under the French general, St. Ruth. After the fall of Ballymore the whole army moved westward to Athlone. "It was, perhaps," says Macaulay, "in a military point of view, the most important place in the island." The town was surrounded by ramparts of earth, and lay partly in Leinster and partly in Connaught, the English quarter being in the former and the Celtic quarter in the latter. The Shannon, which is the boundary of the two provinces, rushed through Athlone in a deep and rapid stream, and turned two large mills which rose on the arches of a stone bridge. Above the bridge, on the Connaught side, a castle towered to the height of seventy feet. Fifty or sixty yards below the bridge was a narrow ford. On the 20th, Ginkell assaulted the English quarter and mastered it with trifling loss. On the 22nd he opened fire on the castle. A struggle now began for the possession of the bridge, resolutely defended by the Irish under Maxwell. St. Ruth, thinking the position perfectly secure, had not yet come up, but lay about two miles off, sending his subordinate, D'Usson, to conduct the defence. On June 30th, Ginkell resolved to try the ford. With Mackay, Talmash, Prince George of Darmstadt, and the Duke of Wurtemberg at their head, the soldiers dashed into the water. The Irish, greatly to the disgust of the French commander, offered but feeble resistance, and the town was taken.

Burnet, *Hist. of his Own Time;* Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.;* Story's *Continuation.*

Athole, John Stuart, 4th Earl of (*d.* 1579), was a staunch Romanist and supporter of Mary Queen of Scots. He was named one of the Commission of Regency established on the abdication of Mary, 1567. On Murray's return from France he accompanied him to Lochleven and had an interview with the queen. In 1569 he was suspected of planning a rebellion against Murray. In 1577 he combined with Argyle against the Regent Morton, whose deposition was in great part owing to his exertions, and about the same time was appointed Chancellor of Scotland; he died soon afterwards at Stirling, poisoned, it was said, by Morton.

Athole, The Peerage of, appears to date back to the time of Alexander I. of Scotland, when Madach, a son of Donald Bane, is styled Earl of Athole. From his descendants it passed by marriage to the Strathbogie family, one of whom, David, eleventh Earl of Athole, in the reign of Edward II., married the heiress of the great families of Comyn and Valence, and became possessed of vast estates in England. His Scotch peerage was, however, forfeited in 1311 for his connection with the Baliol party. These Scotch estates were granted to Sir Neil Campbell, brother in-law to King Robert Bruce, whose son, Sir John Campbell, was created Earl of Athole. He died (at Halidon Hill, in 1333) without issue, and the earldom was conferred on Sir W. Douglas, from whom it passed to Robert Stuart, Great Steward of Scotland, and thus became vested in the royal family. In 1457 Sir John Stuart, of Balveny, was created Earl of Athole. The peerage became extinct in 1625, and in 1628 was revived and granted to John Murray, Earl of Tullibardine, who was

descended by his mother from the Stuart earls. John, the third earl of this family, was created Duke of Athole and Marquis of Tullibardine in 1703, in the peerage of Scotland, and his third son and successor claimed and established his right to the barony of Strange in the peerage of England.

Attacotti, THE, were an ancient Celtic tribe who inhabited a portion of Argyleshire and the greater part of Dumbartonshire.

Attainder. "Attainder imports that extinction of civil rights and capacities which took place whenever a person who had committed treason or felony received judgment of death or outlawry," whether such judgment were pronounced by a royal justice after trial and conviction, or were decreed by a legislative Act of Parliament, called a Bill of Attainder. In ancient law this involved (1) *Corruption of Blood*, and (2) *Forfeiture*, complete or partial.

(1) The blood of the attainted criminal was held to be *corrupted* and stained, and the virtue by which he could inherit, and transmit and even hold, property destroyed. Attainders operated, in fact, exactly like a sudden discovery of illegitimacy in the possessor of property; the stream of inheritance was at once cut off, and could be re-established only by a special grant of the Legislature. From this it followed that the lands of the criminal reverted back or escheated to the lord of the fee, in subordination, however, to forfeiture to the crown: and that any title of his descendants which had to be traced through him to a remoter ancestor was obstructed and barred. This was felt to be such a hardship that, in the creation of new felonies since the reign of Henry VIII., Parliament has always provided that they shall not involve "corruption of blood." The statute 54 Geo. III., c. 145, still further limits its operation to treason and murder. The Inheritance Act, 3 and 4 Will. IV., c. 106, gave further relief by enacting that the attainder of an intermediate ancestor should not obstruct the tracing of the descent through him if his death took place before the property devolved.

(2) *Forfeiture for treason* transferred to the crown the entire property of the traitor. Unlike escheat, it was no feudal innovation, but dates back to Saxon times, and, indeed, has been the rule in the early legislation of most nations. So foreign to early society is any compunction against punishing the son for the father's crime that some ancient codes, not content with reducing a traitor's children to beggary, involve them in the same capital sentence; and the Golden Bull declares that the sons of a subject who kills an elector have their lives spared only by the imperial bounty. The two kinds of property recognised by English law, lands and chattels, were both forfeited absolutely to the crown for treason, but the forfeiture of the former followed on judgment, and its operation went back to the moment at which the treason was committed, making void all alienations which had been effected in the interval; the forfeiture of the latter followed on conviction, and, from obvious motives of convenience, had no such retrospective force. The wife's dower was untouched by the husband's attainder till expressly included in the forfeiture by the merciless statute 5 and 6 Ed. VI., c. 11. In the case of counterfeiting the coin, the statutes which made the offence treason limited the forfeiture to the life of the offender, and expressly guarded the wife's dower (5 Eliz., c. 11; 8 and 9 Will. III., c. 26; 15 Geo. II., c. 28). The celebrated statute of Queen Anne (7 Anne, c. 21) extended the same principle to all treasons by enacting that after the decease of the Pretender "no attainder for treason should extend to the disinheriting of any heirs, nor to the prejudice of the right or title of any person" other than the offender himself; but this humane provision was first delayed by 17 Geo. II., c. 39, and finally repealed by 39 and 40 Geo. III., c. 93. *Forfeiture for felony* was only partial, and seems to have arisen from an old right of the crown to commit unlimited waste on the lands of a felon. So detrimental did this prove to the interests of the lord of the fief, and of the country at large, that in the reign of Henry I. it was commuted for the right to the profits for a year and a day, a rule confirmed by Magna Charta. The statute 17 Ed. II. confused the two, enacting that the king should have his year and a day *and* waste, and this remained the law till the Act 54 Geo. III., c. 145, which limited forfeiture to cases of treason and murder. But attainder, along with its effects of corruption of blood and forfeiture, was finally swept away by the Felony Act, 33 and 34 Vict., c. 23.

Attainder, BILL OF, was a legislative Act of the two Houses, introduced and passed exactly like any other Bill, and requiring the royal assent, which declared a person or persons attainted. Originally aimed against offenders who fled from justice, and analogous to the Bill of Pains and Penalties, it was soon perverted to secure a more certain and speedy destruction of political opponents than could be hoped from the impartiality or the routine of the law courts. No restriction was possible in such a mode of procedure. Evidence was usually heard, but not invariably; and even the presence of the accused was decided by the lawyers whom Thomas Cromwell consulted on the subject to be unnecessary, on the ground that there can be no authority superior to statute. The first recorded instance of its employment is in the violent banishment of the Despensers in 1321 by the Parliament of Westminster; an act which was

held by Trussel, the justice who delivered judgment on the younger Hugh, to have involved attainder. With the deposition of Edward II. the appearance of the more regular method of impeachment attests a less savage spirit in political parties, till the outbreak of the Rose wars in 1459. In that year hostilities broke out on an attempt of the queen to have the Earl of Salisbury, the head of the Yorkist Nevilles, arrested. He completely defeated the force sent against him, and both sides rushed to arms. But the Lancastrians were better prepared; the Yorkist leaders had to fly the kingdom, and a Parliament met at Coventry which attainted them in a body. Two years later, after the decisive victory of Towton, the Yorkists retaliated by a similar proscription of all the prominent Lancastrians, Parliament, by the restriction of the franchise to 40s. freeholders (1430), and by the terrorism exercised through the system of Livery and Maintenance, having become a mere tool in the hands of the dominant faction. Yet a petition, so late as 1432, praying that trials touching freehold or inheritance should not be held in Parliament or council, shows that the Commons had still independence enough to display their sense of the danger. The new monarchy, which rose on the ruins of self-destroyed nobility, was strong enough to content itself as a rule with the ordinary methods of indictment and impeachment. But in 1539 the kinsmen of Reginald Pole, including his aged mother, the Countess of Salisbury, daughter of Edward IV., were cut off by Bill of Attainder, and the same fate overtook, in the following year, the disgraced minister Cromwell, condemned by a singular retribution without being heard in his own defence. Revenge in the one case, the preservation of the royal popularity in the other, demanded the employment of a procedure which could dispense with legal proof of guilt. The attainder of Strafford, however, in 1641 marks the triumph, not of a political faction, but of a constitutional theory. By the letter of the Statute of Treasons (1352), which condemned attempts on the king's life and honour only, the earl was innocent; but the Parliament maintained that the spirit of the statute saw in the king the majesty of the state, and so, by implication, condemned all attempts to overthrow the existing constitution. The last instance in English history is that of Sir John Fenwick attainted and executed in 1697 for participation in the Assassination Plot.

Reeves, *Hist. of Eng. Law*, iii. 424, &c.; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*; Sir E. May, *Parliamentary Practice*; Stephen, *Commentaries on the Laws of Eng.*, i. 141, &c.; Knight, *Political Cyclopædia*. Statutes 5 and 6 Ed. VI.; 5 Eliz.; 8 and 9 Will. III; 7 Anne; 54 Geo. III., &c. [H. R. R.]

Attainder, The Great Act of (Ireland), was introduced into the Irish Parliament on Jan. 25, 1689, and the debate on it lasted some time. James II. gave his consent to it with great reluctance. It naturally had a very bad effect on the English Jacobites. Between 2,000 and 3,000 names, including half the Irish peerage, and even many prominent Jacobites, were included in the Bill. All those who were in rebellion against the king (James II.) were to surrender and take their trial before August 10, otherwise they were to be deemed guilty of high treason. All those who had left Ireland before Nov. 5, 1688, were to appear for the same purpose before Sept. 1, 1689. Those who had left Ireland before Nov. 5, 1688, and were then in England, Scotland, or the Isle of Man, were allowed till Oct. 1. In case of a valid excuse for not presenting themselves, the estates were to be placed temporarily in the hands of the king, but to be restored on the accused person's return. The king's pardon granted before Nov. 1 was to be valid, otherwise to be of no avail. Macaulay asserts that care was taken to keep the list of attainted persons secret, but the evidence adduced seems inconclusive. The same author calls it an "Act without parallel in the history of any civilised country." In excuse for the Irish we must look to the history of Ireland since 1641, and to the conduct of the English Parliament at the same time.

Archbishop King, *State of the Protestants in Ireland*, 1692; Froude, *Eng. in Ireland*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*

Atterbury, Francis (*b.* 1662, *d.* 1732), Bishop of Rochester, was educated at Westminster and Christ Church, Oxford, and distinguished himself with his pen as a defender of the reformed religion against the attacks of James II. After the Revolution he took the oath of allegiance to the new government He took orders, and, after being preacher at the Rolls Chapel, became one of the royal chaplains (1702), but resided at Oxford. There he helped Boyle in his edition of the spurious Letters of Phalaris, and revised his Answer to Bentley. He now wrote several pamphlets in support of the powers of the Lower House of Convocation. In 1704, he became Doctor of Divinity and Dean of Carlisle. In 1710, however, he seized the opportunity of the Sacheverell prosecution, and framed the speech which that divine pronounced at the bar of the House of Lords. [Sacheverell.] He became Dean of Christ Church, and subsequently (1713) Bishop of Rochester, "because he was so bad a dean." He espoused the Jacobite cause, and on the death of Anne implored the ministry to proclaim James III. Disliked by George I. because of his refusal to sign the bishops' declaration of fidelity, he began, in 1717, to correspond directly with the Pretender. On the failure of Atterbury's plot to restore the Stuarts (see below) he was imprisoned, and a Bill of Pains and Penalties being introduced, he was forced to leave England, professing his innocence.

For a time he resided at Paris, and was chief adviser of the Pretender. He became "the phantom minister of a phantom court," and engaged in the schemes for a Highland rebellion (1723). Atterbury was the type of the High Church clergy, most of whom were Jacobite at heart, and he "would have made an admirable bishop," says Lord Stanhope, "had he been a less good partisan." He was a clever, versatile, but somewhat fussy politician, always full of daring schemes and speculative adventures.

F. Williams, *Memoirs and Correspondence of Atterbury*, 2 vols., 1869; Lord Macaulay, Biography in *Encyl. Britann.*

Atterbury's Plot (1721), a Jacobite conspiracy, was occasioned by the confusion in England owing to the failure of the South-Sea Scheme and the revival of Jacobite hopes on the birth of the Young Pretender. It was concocted by a council of five—Atterbury, Bishop of Rochester, the Earls of Arran and Orrery, Lords North and Gower—who constantly communicated with James the Old Pretender. They quarrelled a good deal amongst themselves, and offered their leadership to Lord Oxford, but he declined it. They intended to procure a force of 5,000 men from abroad, and, failing that, as much arms, money, and men as they could. They then proposed to seize the Bank, Exchequer, and other places where money was lodged, and to proclaim the Pretender during the absence of the king from England, when James was to embark for this country. Unfortunately for the success of their scheme, they applied for 5,000 men to the Regent of France, who promptly betrayed their design to the English envoy, Sir Luke Schaub. They were allowed to continue for some time longer, their communications being opened by the government; ultimately, the leaders were arrested and the conspiracy was frustrated.

Coxe, *Walpole*, ii. 534, &c.; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*, ii. 52.

Attorney-General, The, is the chief law officer of England, who is appointed to represent the crown in all matters affecting its interests. The meaning of the term is thus explained in the early text-book, *Les Termes de la Ley:* "An attorney is one appointed by another man to do something in his stead, and is either general or special. Attorney-General is he that is appointed to all our affairs or suits, as the attorney-general of the king, attorney-general of the duke." In modern times the Prince of Wales is the only person besides the crown who appoints an "Attorney-General," who, however, is usually spoken of as "the Attorney-General for the Duchy of Lancaster or Cornwall" (as the case may be). The Attorney-General must be a party to all actions affecting the crown; and, as representative of the crown, he prosecutes for crimes, and also brings actions for revenue causes. Until comparatively recently, the income of the office was derived for the most part from patent fees. Now, however, it is fixed at £7,000 per annum, exclusive of fees for legal advice and services. The first record of the designation "Attornatus Regis" occurs in the 6th year of Edward I. The second named is William de Giselham (A.D. 1278), who two years afterwards is called "king's serjeant." In A.D. 1315—16, three Attornati Regis are mentioned in the same year as king's serjeants. It was probably during the reign of Mary that the person who had been originally chosen to represent the king generally became a royal officer with that particular function. In 1614, a question was raised as to whether the Attorney-General (Sir Francis Bacon) could legally sit in the House of Commons, "because by his office he is an assistant of the House of Lords." Bacon was allowed to retain his seat, but in 1620, 1625, and 1640, on the bestowal of the office on members of the House, they vacated their seats. On the appointment of North in 1673, he retained his seat, and his successors have continued to sit without hindrance. [Solicitor-General.]

Foss, *Judges of England*, iii. 44, 207, iv. 20, 138, 194; Manning, *Dignity of a Serjeant-at-Law*. See also Reeves, *Hist. of Eng. Law*, xxv.; and *Termes de la Ley*, sub nom. [B. R. W.]

Attwood, Thomas (*b.* 1784, *d.* 1856), was a banker, of Birmingham, and Gracechurch Street, London, and first attracted public attention by his vigorous opposition to the Orders in Council of 1812. He condemned the return to cash payments after the war, and wrote some pamphlets advocating paper money in 1815 and 1816. He was a vigorous advocate of parliamentary reform, and the chief founder in 1829 of the Birmingham Political Union. He was one of the first members for Birmingham after the passing of the Reform Bill of 1832.

Auchmuty, Sir Samuel (*b.* 1762, *d.* 1822), entered the army at the age of fourteen, and was despatched on active service to America under Sir W. Howe. He was present at most of the principal engagements in the earlier years of the war. In 1778 he returned to England, but almost immediately left for India, where he remained for nineteen years. He served in the campaigns on the Malabar coast, and in Mysore and against the Rohillas, and he also took part in the siege of Seringapatam under Lord Cornwallis. Returning in 1797, he was gazetted to a brevet-colonelcy, and in 1801 joined Baird's Indian force in Egypt, and became adjutant-general. After the surrender of Alexandria in 1802 he returned to England, and four years later was sent to command a division of the troops in the Rio de la Plata, which he

found in a dangerous position. By his skill and energy he restored confidence to the army, and on the 3rd February, 1807, carried Monte Video by storm. Auchmuty, on his return, was appointed to the command in chief at Madras, and in 1811 gave valuable assistance in the reduction of Java. Two years later he returned to England, and was appointed to command the forces in Ireland, which post he held till his death at Dublin in August, 1822.

Auchy (Eochaidh, Achaicus), King of Dalriada, was the son of Aodhfin, whom he succeeded, 796. He was on friendly terms with Charlemagne, to whom he rendered great assistance in the establishing of universities in France. He is said to have married Erfusia, a Pictish princess, and thus to have bequeathed to his grandson Kenneth a claim to the Pictish crown.

Auckland, William Eden, 1st Lord (*b.* 1743, *d.* 1814), the third son of a Durham baronet, Sir Robert Eden, was educated at Eton and Christ Church, and was called to the bar in 1769. In 1771 he published "Principles of Penal Law," which brought him into notice, and he was appointed auditor and one of the directors of Greenwich Hospital, and in the following year an Under-Secretary of State. In 1774 the Duke of Marlborough gave him the family seat of Woodstock. Two years later he was appointed to the Board of Trade, and, again, after two years, one of the commissioners for making terms with the American colonies. His mission was unsuccessful, but it made him acquainted with Lord Carlisle, who, in 1780, appointed him his secretary in Ireland, where Eden remained until the Rockingham ministry came into power in 1782. He conducted an active opposition to that government, and on their fall was made a privy-councillor and Vice-Treasurer of Ireland—an office, however, which he soon resigned. In 1785 he went over to Versailles with plenary powers to negotiate a treaty of commerce with France, and was most successful. In 1788 he was appointed ambassador to Spain. On his return a year later, he was raised to an Irish peerage, and was almost immediately afterwards sent out to Holland as ambassador. He held this position until, in May, 1793, he was raised to the British peerage. In 1798 he was appointed by Pitt to be joint Postmaster-General, and only gave up the place when Pitt went out of office in 1801. He was a warm supporter of most of Pitt's measures, and especially of the union with Ireland, the scheme for which he had himself helped to prepare. Lord Auckland was the author of measures for bettering the condition of criminals, for erecting penitentiaries, and for substituting hard labour for transportation.

Auckland, George Eden, 1st Earl of (*b.* 1784, *d.* 1849), the second son of the first Lord Auckland, entered Parliament as member for Woodstock, and in 1814 he succeeded to the peerage. In 1830 he was appointed President of the Board of Trade, and in 1834 was for a few months First Lord of the Admiralty. On the return of his friends to office, Lord Auckland was appointed Governor-General of India, and quitted England (1835) for the administration of affairs in that country. At a dinner given to him by the Court of Directors before his departure, he assured them that "he looked with exultation to the new prospects before him as affording him an opportunity of doing good to his fellow-man, of promoting education and knowledge, and of extending the blessings of good government and happiness to millions in India." But before he had been six months in Calcutta, he perceived a storm gathering in the North-West. The complications which arose brought on a great political crisis with which he was not competent to deal. He had little reliance on his own judgment, and acted for the most part under the influence of those who surrounded him. His administration is almost exclusively comprised in the fatal expedition to Afghanistan. [Afghan Wars.] In February, 1842, the arrival of Lord Ellenborough at Calcutta brought Lord Auckland's administration to a close. It comprised a single series of events—the conquest, the occupation, and the loss of Afghanistan. For administrative or material progress he had no leisure. Lord Auckland on his return was created an earl. On the accession of the Russell Cabinet, 1846, he was once more placed at the head of the Admiralty Board.

Annual Register; Kaye, *Afghanistan*.

Audley, James Touchet, 12th Lord (*d.* 1459), served under Henry V. in the French wars. In the reign of Henry VI. he took part with the Lancastrians, and was in command of the army which intercepted Salisbury at Blore Heath, in which battle Audley was defeated and slain.

Audley, James Touchet, 14th Lord (*d.* 1497), a man of broken fortune, was famous in the reign of Henry VII. for his ill-advised leadership of the Cornish rebels, and for his adherence, generally, to the cause of Perkin Warbeck. In the conflict that took place at Blackheath between the rebels and the king's forces under the command of Lord Daubeny and the Earl of Oxford, Lord Audley was taken prisoner, and was soon afterwards beheaded.

Audley, Thomas Audley, Lord (*b.* 1488, *d.* 1544), was a lawyer, appointed in 1529, at the king's request, Speaker of the House of Commons. In 1530 he became Attorney for the Duchy of Lancaster, and, in November, 1531, he was made King's Serjeant. To

enable him to second Henry's designs with a due amount of personal influence, he was, on May 20th, 1532, put in possession of the Great Seal, which he continued to hold till shortly before his death. Audley profited largely by ecclesiastical confiscations, "carving for himself in the feast of abbey lands," as Fuller remarks, "the first cut, and that a dainty morsel." The magnificent priory of the Holy Trinity in Aldgate, London, which was granted to Audley soon after his advancement to the chancellorship, was converted by him into a private mansion. But his chief spoil was the rich monastery of Walden, which he persuaded the king to grant him on his elevation to the peerage in November, 1538, as Baron Audley of Walden. He was named in the commission for the trial of Anne Boleyn and for the examination of Catherine Howard.

Augmentations, Court of. This court was instituted on the dissolution of the monasteries in Henry VIII.'s reign, and was established to secure to the crown the rich revenues belonging to suppressed religious houses. Its business was strictly limited to the consideration of questions connected with the confiscated Church property, and as this property was granted away with lavish liberality, the court speedily became a nullity and ceased to exist.

Augustine, St. (*d.* 604), first Archbishop of Canterbury, was prior of the monastery of St. Martin, in Rome, and was selected by Gregory the Great as the head of the band of monks who were to preach Christianity in England. After a difficult journey they landed in the Isle of Thanet, in 596, and obtained the protection of Ethelbert of Kent. Ethelbert's marriage with Bertha had familiarised him with the idea of Christianity, and he immediately gave permission to the missionaries to preach and convert his people. In the next year Ethelbert himself became a Christian, and in 600 Canterbury was made an archiepiscopal see, with Augustine as its archbishop, with authority to consecrate twelve bishops under his primacy. Kent seems to have become converted rapidly, and on Christmas Day, 597, no less than 10,000 persons are said to have been baptised. Before his death Augustine was able to see almost the whole of Kent and Essex Christian. Augustine's ministry was largely occupied by a contest with the British bishops. Their differences were nominally on questions of ritual, but the real question at issue was whether or not the Celtic bishops should acknowledge the supremacy of the Pope and the Italian Archbishop of Canterbury. Conferences with the Welsh bishops were held at Augustine's Oak (probably Aust, on the Severn), in 603, but to no purpose, and the breach between the two Churches was only widened. Augustine was a man of somewhat narrow, pedantic, and unconciliatory character—tendencies which the monastic training of his early and middle life probably did much to confirm; but his firmness, his integrity of life, and his singleness of purpose, are undoubted. The work he did might have been greater, if he had possessed a wider culture, a greater insight, and a more powerful influence over men's minds and hearts. Still, as far as it went, it was in the highest degree important. "He had," says Canon Bright, "rooted in Canterbury a definite centre for any future amount of Church extension."

Bede, *Hist. Eccles.*, i. 23, &c.; Gervase of Canterbury, *Act. Pontif. Cantuar. Eccles.* (Rolls Series), ii. 324; Saint Gregory, *Epist.*, vii. 5, 30; Bright, *Early Eng. Church History.*

Aula Regis. [Curia Regis.]

Auldearn, The Battle of (May 9, 1645), was fought between the Covenanters and the Royalists under Montrose, during the latter's irregular campaign in the north-eastern Highlands. In May, 1645, he found himself near Auldearn in Nairn, in presence of the Covenanters, led by John Urry or Hurry. A mistake made by one of the latter's officers led Montrose to make an attack. The Highlanders' rush carried all before it, and Urry's force was broken and scattered.

Spalding, *Memorials*, ii. 474; Burton, *Hist. of Scot.*, vi., chap. 73.

Aulus Plautius was the commander of the Roman forces which Claudius despatched against Britain in the year 43. Among the distinguished officers who served under him were two future emperors, Vespasian and his son Titus. With their aid he defeated Caractacus, and reduced the north-eastern part of the island. In the year 50 he was recalled. Rumour makes him the founder of London.

Aumâle, William of (*d.* 1179), was the son of Stephen, Count of Champagne, and therefore a kinsman of King Stephen. For his valour in the battle of the Standard, the earldom of York was given to him. He held out in Scarborough Castle against Henry II., but in 1155 was compelled to surrender.

Auray, The Battle of (1364), was fought between the English, who were espousing the claims of Montfort to the dukedom of Brittany, and the French, who supported his rival, Charles of Blois. The English, who were commanded by Sir John Chandos, were completely victorious. Du Guesclin, the French commander, was taken prisoner, and Charles of Blois was slain.

Austin, John (*b.* 1790, *d.* 1859), was the first systematic English writer upon the formal science of positive law. At an early age he entered the army, in which, however, he remained only five years. In 1818 he was

called to the bar by the Society of the Inner Temple; but, in spite of great industry and a consummate clearness and subtlety of intellect, he was debarred from professional success by physical weakness, and an over-fastidious and exacting temperament. In 1826 he was appointed Professor of Jurisprudence in the newly founded University of London (afterwards University College), where his lectures were attended by numerous men of future eminence, including Lord Romilly, Grote, Sir G. Cornewall Lewis, and J. S. Mill. The text of many of the lectures has been recovered from notes taken by the last named. But in spite of this appreciation by the few, the majority of students could not afford to pay attention to a study which was not professionally lucrative, and in 1832 Austin resigned his chair. In 1833 Lord Brougham appointed him a member of the Criminal Law Commission. In 1834 the Inner Temple engaged him to deliver another course of lectures upon the principles and history of law. But, as before, it was soon apparent that there was no demand for a scientific legal education. In 1837 Mr. Austin was sent to Malta as a royal commissioner to inquire into native grievances, in which capacity he was highly successful After a prolonged sojourn on the Continent, he returned to Weybridge, where he died in 1859. As a jurist, Austin owes his rank to the fact that he was the first to define the sphere of legal science, by distinguishing law from history and ethics—thus destroying a confusion which has produced many practical legislative evils. His writings are unfinished, and their form is often uncouth and tedious; but the doctrines which he first enunciated are now the common property of every thinker.

Austin's Works are *The Province of Jurisprudence Determined*, Lond., 1832, and *Lectures on Jurisprudence*, 5th edition, Lond., 1875. The latter work embodied the former, and was published by Mrs. Austin from the author's notes. The preface contains an interesting life of Austin. For criticisms of Austin's theories, *see* Sir Henry Maine, *Ancient Law*, Lectures xi. and xii.; Mr. F. Harrison in *Fortnightly Review*, Oct. and Nov., 1878, and Jan., 1879; Prof. Pollock in *Fortnightly Review*, Jan., 1883; Prof. Holland, *Jurisprudence*, Oxford, 1882. [B. R. W.]

Australasia. At what date Australia was first discovered, and whether by the Portuguese or Dutch, are questions which may possibly never be answered. Certain it is that, whatever may be the probability of a concealment, from supposed commercial interests, of an earlier knowledge of a southern continent, the discovery was not disclosed earlier than 1511, nor later than 1542. Between those years the Portuguese published the existence of a southern land, corresponding to Australia, which they termed Great Java; and subsequent Spanish explorers, among whom was Torres, the discoverer of Torres' Straits (1606), confirmed the correctness of the Portuguese maps. Upon the decline of Spanish maritime supremacy, the Dutch became the chief explorers of the southern seas, using their colony of Java as a starting-point. Through their efforts the Gulf of Carpentaria was surveyed and named, with many other places on the northern coasts, which retain their Dutch names up to the present day. Indeed, such was the extent of Dutch influence that the whole continent was called "New Holland"—a name which is even yet not quite supplanted by Matthew Flinders's more happy appellation of "Australia." The southern coast remained undiscovered until 1627, when a Dutch vessel, bound for Japan, being driven from her course, sailed along the shore of the Great Bight for upwards of one thousand miles. Tasman (1642) was the first systematic explorer of these shores; and to him is due the discovery of New Zealand, and of Tasmania, the latter of which was called by him Van Diemen's Land, after his betrothed. The first Englishman who touched Australian shores was Dampier, the buccaneer (1688), whose account was so favourable that the English government placed him in command of a national expedition. After this expedition, by means of which the north-west coasts were first surveyed, there are few records of discoveries until the first voyage of Captain Cook (1770). This voyage marks the beginning of Anglo-Australian history. For, although no permanent settlement was made until 1788, Cook saw enough of the country to convince him that settlement was desirable; and moreover, by sailing along the eastern coast, he completed the outline of the continent. In his second (1773) and third voyages (1777), he visited New Zealand and Tasmania. The news of his discoveries, and of the further discoveries of Barr and Flinders, induced the English government to take possession of the country; and on Jan. 20, 1788, the first English fleet, under the command of Captain Arthur Phillip, anchored in Botany Bay, a locality which was soon abandoned for the more sheltered Cove of Sydney. Inland exploration was first checked by the chain of mountains which runs, under various names, along the greater part of the eastern coast at a distance from the sea of from fifty to a hundred miles. These were crossed in 1813, under the necessity for finding new pasture during a long drought. The great rivers were next explored, and attention was directed to the possibility of traversing the continent. After various attempts, this feat was successfully accomplished by Stuart in 1860, journeying from south to north, and in the following year by the ill-fated expedition of Burke and Wills. These expeditions proved that the interior of Australia was not a desert, and showed the feasibility of constructing the present telegraph line between Adelaide and Port

Darwen. Included under the designation of Australia, or Australasia, are the colonies (now denominated original States) of (1) *New South Wales*, (2) *Victoria*, (3) *South Australia*, (4) *Western Australia*, (5) *Queensland*, (6) *Tasmania*, (7) the Dominion of *New Zealand*. These (except New Zealand) combined to form, from Jan. 1, 1901, a Federal Commonwealth, under the title of the "Commonwealth of Australia." Legislative power is vested in a Federal Government, consisting of the King, represented by a Governor-General, a Senate, and a House of Representatives.

(1) NEW SOUTH WALES (cap. Sydney) was at one time used as a penal settlement by Britain. Governor Phillip, however, perceived the necessity for encouraging another kind of immigration, and through his efforts a settlement of freemen was established on the Hawkesbury River (1802). In 1808 Governor Bligh was deposed by a successful mutiny of the New South Wales Corps; but the vigorous measures of his successor, Governor Macquarie, restored order, and rapidly advanced prosperity. After the introduction of merino sheep by Mr. John Macarthur, and the discovery of the pasture-lands beyond the Blue Mountains, the progress of the colony was very rapid; and the arrival of a Chief Justice in 1824, with all the apparatus of a Court of Record, marks a more settled order and vigorous society. Free immigration, which his immediate predecessors had discouraged, was revived under Governor Brisbane (1821). In 1840 an Order in Council suspended transportation to New South Wales, although an attempt was made to revive the practice by Earl Grey in 1846. This, however, was met by the colonists with the threat of secession; and, after a violent dispute, the English government gave way (1852), and agreed to send no convicts to any Australian colony which should object to receive them. Western Australia was for a long time the only colony which gave consent, but since 1864 transportation has been discontinued. In 1842 municipalities were first established, and in 1843 the Legislative Council was made partially elective; but government by responsible ministers was not introduced until 1856. The most important political questions in New South Wales, as in all the Australian colonies, have been the questions of labour and land. In the earliest days of the colony, the demand for labour was met by hiring out convicts to the free settlers; but from 1821 onwards, the system of free immigration was largely extended. Not only was every immigrant entitled to a free passage and a grant of land, but the shipper also received a bounty for every person whom he landed in the colony. In consequence of this practice, the country was crowded with paupers and incapables, who had often disposed of their land-grants to speculators before they had landed. After the establishment of responsible government, the bounty system was abolished until 1905, when the policy of assisted immigration was revived. The questions connected with the settlement of the land still cause grave political difficulties in New South Wales, as in other Australian colonies. The community is divided into two classes—the "squatters" (or lessees of large pasture-runs) and the small farmers. The former class desires that every facility should be given to the acquisition of large landed estates, while the other side maintains that the alienation of the national land is a policy of suicide. The disposition of the land was vested originally in the Governor; but in 1831 it was ordered that every alienation of Crown land should be by sale at a public auction, and that a minimum price should be fixed of five shillings an acre. In 1846 the influence of the squatters culminated, and a measure was passed, known as the Squatters Act, to secure fixity of tenure to Government lessees, with an option of purchase. Since the introduction of representative government, the tendency of legislation has been in the opposite direction. At present any *bonâ fide* settler can "select" not more than 640 acres out of any unoccupied land or leasehold pasture "run," and can become the absolute owner of his selection by residence and small yearly payments. Great attention is paid in New South Wales and throughout Australia to education. Elementary schools and universities are supported by the state, and the colony is well furnished with technical and secondary schools. The legislative power in New South Wales is vested in the Governor, as representing the crown, and a Parliament of two Houses, under Stat. 18 and 19 Vict., c. 54. The Upper House, or Legislative Council, consists of not less than twenty-one members, who are nominated by the crown; while the Legislative Assembly or Lower House consists of 90 elected members. There is no property qualification for voters, and the votes are taken by ballot. The colony sends 27 members to the House of Representatives. The population of New South Wales in 1908 was 1,582,619. The colony originally embraced all the territory from Cape York to the South Cape; but its area has been greatly reduced by the creation of the separate colonies of South Australia (1836), Victoria (1851), Queensland (1859).

(2) VICTORIA (pop. 1,258,140, cap. Melbourne) is the smallest of the Australian colonies. It rose into importance after the discovery of gold in 1848, and in 1854 received a constitution (18 and 19 Vict., c. 55). This measure was drawn up on similar lines to the Act conferring a constitution upon New South Wales, the main difference being that the Upper House was elected by voters

with a high property qualification. In this respect the constitution was altered in 1881. By an Act of 1906 the Legislative Council consists of 34 members elected for six years by citizens possessing or occupying property worth £10 per annum, or leasehold of £15. The Legislative Assembly, composed of 65 members, is elected triennially by universal manhood suffrage. Victoria sends 22 members to the House of Representatives. All the land of the colony has been disposed of, greatly to the benefit of those who are descended from the earliest settlers. The accumulation of land in the hands of single proprietors has been such that an attempt has been made to break up the large estates by the imposition of a progressive land-tax. The commercial policy of Victoria has been strongly Protectionist.

(3) South Australia (founded 1836, pop. 392,431, cap. Adelaide), originally part of New South Wales, obtained responsible government in 1856. The Parliament consists of two elected Houses. The Legislative Council is composed of eighteen members, half of whom retire every three years. A property qualification is required in the electors. The House of Assembly consists of forty-two members, elected for three years by universal adult suffrage. The executive is vested in the Governor and an Executive Council, consisting of the cabinet and specially-appointed ministers. The colony sends seven members to the House of Representatives. The South Australian territory now extends over the whole of Central Australia, and a great part of the north-western coast of the island.

(4) Western Australia, first called the Swan River Settlement, was founded in 1829, mainly under government auspices. To induce settlement, enormous grants of land were made to men of influence and capital who in return were to import labourers. The result was disastrous. Labourers, who are the settlers most needed in a new country, regarded the colony as closed to them, while those who were brought out preferred to work upon their own account. In 1850 the colony received a fillip of prosperity by accepting the convicts which the rest of Australia had excluded. The colony only received representative government in 1890. Under the Act which came into operation on the 21st of October in that year, Western Australia is ruled by a Governor appointed by the crown, a Legislative Council (30 elected members), and a Legislative Assembly of 50 members. The colony sends five members to the House of Representatives.

(5) Queensland (pop. 546,467, cap. Brisbane) was separated from New South Wales in 1859. Its constitution does not essentially differ from that of the mother-colony. The colony sends nine members to the House of Representatives. The climate is tropical, and sugar is a staple product. The demand for labour has been met by the importation of South-Sea Islanders (Kanaks), the traffic in whom has caused grave scandals, which have been the subject of investigation. Queensland has of late years developed an extensive trade in wool. In 1883 this colony took the initiative in pressing upon the imperial government the creation of an English protectorate over the southern part of New Guinea.

(6) Tasmania, or Van Diemen's Land (pop. 172,475, cap. Hobart Town), has a constitution like that of South Australia. Tasmania send five members to the House of Representatives. The aborigines have recently become extinct.

(7) New Zealand (pop. 1,021,000, cap. Wellington), a group of islands 600 miles to the eastward of Australia, was established as a self-governing colony in 1852. In 1907 the designation of colony was changed to Dominion. The country was divided into six provinces (afterwards increased to nine), each of which was governed by an elective Superintendent and Provincial Council. The provincial system was abolished in 1875, and the legislative power vested in the Governor, appointed by the Crown, and a General Assembly of two Chambers, a Legislative Council and a House of Representatives, both paid. The Council formerly consisted of life members: those appointed since Sept. 17, 1891, sit for a seven years' term. The House now consists of 80 members, four seats being reserved for Maori districts. Women may vote at elections and hold municipal office, but cannot sit in either House. [Maori Wars.]

Hakluyt Society, *Early Voyages to Australia*: the journals of explorers (*e.g.*, Sturt, Stuart, Mitchell, M'Kinlay, &c.); Bonwick, *History of Port Phillip*; Lang, *History of New South Wales*; Fitzgerald, *Australia*; Creasy, *Britannic Empire*; Rusden, *Hist. of Australia*, 1883; Jenks, *The Australasian Colonies*, 1895; Dilke, *Problems of Greater Britain*.

Australian Colonies Act, The, was passed by Lord John Russell's government in 1850. It created Victoria a distinct province from New South Wales, and conferred on the four colonies of New South Wales, Victoria, Van Diemen's Land, and South Australia the power of choosing their own constitution, "by means of popular assemblies, composed of all the inhabitants who were £10 householders or £100 freeholders."

Austria, Relations with. Before the sixteenth century, Austria was merely an imperial duchy, too remote and insignificant to have important dealings with England. Under the Bamberg line, the captivity of Richard I. in consequence of his quarrel with Leopold V. is the only important exception. Rudolf of Hapsburg, who in 1278 granted Austria to his son Albert, was a good friend of Edward I., but friendship for actual Bavarian and Luxemburg emperors made England necessarily cool to Austrian aspirants to that dignity. With Frederick III. (1439—1493) and Maximilian I. (1493—1519), the empire became practically hereditary in

the Austrian house. The traditional friendship between England and the empire [EMPIRE, RELATIONS WITH] now necessarily involved closer relations with Austria. Maximilian I. acquired, with the Burgundian Netherlands, the advantages of the old commercial and political connection between England and Flanders. Charles V. united Spain, England's third mediæval ally, with the imperial crown. But it was rather with the Austrian house than Austria, with Spain rather than the distant "Erbländer," that England now becomes closely involved. On Charles's abdication, the Austro-Spanish House split up into two lines, but the solidarity between them was such that the intimate relations of alternate friendship and hostility between England and Spain practically determined her relations with Austria until the death of the last Austrian King of Spain in 1700. [SPAIN, RELATIONS WITH.] Up to that date it is only necessary to note any peculiarity of relation between England and Austria. For instance, when the Catholic Reaction ended for a time the Anglo-Spanish alliance, the superior moderation of the imperial branch produced friendly relations between Elizabeth and the liberal and tolerant Maximilian II. (1564—1578). Again, in the Thirty Years' War, close relations with Ferdinand II. (1619—1637) resulted from James I.'s persistent efforts to obtain the restoration of the Pfalzgraf Frederick, his son-in-law, to his hereditary dominions. For some years he hoped to get this by Spanish mediation. But when he and his son Charles found they were being played with, they turned to that alliance with France which lasted with partial breaks till 1688, and much longer than the political balance demanded. Fear of Louis XIV. led even Charles II. to the TRIPLE ALLIANCE, which saved Austria Franche Comté; and again, in 1677, he began to incline to the imperial side. With William III. the whole influence of England was thrown against France, and in the wars of the League of Augsburg (1688—1697) and of the SPANISH SUCCESSION (1702—1713) England fought in close alliance with Austria. The substitution of a Bourbon for a Hapsburg monarch in Spain led to a closer union of interests between England and Austria than before. Yet there was a constant strain in their relations in the early half of the eighteenth century that led to absolute hostility in the second half. In the TREATY OF UTRECHT (1713), the Tories abandoned their Austrian ally. The accession of George I., the head of the house whose long attachment to the empire had been rewarded with a ninth electorate, made relations easier. But the commercial restrictions imposed on Flanders in the interests of the maritime powers, and the BARRIER TREATY, negotiated through English mediation, that handed over that country to Austria, with its fortresses garrisoned by Dutch Protestants, were warmly resented by Charles VI., who had not forgotten the failure of his Spanish hopes. Very unwillingly he made a defensive alliance in 1716, and when Alberoni's intrigues against the Utrecht settlement produced the Triple Alliance of 1717, it was only immediate fear of losing Italy that prevailed on him to make it a Quadruple Alliance, by joining with France and the maritime powers to uphold the treaty. In 1722 his Ostend India Company was established in direct contravention of the treaty, and in 1725 Ripperda negotiated the first Treaty of Vienna, that re-united Austria with Spain against England, even more than France. Charles secured a further triumph when Prussia deserted England [TREATY OF HANOVER, 1726] for his alliance, and open war between England and Spain ensued. But in 1727 peace was patched up [PARIS, PEACE OF], and in 1731 the second Treaty of Vienna restored peace with England, and Charles renounced his commercial schemes for a guarantee of the Pragmatic Sanction. His subsequent misfortunes in the Polish and Turkish wars did not prevent England from loyally supporting Maria Theresa in the War of the AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION (1741—1748). But English help was given in an overbearing and insolent spirit that destroyed all feelings of gratitude. Robinson, the English ambassador at Vienna, made himself most obnoxious, and England compelled the empress, much against her will, to surrender part of the Milanese to Sardinia (Treaty of Worms, 1743), and Silesia to Frederick II. of Prussia, and the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748) confirmed these cessions, and created a patrimony for Don Philip at the expense of Austria. This treaty, coming after thirty years of friction, produced a definite rupture. Count Wenzel Kaunitz became Maria's adviser, and negotiated that alliance between France and Austria that continued with partial breaks till the Revolution. Hence, in the SEVEN YEARS' WAR (1756—1763), Austria did its best to ruin Prussia, England's constant ally. But George III., intent on the restoration of personal government, paid but slight attention to foreign politics. Meanwhile Austria approximated to the Eastern powers, and in 1772 shared in the partition of Poland. Joseph II. became completely fascinated by Catherine II.'s schemes of Eastern empire, and his sister's marriage keeping up his friendship with France, he availed himself of England's difficulties with America to repudiate the Barrier Treaty (1781), and an attempt to reopen the Scheldt. At last the younger Pitt's vigour restored to England its true position in Europe by forming an alliance against the Eastern powers, which in 1790 compelled Leopold II. (Joseph was just dead) to accept the Conven-

tion of Reichenbach, and withdraw from the Turkish War. The French Revolution completed the *rapprochement* of England and Austria. A close alliance was cemented by heavy subsidies, and in 1793 England joined the war against France. The alliance continued till 1815; only broken when Napoleon forced a peace on Austria, and was renewed again at the earliest opportunity. The TREATY OF VIENNA was successfully negotiated (1815); if England did not accede to the HOLY ALLIANCE, it did not purge itself of association with its authors until the great ministry of Canning. Since 1827 the two countries have pursued very different directions. While Austria, under the guidance of Metternich, was the representative of reaction and absolutism in Europe, the two powers could hardly be on other terms than those of distant courtesy. In 1848—9, when Italy and Hungary tried to realise their independence, English sympathy was largely enlisted on the side of the wronged nationalities; but the sympathy took no active shape, and Austria was allowed to subdue the Hungarians by the aid of Russian armies. The close alliance with Russia was, however, severed by the Crimean War, in which Austria took no part. The overthrow of Austria by Prussia in 1866—her consequent exclusion from German affairs, and the liberal institutions which she found herself compelled to set up—seemed to have removed nearly all possible grounds of difference. Since 1867 the political intercourse between English statesmen and those of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy, has been almost confined to questions connected with the condition of the Balkan peninsula. [BERLIN TREATY.]

Coxe's *House of Austria*, largely drawn from despatches, is the best general authority. Ranke, *English History in the Seventeenth Century*, is excellent on all foreign relations; Arneth's *Prinz Eugen* and *Maria Theresia* are indispensable for the eighteenth century. [T. F. T.]

Austrian Succession, THE WAR OF THE (1741—1748), was caused by the death of Charles VI., Emperor of Germany, without male issue. There was thus thrown open the question of the succession to the empire, and to the Austrian dominions. The latter had previously been secured to Maria Theresa by the Pragmatic Sanction. The chief claimant to both was the Elector of Bavaria; the next important candidate was Philip V. of Spain. As both these princes were allies of France, it was necessary for England to oppose their designs. Walpole, therefore, had tried to found a grand alliance between Hanover, Prussia, and the maritime powers with Austria; Frederick, however, would recognise the Pragmatic Sanction only if his claims to Silesia were acknowledged. This was refused by Austria, and immediately the French and Prussian armies crossed to the frontier (1741) Hanover was obliged to declare neutrality for a year. In 1742 England and Holland joined Austria, and an army of 30,000 was sent into the Low Countries. In the Mediterranean Commodore Matthews, with the fleet, forced the King of Naples to neutrality, and allowed Sardinia to side with Austria. Frederick acquired Silesia by the treaties of Breslau and Berlin, and withdrew from the contest. The chief event of 1743 was the battle of DETTINGEN, which, though nearly resulting in a disastrous defeat for the English, forced the French to retire into Alsace. Negotiations for peace were begun, George II. being willing to recognise Charles of Bavaria as emperor if he would renounce his claims on Austria. They were, however, broken off, and the Treaty of Worms, including England, Holland, Austria, Saxony, and Sardinia (Sept., 1743), was met in October by the League of Frankfort, the important members of which were France and Prussia. Thus both England and France were now the respective heads of two great leagues, and the question at issue was really that of the naval supremacy of one or the other power, rather than the Austrian succession, the ostensible cause of the war. In 1744, after an attempted invasion of England in favour of the Pretender had been thwarted by the elements, a formal declaration of war was made. The general war, in which the English troops were not concerned, need not be discussed here. Frederick of Prussia was not well supported by the French; and in 1745, on the death of Charles of Bavaria, Francis, the son of Maria Theresa, was elected emperor. It was then possible to have made some general negotiation. The opportunity passed. Large subsidies were voted to German troops, and 18,000 Hanoverians were taken into English pay. In Dec., 1745, Frederick made a separate peace with Austria, known as that of Dresden. Meanwhile the allies, under the Duke of Cumberland and the Prince of Waldeck, were disastrously beaten by the French at FONTENOY (May, 1745), and had to retire to Brussels and Antwerp. They had been much weakened by the necessity of withdrawing troops to defend England against the invasion of the Young Pretender. [STUART, CHARLES EDWARD.] In 1746 Marshal Saxe became master of the Austrian Netherlands. Deserted, however, by the Prussians and Bavarians, the French began to make offers for peace. In 1747 the Duke of Cumberland and the Prince of Orange were defeated with great loss at LAWFELDT. Bergen-op-Zoom fell, and Maestricht was besieged. These disasters were counterbalanced by the Austrian successes in Italy, and by the capture of Cape Breton Island in America. At length the struggle was brought to a close by the PEACE OF AIX-LA-CHAPELLE (Oct., 1748). The results of the war, as a whole, were not unfavourable to England. She had done much

to secure her maritime supremacy, while her rival, France, had displayed a growing weakness and incapacity.

Carlyle, *Frederick II.*; Coxe, *Pelham* and *Walpole*; Smollett, *Hist. of Eng.*; Frederick II., *Mémoires de Mon Temps*; Voltaire, *Siècle de Louis XIV.*; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; Ranke, *Hist. of Prussia*.

Authorities on English History. In the present article the leading authorities are briefly considered under the following nine periods:—(1) Before the English conquest; (2) from the English to the Norman conquest; (3) from the Norman conquest to the close of the 12th century; (4) the 13th century; (5) the 14th and 15th centuries; (6) the 16th century; (7) the 17th century; (8) the 18th century till 1789; (9) from 1789 to the present time.

1. Period before the English Conquest.—Contemporary Writers: Cæsar, *de Bello Gallico* (bks. iv. and v.); the *Agricola* of Tacitus and passages in the *Germania* of the same writer are the principal sources. To these must be added numerous scattered passages in various classical writers, enumerated in Sir T. Hardy's *Descriptive Catalogue of Materials relating to the History of Great Britain and Ireland* (vol. i.), and printed in the *Monumenta Historica Britannica* (fol. 1848). The *Itinerarium* of Antoninus supplies an enumeration of the chief towns and roads in Roman Britain; the *Notitia Dignitatum* an outline of the organisation of the country.

Later Writers: A few notices of the condition of the native population before the middle of the 6th century, may be gathered from Gildas, *de Excidio Britanniæ*. The *Ecclesiastical History* of Bede, commencing at the same time, but coming down to A.D. 731, is then the chief authority. The *Historia Britonum* of Nennius preserves some important fragments of earlier writers, and affords illustrations of the early Welsh traditions, but is otherwise of little value. The work bearing the same title, by Geoffrey of Monmouth, although worthless from an historical point of view, is valuable as a source of numerous legends.

Modern Writers: *Britannia Romana*, of J. Horsley (1732); Dr. Guest, *Origines Celticæ*, 1883; H. C. Coote, *The Romans of Britain* (1878); J. C. Bruce, *The Roman Wall* (3rd edition, 1867); C. Elton, *Origins of English History* (2nd edition, 1890); W. E. Hearn, *The Aryan Household* (1873); Rhŷs, *Celtic Britain*; W. F. Skene, *Celtic Scotland* (1880).

2. From the English to the Norman Conquest.—Contemporary Writers: Bede and the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicles* (*R.S.**) new edition, edited by G. Gomme, 1909; Asser, *Life of King Alfred* (probably in part a genuine contemporary narrative), new edition edited by Stevenson, 1904; the *Chronicle* of Ethelward; the *Encomium Emmæ* (Life of Queen Emma), and *Life of Edward the Confessor* (*R. S.*), have both a certain though secondary value. Other *Lives* are those of St. Cuthbert, by Bede; St. Columba, by Adamnan; and that of Wilfrid, Bishop of York, by Eddius; and the later ones of Aldhelm, by Fabricius, a foreigner, used by William of Malmesbury in his account of Aldhelm in the *Gesta Pontificum*; an anonymous *Life* of Alcuin, the foremost English scholar of his age, whose *Letters* are also of considerable value; and the *Life* of St. Dunstan, by Adelard. The Chronicles and Histories up to 1066 are printed in the *Monumenta Historica Britannica*.

Later Writers: Among these are the *Chronicle* of Marianus Scotus; the *Historia Regum* and *Historia Ecclesiæ Dunelmensis* (*R. S.*) of Simeon of Durham; the *Historia Anglorum* (*R. S.*) of Henry of Huntingdon; and the *Chronicles* of Ralph of Diceto (*R. S.*) and Peter Langtoft (*R. S.*). These all, however, yield in value to William of Malmesbury, whose *Gesta Regum Anglorum*, *Historia Novella*, and *De Gestis Pontificum* (*R. S.*)—a history of English bishops and monasteries from the time of Augustine—are the best sources for the period. The *Chronicon* of Florence of Worcester is also of considerable importance. The principal biographies are the Lives of Edward the Confessor, by Ethelred of Rievaulx, and of St. Dunstan, by Osbern and Eadmer.

Modern Writers: J. M. Kemble, *Saxons in England*, 1849; E. A. Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, which to a great extent, but not altogether, supersedes *The History of England and Normandy* by Sir Francis Palgrave; Lappenberg, *History of England under the Anglo-Saxon Kings*; Dr. W. Stubbs, *Select Charters* and *Constitutional History*; Schmidt, *Gesetze der Angelsachsen*; B. Thorpe, *Ancient Laws and Institutes of England*; Earle, *Handbook to the Land Charters*; Wm. Bright, *Early English Church History*; the *Dictionary of National Biography*; J. R. Green, The *Making of England*, and The *Conquest of England*; C. Plummer, *Life and Times of Alfred the Great*.

3. Norman Conquest to the Close of the Twelfth Century.—For Norman History: the *Historiæ Normannorum* of William of Jumièges; the *Gesta Willelmi* of William of Poitiers; the *Bayeux Tapestry*, engraved by the Antiquarian Society, and with elucidations by Rev. G. C. Bruce. See also Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, vol. iii., Append. A.

Contemporary Writers: Peterborough version of *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* (ends 1154); Eadmer, *Historia Novorum*, and *Vita Anselmi* (*R. S.*); Gaimar, *Histoire des Angles*; Ordericus

* The letters *R. S.* appended to a title in this article denote that the work is included in the series *Chronicles and Memorials of Great Britain and Ireland*, published by the authority of the Master of the Rolls. The letters *C. S.* denote that it is one of the publications of the Camden Society.

Vitalis, *Historia Ecclesiastica;* Malmesbury's *Historia Novella* (above mentioned) should be compared with the *Gesta Stephani;* the *Chronicles* by Richard of Hexham (*R. S.*), and John of Hexham (Twysden, *Decem Scriptores*), both priors of that monastery. For reign of Henry II.: William of Newburgh, *Historia Rerum Anglicarum* (*R. S.*); the *Gesta Regis Henrici* (*R. S.*), wrongly ascribed to Benedict of Peterborough; the *Chronica* of Roger Hoveden (*R. S.*), a work of high importance; the *Imagines Historiarum* (*R. S.*) of Ralph of Diceto. For the reign of Richard I.: The *Chronicle* of Richard of Devizes (*R. S.*); the *Chronicle* of Gervase, a monk of Canterbury (*R. S.*); and *Gesta Regum* (*R. S.*), by the same author, with continuation by unknown writers (of considerable value); *Chronicles and Memorials of Reign of Richard I.*, with prefaces by Dr. Stubbs (*R. S.*). For reigns of John and Henry II.: The *Topographia Hiberniæ* and *Expugnatio Hibernia* of Giraldus Cambrensis (*R. S.*); and for court and ecclesiastical life of the period, the *Gemma Ecclesiæ* and *Speculum Ecclesiæ* of the same writer (*R. S.*), the poem of Walter Map, *de Nugis Curialium*, and the *de Nugis Curialium* of John of Salisbury. In biography, the *Lives* of Lanfranc, by Milo Crispin; of Anselm, by Eadmer; together with those of Becket (*R. S.*); and the *Magna Vita* of Hugh of Lincoln (*R. S.*). *Domesday Book*, fac-simile edition by Sir Henry James, by photozincographic process, together with account in Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, vol. v.; also F. W. Maitland, *Domesday Book and beyond.*

Modern Writers: Freeman and Stubbs (*ut sup.*); Freeman, *Hist. William Rufus* and *Historical Essays* (1st series); Kate Norgate, *England under the Angevin Kings;* Guizot, *Essais* and *Histoire de Civilisation en France;* Pollock and Maitland, *History of English Law before Edward I.;* W. F. Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops of Canterbury;* R. W. Church, *Life of Anselm;* M. Rule, *St. Anselm:* Perry, *Life of St. Hugh of Lincoln;* Dugdale, *Monasticon Anglicanum* (1665—73).

4. Thirteenth Century and Reign of Edward II.—Contemporary Writers: The *Historia Major* of Matthew Paris (*R. S.*), abridged in his *Historia Minor* (*ib.*), specially important, and exhibiting a great advance in historical composition; *Chronicon* of William Rishanger (*R. S.*), and *Annales* of Nicholas Trivet; *Memoriale* of Walter of Coventry (*R. S.*), useful for the reign of John; the *Annals* of the monasteries of Burton-upon-Trent, Winchester, Waverley, Dunstable, Osney, and Worcester, all contained in the *Annales Monastici* (*R. S.*), edited by Luard. For Reign of Edward II.: The *Annales* of John of Trokelowe, a monk of Tynemouth (*R. S.*), and *Life* of Edward, by an unknown writer (probably a monk of Malmesbury) (*R. S.*), also another *Life*, by Thomas de la Moore (*R. S.*); *Chronicon* of Adam of Murimuth; *Chronicon* of Walter of Hemingford (superior in conception and accuracy to the average historical literature of the period), comprising the reigns of the first three Edwards; *Chronicon Petroburgense* (*C. S.*), as a specimen of local history. For civic history of London: The *Munimenta Gildhallæ Londoniensis* (*R. S.*), edited by Riley, specially valuable for the light they throw on the political and commercial condition of the country during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries; the *Domesday of St. Paul's* (*C. S.*); also *Chroniques de London* (*C. S.*); *Chronicle of London from 1089 to 1483*, edited by Nicolas; *Collections of a London Citizen*, edited by J. Gairdner (*C. S.*); the *Annales Londonienses* and *Annales Paulini*, edited by Dr. Stubbs (*R. S.*); *Royal and Historical Letters illustrative of Reign of Henry III.*, edited by W. W. Shirley (*R. S.*); *Letters of Bishop Grosseteste*, edited by Luard (*R. S.*); *Metrical Chronicle of Robert of Gloucester*, edited by Dr. Aldis Wright (*R. S.*); *Political Songs of England, from Reign of John to that of Edward II.*, edited by Thomas Wright (*C. S.*).

Modern Writers: Freeman, Guizot, Norgate's *Angevin Kings*, and Hook's *Lives*, as specified in preceding section; Dr. Pauli, *Geschichte von England* (in *Gesch. d. Europäischen Staaten*, by Heeren and Ükert); W. Longman, *Lectures on the History of England;* the Prefaces by the different editors of Walter of Coventry, Matthew Paris, the *Monumenta Franciscana*, Roger Bacon, in Rolls Series, as above specified. Hallam, *Middle Ages;* W. H. Blaauw, *Baron's War;* *Lives* of Simon de Montfort by Pauli and G. W. Prothero; Vinogradoff, *Villainage in England;* J. E. T. Rogers, *History of Agriculture and Prices in England* (commences A.D. 1259); Mullinger, *History of the University of Cambridge*, vol. i.; Rashdall, *Universities of the Middle Ages.* For relations of England to the Papacy: Milman, *Latin Christianity;* and the fifth volume of Greenwood's *Cathedra Petri.*

5. Fourteenth and Fifteenth Centuries.—Contemporary Writers: Adam of Murimuth, with continuation by unknown writer, coming down to 1380. For reign of Edward III.: Robert of Avesbury, *de Mirabilibus Gestis Edwardi III.*, edited by Hearne; Higden's *Polychronicon*, with version by John of Trevisa (*R. S.*); The *Chronicle of Henry Knighton* (*R. S.*), extends to death of Richard II.; *Chronicle of England*, by a monk of St. Alban's (*R. S.*); Walsingham, *Historia Anglicana* (*R. S.*) now of primary importance; French *Chronicle*, relating to death of Richard II. (*Eng. Hist. Soc.*); and *History* of the same monarch, also in French (*Archæol. Britann.*, vol. xx.); Adam of Usk, with translation by E. M. Thompson; Capgrave, *Chronicle of England* and *Book of the noble Henries* (both (*R. S.*); Otterbourne, *Chronicon Regum Angliæ*, edited by Hearne; *Lives* of Henry V. as fol-

lows: (1) by Thomas Elmham, in Hearne; (2) by Titus Livius (*ib.*); (3) "The Chaplain's Account" (*Eng. Hist. Soc.*); Puiseux, *Le Siège de Rouen; Annals* of the monastery of St. Albans, by John Amundesham and John Whethamstede (both *R. S.*); Chronicles of the reign of Henry VI., edited by Gairdner (*C. S.*); Bekynton's *Correspondence*, belonging to same reign (*R. S.*); Harding's *Chronicle*, continued by Grafton; Jehan de Wavrin's *Collection* of Chronicles (*R. S.*); William of Worcester, *Annals* and *Collections*, edited by Stevenson (*R. S.*); *Chronicle* of Jehan le Bel, edited by Polain; the *Chronicles* of Froissart and Monstrelet, important, but not altogether trustworthy; Blondel, *de Reductione Normanniæ* (*R. S.*); *Historie of Arrivale of Edward IV. in England* (*C. S.*); the *Paston Letters*, edited by J. Gairdner, are important as illustrating the manners and habits of thought in the fifteenth century; *Continuation* of the *Croyland Chronicle* (in Gale's *Scriptores*); Warkworth's *Chronicle* (*C. S.*) comprises first thirteen years of King Edward's reign; the *London Chronicle* (*C. S.*); Sir Thomas More's account of Edward V. and Richard III., virtually a contemporary narrative; *Letters and Papers illustrative of the Reigns of Richard III. and Henry VII.*, edited by Gairdner (*R. S.*); Bernard (André), *Life of Henry VII.*, edited by Gairdner (*R. S.*); *Materials for a History of the Reign of Henry VII.*, edited by Campbell (*R. S.*); Lord Bacon's *Henry VII.*, edited by Ellis and Spedding; the *Venetian Relation* (*C. S.*), a view of England as it appeared to an intelligent foreigner, temp. Henry VII.; Fabyan's *Chronicle;* Wyclif's *Works*, E.E.T.S. edition; *Political Poems and Songs*, edited by Wright (*R. S.*); The *Peasants' Rising and the Lollards*, a collection of unpublished documents forming an Appendix to *England in the Age of Wycliffe*, edited by E. Powell and G. M. Trevelyan.

Later Writers: Polydore Vergil's *Historia Anglica*, often as valuable as contemporary evidence; Hall's *Union of the Families of Lancaster and York*, the main source of Shakespeare's historical dramas.

Modern Writers: Hallam, *Middle Ages* (two concluding chapters); Freeman, *Essays* (first series); Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops;* Rogers, *History of Prices;* Longman, *Life and Times of Edward III.;* M. Wallon, *Richard II.; History of England under Henry IV.*, by J. H. Wylie; *Lancaster and York*, by Sir James Ramsay (a careful narrative of the Wars of the Roses); W. Busch, *England under the Tudors* (edited by J. Gairdner); *Life and Reign of Richard III.*, by Gairdner. For academic life and history of learning: Huber, *English Universities* (transl. by Newman); Mackenzie Walcott, *William of Wykeham and his Colleges;* Anstey, Preface to *Munimenta Academica* (*R. S.*). For Wyclif and his opponents: Shirley, Preface to *Fasciculi Zizaniorum* (*R. S.*); article on *The Lollards*, in Gairdner and Spedding's *Studies in English History*.

6. Sixteenth Century. — Contemporary Writers: Polydore Vergil (now especially important); Hall; the *London Chronicle*. For the question of the royal divorce, the materials collected in *Records of the Reformation* (A.D. 1527—1533), edited by Rev. N. Pocock; Harpsfield, *Treatise of the Pretended Divorce* (*C. S.*); the Catholic representation of the facts is to be found in Nicholas Sanders's *Historia Schismatis Anglicani* (1585), of which an enlarged edition, with continuation, was published by Rishton (transl., with notes, by Lewis, 1877); only a small proportion of the work is entitled to rank as contemporary. Wriothesley's *Chronicle;* More, *Utopia*, and Starkey, *England in the Reign of Henry VIII.;* Holinshed's *Chronicles*, of which Harrison's *Description of England* has been reprinted (New Shakspere Society). John Stowe, *Summary of the Chronicles of England*, *Annales*, and *Survey of London and Westminster;* Foxe, *History of the Acts and Monuments of the Church* (ed. Cattley); *Chronicle of the Grey Friars of London* (*C. S.*); *Letters on the Suppression of the Monasteries*, edited by Wright (*C. S.*); *Narratives of the Reformation* (*C. S.*); *Literary Remains of Edward VI.* (Roxburgh Club); Machyn's *Diary* (*C. S.*); *Chronicle of Queen Jane, etc.*, edited by Nichols (*C. S.*); *Lives* of More, by his son-in-law, Roper, and of Wolsey, by his gentleman-usher, Cavendish; *Life of Sir Peter Carew*, by Hooker; *Life of Queen Elizabeth*, by Camden; Sir John Harington's *Briefe View* contains a series of sketches of the principal bishops of Elizabeth's reign. For original documents, the *Calendars of Letters and Papers, Foreign and Domestic, of the Reign of Henry VIII.*, ed., with important prefaces, by J. S. Brewer; also the "Domestic" series for reigns of Edward VI., Mary and Elizabeth, ed. by R. Lemon and Mrs. Everett Green; the "Foreign" series for same reigns, by Turnbull, Joseph Stevenson, and Crosby (all pub. by the Record Commissioners). The *Zürich Letters* (ed. Hastings Robinson) contain the correspondence between the English and the Continental Reformers; *see* also *Brief Discourse of the Troubles begun at Frankfort* (in "The Phœnix," vol. ii.); and the *Journals* of Parliament. *Records of the English Catholics* (Douay Diaries and Letters of Cardinal Allen). The *Hardwicke Papers* are an important miscellaneous collection known under this designation, although the name of the editor, the Earl of Hardwicke, does not appear on the title-page; Sir Dudley Digges, *The Compleat Ambassador;* the *Cabala*—a collection of letters by eminent diplomatists, &c.; the *Somers Tracts; Select Statutes, etc., of Reigns of Elizabeth and James I.*, by Professor Prothero. For ecclesiastical affairs in Scotland, the *Works* of Peterkin, Calderwood, and Archbishop

Spottiswoode; also the *Works* of John Knox, edited by Laing. For proceedings of Parliament, the collections by Sir Simonds d'Ewes and Heywood Townsend; the *Burleigh Papers*; *La vie d'Elisabeth*, by Gregorio Leti (1684). For Continental relations, the *Correspondence* of Granville; the *Relations politiques des Pays-Bas et de l'Angleterre*, edited by Baron Kervyn de Lettenhove; the Calendars (*R. S.*) relating to Venice, edited by Rawdon Brown; and those by Bergenroth and Gayangos relating to Spain; for relations of Scotland and France, the *French Despatches*, edited by M. Teulet. For questions connected with Mary Queen of Scots, her *Letters*, edited by Prince Lobanof-Rostovsky; the materials (some possibly spurious) in Anderson's *Collections*; the *Letter-Books* of Sir Amias Paulet; the *Sydney Papers*, Stubbes' *Anatomie of Abuses*, and Stafford's *Examination of Complaints* (1580), (New Shakspere Soc.).

LATER WRITERS: Fuller, *Church History*; Burnet, *History of the Reformation* (ed. by Pocock), with Harmer's *Specimen*; Collier, *Ecclesiastical History* (edited by Lathbury); Legrand, *Histoire du Divorce*; Strype, *Ecclesiastical Memorials*, *Annals of the Reformation*, and *Lives* of Cranmer, Parker, Sir John Cheke, Sir Thomas Smith, Aylmer, Grindal, and Whitgift; Neal, *History of the Puritans*; C. Dodd, *Church History of England* (1742), the work of a moderate Catholic; *Life of Henry VIII.*, by Lord Herbert of Cherbury; Sir John Hayward's *Life of Edward VI.*, and *Annals of the first Four Years of Reign of Elizabeth*; Fiddes, *Life of Wolsey*; Fuller, *The Worthies of England*; Lloyd, *State Worthies*; A. Wood, *Athenæ Oxonienses* (1691); J. Nichols, *Progresses of Queen Elizabeth* (1788).

MODERN WRITERS: J. A. Froude, *History of England* and *Spanish Story of the Armada*; L. von Ranke, *History of the Popes*, and *History of England, chiefly in the Sixteenth and Seventeenth Centuries*; J. Lingard, *History of England*; J. H. Blunt, *Reformation of the Church of England*; R. W. Dixon, *History of the Church of England*; S. R. Maitland, *Essays on the Reformation*; J. B. Marsden, *Early Puritans*; J. L. Motley, *Rise of the Dutch Republic* and *History of the United Netherlands*; R. Bagwell, *Ireland under the Tudors*; W. Maskell, *History of the Martin Marprelate Controversy*; H. M. Dexter, *Congregationalism of the last Three Hundred Years*; C. Wordsworth, *Ecclesiastical Biography*; F. Seebohm, *Oxford Reformers*; F. G. Lee, *Life of Cardinal Pole*; R. Churton, *Life of Alexander Nowell*; Sir H. Nicolas, *Lives* of William Davison and Sir Christopher Hatton; Fox Bourne, *Life of Sir Philip Sidney*; J. S. Brewer, *English Studies*; Mignet, *Histoire de Marie Stuart*; J. Hosack, *Mary Queen of Scots*; *Marie Stuart*, by Kervyn de Lettenhove; W. B. Devereux, *Lives and Letters of the Devereux*; E. Edwards and W. Stebbing, *Lives of Sir Walter Raleigh*; M'Crie, *Life of John Knox* and *Life of Andrew Melville*; *Athenæ Cantabrigienses*, by C. H. and T. Cooper; Mullinger, *Hist. of Univ. of Cambridge*, vol. ii.; F. A. Gasquet, *Henry VIII. and the English Monasteries*, and *Eve of the Reformation*; A. F. Pollard, *England under Protector Somerset*, and *Henry VIII., Illustrated from Contemporary Works of Art*; F. W. Maitland, *English Law of the Renaissance*.

7. Seventeenth Century.—CONTEMPORARY SOURCES: The *Calendars of State Papers*, "Foreign" and "Domestic," for the most authentic and original information until about 1670; while the Somers Tracts, the Sidney Papers, the Winwood Memorials, the works of Fuller, Collier, Neal, Dodd, Nichols, etc., afford valuable material.

First Half of Seventeenth Century.—CONTEMPORARY WRITERS: For the reign of King James, Camden's *Annals*—a compilation of comparatively little value; other accounts are, Wilson's *History of King James I.* (in Kennet); Goodman, *Court of James I.*; King James own *Works*. For Parliamentary transactions, the *Debates of* 1610 (*C. S.*), together with those of 1620 and 1621, in the *Parliamentary History*; Rushworth's *Collections*, from 1618; the *Protests of the House of Lords* (from 1625), ed. J. E. T. Rogers; the Melrose *State Papers* and *Correspondence*; Sir David Dalrymple, *Memorials and Letters* (1762); the *Carew Letters*. *Narrative of the Spanish Marriage Treaty* (*C. S.*); Lord Herbert of Cherbury, *Expedition to the Isle of Rhé*. For Continental relations, the *Ambassades de M. de la Boderie*, the "Venetian Reports," Winwood, *Memorials*; Birch, *Historical View*; and the *Mémoires* of Rusdorf. For the reign of Charles I., Wallington's *Diary*; the Thomason collection of pamphlets and "The King's Pamphlets," both in the British Museum; Dalrymple, *Memorials and Letters*; Lord Clarendon, *History of the Rebellion* and *State Papers*; *Letters and Papers of the Verney Family* (*C. S.*). Whitelocke, *Memorials*; the *Thurloe Papers*; May, *History of the Long Parliament*; Sir Ralph Verney's *Notes* (*C. S.*); Scobell's *Collection*. For parliamentary proceedings: Strafford's *Letters and Despatches*; Nalson's *Collection*. The *Ormonde Papers* (edited by Thomas Carte); *A Contemporary History of Affairs in Ireland from* 1641 *to* 1652 (edited by G. T. Gilbert); Guthry's *Memoirs*; Ludlow's *Memoirs*—contain important materials for Scottish and Irish history. Milton's *Prose Works* and the writings of Bishop Hall give the chief points in dispute between the Episcopalian and Presbyterian parties. Sprigg's *Anglia Rediviva*; John Webb's *Memorials*; the *Hamilton Papers* (*C. S.*); the *Letters* of Charles I. to Henrietta Maria (*C. S.*)—belong to the time of the Civil War. The *Puritan Transactions*, edited by Heywood and Wright, the *Querela Cantabrigiensis*, and *The Puritan Visitation of the University of Oxford*, edited by Professor

Montagu Burrows (*C. S.*), illustrate the condition of the universities. The *Fairfax Correspondence*, successively edited by Johnson and Bell, covers the period 1625—70. The important series, *Records of the English Province of the Society of Jesus*, edited by Father Foley; the *Life of Father John Gerard*, by Father Morris; together with the works of Juvencius, Bartoli, and Tanner, should be consulted for the history of the Jesuit movement. Biographies: of the *Lord Keeper Williams*, by Hacket; of Colonel Birch (*C. S.*); of *Bishop Bedell*, edited by Mayor and Jones; of *The Dukes of Hamilton*, by Bishop Burnet; of *The Duke of Newcastle*, by his Duchess, edited by C. H. Firth. Autobiographies: of *Sir Simonds d'Ewes*, *Sir Robert Carey*, *Lord Herbert of Cherbury*, *Lady Halket* (*C. S.*), and *Mrs. Alice Thornton*.

Later Writers: The writers of the 18th century—Rapin (the author of a *History of England to the Death of Charles I.*), Dr. Birch (*Court and Times of James I.*, *Court and Times of Charles I.*), and Thomas Carte (*Life of Ormonde*)—together with Brodie (*Constitutional History*), Godwin (*History of the Commonwealth*), and Disraeli (*Commentaries on the Reign of Charles I.*), in the earlier part of the nineteenth century, must now be regarded as almost superseded by later and more systematic research, such as that represented by Carlyle, *Letters and Speeches of Cromwell*, Guizot, *Histoire de la Révolution d' Angleterre* and *Études sur l'histoire de la Révolution d'Angleterre*, and especially Professor S. R. Gardiner, *History of England from 1603* to *1649*, 14 vols.; and *Constitutional Documents of the Puritan Revolution* (1628 — 1660). Ranke's *History* should also be systematically consulted. Other works are J. B. Mozley, *Essays*; Stanford, *Studies and Illustrations of the Great Rebellion*. The colonisation of America may be followed in Bancroft, *History of the United States*; Palfrey, *History of New England*; Tyler, *History of American Literature*, vol. i.; and Justin Winsor, *History of America* (by various writers). The chief biographies are those of *Bacon*, by J. Spedding; *Milton*, by Professor Masson; *Montrose*, by Mark Napier; *Prince Rupert*, by Eliot Warburton; *Fairfax*, by Clements Markham; *Clarendon*, by T. H. Lister; *Oliver Cromwell*, by Professor S. R. Gardiner.

Second Half of Seventeenth Century.—Contemporary Writers: Consult those authorities named in preceding section, the Lords and Commons Journals, the *Ormonde Papers*, the Sydney, Hatton, and Fairfax *Correspondence*. For the Cromwellian Parliaments, Burton's *Diary* is of special value. Burnet's *History of his own Times*, 1662 — 1713. Other sources are Kennet, *Register and Chronicle*; *Lives* of Charles II. and James II.; *Diary* of Lord Clarendon; *Letters* and *Memoirs* of Sir William Temple; Sir John Reresby's *Memoirs*; *Letters* to Sir Joseph Williamson (*C. S.*); *Diary* of John Evelyn; *Diary* of Samuel Pepys, ed. H. B. Wheatley; *Memoirs* of the Comte de Gramont; *Diary* of Narcissus Luttrell; Locke, *Letters on Toleration*; Turner, *Vindication of Sancroft and the Deprived Bishops*; Sir John Dalrymple, *Memoirs of Great Britain and Ireland*. The *Negotiations* of the Comte d'Avaux, the materials collected by Mignet relating to the Spanish Succession, and the *Correspondence* of the Marquis d'Harcourt for policy of Louis XIV. The *Correspondence* of the Duke of Shrewsbury, Macpherson's *Original Papers*, the *State Papers* and *Letters* of Carstairs, the *Letters* of William III. (edited by Groen van Prinsterer), the *Letters* of William III. and Louis XIV. (edited by Grimblot), other *Letters* of William, together with the *Reports* of F. Bonnet (*see* Ranke, *History of England*, vi. 144—404) and a *Collection of State Tracts* (3 vols. fol.), are all various and valuable material for the reign of William III. In biography we have Baxter, *Autobiography*, and Calamy, *Account of the Ejected Ministers*; Boyer, *Life of Sir William Temple*; Roger North's *Lives* (of his three brothers); Sir James Turner, *Memoirs*. The political poems of Dryden should be carefully studied.

Later Writers: A fragment by Charles James Fox on the early part of the reign of James II., a *Life* of that monarch by the Rev. J. S. Clarke, Sir James Mackintosh's *Review of the Causes of the Revolution of* 1688, scarcely call for notice in comparison with Macaulay's great *History of England*, which deals in detail with the reigns of James II. and William III. For special features, Marsden's *Later Puritans*, Tulloch's *Rational Theology in England*, and Weld's *History of the Royal Society* may be mentioned. In biography we have Courtenay, *Life of Sir William Temple*; Napier, *Life of Grahame of Claverhouse*; Dixon, *Lives* of Blake and Penn; Story, *Life of Carstairs*; *Memoirs* of William Bowyer (in Nichols, *Literary Anecdotes*, vol. i.); Macaulay, Essays on *Sir William Temple*, *War of the Succession in Spain*, and *Sir James Mackintosh*; Christie, *Life of Shaftesbury*; *Life of Bishop Ken*, by Plumptre.

8. Eighteenth Century to 1789.—Contemporary Writers: For reign of Queen Anne—Swift, *Journal to Stella* and *History of the Four Last Years of Queen Anne's Reign*, together with his pamphlets *On the Conduct of the Allies* and *Behaviour of the Queen's last Ministry*; Bolingbroke, *Letter to Sir W. Wyndham*, and *Letter on the State of Parties at the Accession of George I.*; also his *Letters and Correspondence* (edited by Parke); Marlborough's *Correspondence*; Boyer, *History of the Reign of Queen Anne*; Tindal, Continuation of Rapin's *History*; the *Wentworth Papers* (edited by J. J. Cartwright). For reign of the Hanoverian sovereigns—*Calendars* of the State Papers have appeared for

the first nine years only (*R. S.*), but the published correspondence of the chief statesmen of the period affords material of scarcely less value. Among these are, *The Grenville Papers*; the *Bedford Correspondence*; the *Chatham Correspondence*; *Memoirs* of Lord Rockingham; *Correspondence of George III. with Lord North*; the *Malmesbury Correspondence*; Burke's *Correspondence* and *Speeches*, together with his pamphlets, *Observations on a Late State of the Nation*, *Thoughts on the Cause of the Present Discontents*, and *Letters on the Trade of Ireland*; Duke of Buckingham, *Memoirs of the Court of George III.*; the *Cornwallis Correspondence*; Romilly's *Letters*; the *Rose Correspondence*; the *Auckland Correspondence*; Horace Walpole, *Memoirs of the Reign of George III.*; the *Letters of Junius*; Bubb Dodington's *Diary*. For American affairs the *Reader's Handbook of the American Revolution* (1761—83), by Justin Winsor, will be found to afford ample guidance to all the authorities. For debates in the House of Commons—the *Gentleman's Magazine* and the *Annual Register*; Cavendish's *Debates* (A.D. 1768 to 1744).

Later Historical Writers: Earl Stanhope (Lord Mahon), *History of England from the Peace of Utrecht to the Peace of Versailles* and *History of the Reign of Queen Anne*; T. H. Burton, *History of the Reign of Queen Anne*; Wyon, *History of the Reign of Queen Anne*; Massey, *History of England during the Reign of George III.*; Adolphus, *History of England from the Accession to the Decease of King George III.*; Craik and Macfarlane, *Pictorial History of England under George III.*; W. E. H. Lecky, *History of England in the Eighteenth Century*; Abbey and Overton, *The English Church in the Eighteenth Century*; Leslie Stephen, *History of English Thought in the Eighteenth Century*; Mahan, *Influence of Sea Power in History* (1660—1783); Lord Holland, *Memoirs of the Whig Party*; T. Wright, *Caricature History of the Georges*. See also *Camb. Modern Hist.*, vol. vii.

In Biography.—W. Coxe, *Lives* of Marlborough, Walpole, and Henry Pelham; Sir Archibald Alison, *Life of Marlborough*; *Annals and Correspondence* of the Earls of Stair by J. M. Graham; Jesse, *Memoirs of the Pretenders*; Bishop Monk, *Life of Bentley*; Sir David Brewster, *Life of Sir Isaac Newton*; Montagu Burrows, *Life of Admiral Hawke*; H. Craik, *Life of Jonathan Swift*; *Lives of Bolingbroke*, by Macknight, M. Brosch, Harrop, and J. C. Collins; W. Wilson, *Life of Defoe*, and W. Lee, *Life of Defoe*; John Forster, *Biographical Essays*, *Life of Pitt*; Bunbury, *Life of Sir Thomas Hanmer*; Lives of Chatham, by F. Thackeray, and of Pitt, by Bishop Tomline and Earl Stanhope; *Life of Lord Shelburne*, by Lord Edmund Fitzmaurice; Prior (Sir J.), and Macknight, *Lives of Burke*; Trevelyan, *Early History of Charles James Fox*; Lord Shelburne's *Autobiography*; Lord Chesterfield's *Letters*; Romilly's *Letters*; *Memorials and Correspondence of Fox*, by Earl Russell; Sir John Malcolm, *Life of Clive*; Southey, *Life of Wesley*; *Life and Times of Wesley*, by Tyerman; Moore, *Life of Sheridan*; Brougham, *Statesmen of the Reign of George III.* For state of Education and Learning—J. G. Nichols, *Literary Anecdotes of the Eighteenth Century*; Rev. C. Wordsworth, *University Life* and *University Studies in the Eighteenth Century*; Baker, *History of St. John's College* (edited by Prof. John E. B. Mayor).

9. From 1789 to the Present Time.—Besides works named in preceding section, Duke of Buckingham, *Memoirs of the Court of the Regency*; George Rose, *Diary* (1801—15); Lord Cornwallis, *Correspondence*; Wellington, *Despatches*; Wellesley, *Despatches*; Sir S. Romilly, *Journal* (1806—18); Lord Colchester, *Diary and Correspondence*; Lord Sidmouth, *Life and Correspondence*; Twiss, *Life of Lord Eldon*; C. D. Yonge, *Life of Lord Liverpool*; Erskine, *Speeches*; Francis Horner, *Memoirs and Correspondence*; Brialmont, *Life of Wellington*; Southey, *Life of Nelson*; Nelson, *Despatches* (edited by J. K. Laughton); Collingwood, *Correspondence*; *Life of Earl of Dundonald* (by Earl of Dundonald and Fox Bourne); Lord Dudley, *Letters* (1814—23); Alison, *Lives* of Lord Londonderry and Sir Charles Stewart; Londonderry. *Correspondence*; The *Greville Memoirs*; *George Canning and his Times*, by A. G. Stapleton; Canning's *Speeches* (with *Life*), 6 vols.; *Life of Earl Grey*, by Hon. C. Grey; Sir Robt. Peel's *Memoirs*, by Stanhope and Cardwell, also "*from his private Correspondence*," by C. S. Parker; also *Life* by Guizot, and *Speeches* (4 vols.); *Memoirs of John Charles Viscount Althorp*, by Sir Denis Le Marchant; *Life and Speeches of O'Connell*, by his son; *Correspondence of O'Connell*, by W. J. Fitzpatrick; Ashley, *Life of Palmerston*; Torrens, *Life of Melbourne*; J. Morley, *Life of Cobden*; Alison, *History of Europe*; H. Martineau, *History of the Peace*; Molesworth, *History of the Reform Bill*; Spencer Walpole, *History of England from 1815*; Kinglake, *History of the Invasion of the Crimea*; Justin M'Carthy, *History of our Own Times*; Bosworth Smith, *Life of Lord Lawrence*; G. Brandes, *Life of Beaconsfield*; C. Oman, *History of the Peninsular War*; John Morley, *Life of W. E Gladstone*. *See also Letters of Queen Victoria.*

General Histories of England: Among the best known are those by Rapin, translated by N. Tindal (1726); Hume (1754), continued by Smollett (1758); R. Henry (1771-93); Sharon Turner (1814–29); J. Lingard (1819–25); J. R. Green (1881); Political History of England (12 vols., 1905–9).

Constitutional Histories: Prof. Stubbs, *Constitutional History of England*, invaluable for the earlier and mediæval period, and the

fifteenth century to the reign of Henry VII.; Gneist, *Self-Government, Communal verfassang* and *Verwaltungsgerichte in England;* also his *History of the English Constitution* (trans. by Ashworth), and *Student's History of the English Parliament* (trans. by Keane); Hallam's *Constitutional History*, which begins with the reign of Henry VII., is specially useful for the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries; and Sir Erskine May, *Constitutional History of England* takes up the subject where Hallam leaves off and continues it to 1871. Taswell Langmead's *Constitutional History* is a useful compendium for students.

WORKS FOR GENERAL REFERENCE: T. H. Burton, *History of Scotland;* J. Mill, *History of British India*, with Continuation by H. H. Wilson; Wheeler, *History of India;* Miss Strickland, *Lives of the Queens of England;* Lord Campbell, *Lives of the Lord Chancellors* and *Lives of the Lord Chief Justices;* Foss, *Lives of the Judges of England;* Cobbett and Howell's *State Trials;* Willis Bund, *Selected State Trials;* Halliwell, *Letters of the Kings of England;* Ellis's *Original Letters;* Rymer, *Fœdera;* Wilkins, *Concilia*, partly superseded by Haddan and Stubbs, *Councils;* Madox, *History and Antiquities of the Exchequer;* Dumont, *Corps Universel Diplomatique du Droit des Gens; Social England* (by various writers); Eden, *History of the Poor;* Rogers, *History of Prices;* Porter, *Progress of the Nation;* Macpherson, *History of Commerce;* Leone Levi, *History of British Commerce;* Cunningham, *Growth of English Industry and Commerce;* Webb (Sidney and Beatrice), *History of Trade Unionism;* James, *Naval History;* Bruce, *History of the East India Company; Dictionary of National Biography*, also its Index and Epitome, very useful apart from the main work; Seely, *Growth of British Policy; Twelve English Statesmen* (by different writers); *English Historical Review.*

For most of the above works, see *Introduction to the Study of English History*, by S. R. Gardiner and J. B. Mullinger. [For authorities on Scottish, Irish, and Welsh history see SCOTLAND, IRELAND, WALES.]

[J. B. M.]

Avesbury, ROBERT OF (*d.* 1357), registrar of the archiepiscopal court at Canterbury, wrote a *History of the Wonderful Deeds of Edward III.*, extending from the birth of Edward to the year 1356. It gives us a short detail of public events, with transcripts of original documents and extracts from letters. It was printed by Hearne in 1720.

Avranches, a small town in the extreme west of Normandy, was the scene of Henry II.'s reconciliation with the Pope after the murder of Becket.

Aylesbury Election Case, THE (1704) (or the case of Ashby *v.* White), produced a violent collision between the House of Commons and the Lords. The vote of a burgess, Matthew Ashby, had been rejected by the returning officer, William White. Ashby brought an action in the Court of Queen's Bench. There a majority of the judges, contrary to the opinion of Chief Justice Holt, decided against him on the ground that no harm had been done to him, and that decisions on the right to vote belonged to the Commons alone. Ashby's supporters thereupon brought the case by writ of error before the House of Lords. Here the judgment given at the Queen's Bench was reversed, and, by this important decision, franchises were placed under the common law. In spite of the wise advice of the Whig lawyers, William Cowper and Sir Joseph Jekyll, the Commons proceeded to pass resolutions to the effect that (1) neither the qualification of any elector nor the right of any person elected was cognisable elsewhere than before the House of Commons: (2) that Ashby, having in contempt of the jurisdiction of the House prosecuted an action at common law against William White, was guilty of breach of privilege. The Lords passed contrary resolutions, and the quarrel became so serious that early in April Queen Anne put an end to the session. Ashby, however, sued out execution for the damages awarded him at the County Assizes against the returning officers who had refused to receive his vote. In addition, four other burgesses were put forward to sue the officers. The Commons promptly committed the plaintiffs and their attorney to Newgate. The prisoners, after two months, moved the Court of King's Bench for a habeas corpus; but these judges, contrary to the opinion of Holt, who was for the discharge of the prisoners, decided that the court had no jurisdiction in the matter. It was determined to bring this by writ of error before the Lords. The Commons foolishly voted an address to the Queen praying her not to grant a writ of error. Her reply, that the matter required careful consideration, was looked on as equivalent to a refusal. The Lords thereupon passed some important resolutions: (1) That neither House of Parliament could arrogate to itself any new privilege; (2) that the Commons had assumed an unwarranted legislative power by attributing the force of law to their declaration; (3) that they had thereby subjected the rights of Englishmen to the arbitrary votes of the House of Commons; (4) that every Englishman who is imprisoned by any authority whatever, has an undoubted right to his writ of habeas corpus; (5) that for the Commons to punish any person for assisting a prisoner to procure such a writ is a breach of the statutes provided for the liberty of the subject; (6) that a writ of error was not one of grace, but of right, and ought not to be denied to

the subject when duly applied for. A fairly amicable conference between the two Houses produced no result, as neither side would give way. The Queen, therefore, prorogued Parliament (March 14th), thus leaving a great constitutional question wholly undecided. Hallam thinks that "the House of Commons had an undoubted right of determining all disputed returns to the writ of election, and consequently of judging upon the right of every vote. But as the House could not pretend that it had given this right, or that it was not, like any other franchise, vested in the possessor by a legal title, no protest or analogy could be set up for denying that it might come, in an indirect manner at least, before a court of justice, and be judged by common principles of law." [ELECTIONS.]

Parliamentary Hist.; State Trials, vol. iv.; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*; Stanhope, *Reign of Queen Anne*; Hatsell, *Precedents*; May, *Const. Hist.*

Aylesford, in Kent, is generally supposed to be the place where, in 455, Horsa fell in a battle against the Britons. Near this is Kit's Coty House, a cromlech said to have been erected to Catigern, one of the British commanders, who was slain in this battle.

Aylmer, JOHN (*b.* 1521, *d.* 1594), the tutor of Lady Jane Grey, was one of the most zealous reformers of Edward VI.'s reign. In 1576 he was made Bishop of London by Queen Elizabeth, and distinguished himself by his zeal against the Puritans. He published an Answer to Knox's celebrated *Blast of the Trumpet against Monstrous Regiment of Women*; but having offended the queen by preaching against dress, she requited him by vowing that, "If he held more discourse on such matters, she would fit him for heaven; but he should walk thither without a staff, and leave his mantle behind him."

Ayscough, or **Ayscue,** SIR GEORGE (*d.* 1673?), was the son of a Lincolnshire gentleman. He entered the naval service at an early age, and was knighted by Charles I. In 1648, when the fleet revolted to Prince Rupert, Ayscough secured the *Lion* for the Parliament. He was appointed to the command of the fleet which had to watch the coasts of Ireland, and in 1651 to reduce the Scilly Islands. In 1652 he took Barbadoes for the Parliament. He was engaged, in company with Blake, in the desperate naval battles against the Dutch in 1652; but he was so much annoyed at Blake's retreat before Tromp, after the action of Nov. 29 in that year, that he laid down his command, and remained in retirement during the remainder of the Commonwealth. In 1665, on the renewal of war with the Dutch, he was made Rear-Admiral of the Blue, and bore a principal share in the great victory obtained over Tromp and Ruyter on June 3. In the great four-days' battle of the following year, Ayscough behaved with distinguished bravery; but his ship ran upon a sand-bank, and he was forced to surrender. The Dutch were so elated at the possession of this formidable antagonist, that they exhibited him in triumph in several of their towns. He was afterwards confined for some time in the Castle of Leevestein. He was subsequently released, and allowed to return to England; but he took no further part in public affairs.

Biographia Britannica; Charnock, *Biographia Navalis*, 1794; Campbell, *Lives of the Admirals.*

Azores, EXPEDITIONS TO THE, took place (1) in 1572, when Sir John Hawkins, with twenty ships, sailed to lie in wait for the Mexican gold fleet. (2) In July, 1587, when Sir Francis Drake took the Spanish treasure-ship *San Felipe*, doing so much to damage the Spanish prestige, and to inspirit the disheartened ministers of Elizabeth, that the expedition is said to have been "worth at the moment to Protestant England more than a general engagement fought and won." (3) In 1597, when a fleet was sent out under the Earl of Essex, Sir Walter Raleigh, and Lord Thomas Howard to capture the Spanish vessels returning from the Indies. Raleigh, having arrived first, took the Island of Fayal without waiting for Essex, and a serious quarrel arose between the two admirals. Essex subsequently took Flores and Gracicsa, but from his bad management allowed the Spanish treasure-ships to escape, taking three only. On the return of the expedition to England, Essex was severely blamed for its failure.

B

Babington's Conspiracy (1586) originated with Ballard, a Jesuit, and "a young man of family and fortune" named Anthony Babington, of Dethick. Three elements may be traced in this conspiracy: the devoted adherents of the Papacy; English Catholics whom zeal and harsh treatment had driven to desperation; and lastly, the paid agents of Walsingham. Babington—who, whilst a page at Sheffield, had been fascinated by the charms of the Queen of Scots—was easily persuaded by Ballard, after the latter's tour through England in 1585, to enter into a scheme by which Elizabeth was to be assassinated, and the country then raised for Mary. The conspirators, who numbered several gentlemen of position, chose six of their number to commit the crime — namely, Savage, Salisbury, Abington, Tilney, Barnwell, and Tichbourne—and felt confident of success, ignorant of the fact that, through the elaborate system of espionage established by Burleigh and Walsingham, agents of the

government had actually been admitted to a share in the secret. Unfortunately for the Queen of Scots, Babington revealed the whole plot to her in a letter, which, like all his others, passed through Walsingham's hands; and her reply, encouraging the conspirators, and urging them to immediate action, ultimately sealed her fate. Proof sufficient having been obtained, Ballard was arrested Aug. 4, 1586, and Babington, with four others, was captured ten days after in a barn at Harrow, whilst the papers of Mary Stuart were seized during her temporary absence from her room on a hunting party. On Sept. 13th the conspirators were tried by a Special Commission at Westminster, and fourteen were executed at Tyburn on the 20th and 21st of the same month. Lingard regards the plot as in very great measure set on foot by Walsingham's spies:—"There was much in the fate of these young men to claim sympathy. Probably had it not been for the perfidious emissaries of Morgan and Walsingham—of Morgan, who sought to revenge himself on Elizabeth, and of Walsingham, who cared not whose blood he shed provided he could shed that of Mary Stuart—none of them would have even thought of the offence for which they suffered." On the other hand, Mr. Froude says:—"It is false, absolutely and utterly, that the plot was set on foot by agents of Walsingham to tempt her to join it in her desperation and then to destroy her."

Camden, *Reign of Qn. Elizabeth*; Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*

Bachelor, or Knight Bachelor (*bachelarius, baccalaureus*), was a simple knight, one who had received knighthood, but had obtained no further honour, such as that of being made baronet or Knight of the Bath. The word was also used to denote a squire, or armour-bearer not of the degree of knight, "bachalarii armorum nuncupati," says Spelman, "ut sic innotescerent, a litterarum bachalariis." A knight was required to have ten of these before he could be made a baronet. "Bacheleria" is also occasionally used to designate apparently the whole gentry, or the whole body of military tenants below the degree of baron. Thus the "communitas bacheleriæ totius Angliæ" (*Annal. Burton.*, p. 471), in 1259, complains to Prince Edward of the conduct of the barons.

Matthew Paris, p. 769; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, ii. 87; Spelman, *Glossarium*. The derivation of the word has been variously connected with Welsh, *bach*, young (*cf.* O. Fr. *bacelle, bachelette*), and more plausibly with *bacca*, i.e., *vacca*, a cow, and with *baculus*, a staff. See *Enc. Brit.* (ninth ed.).

Bachelors, Taxes on. By the Act 6 and 7 Will. III., a tax was imposed on unmarried male persons above the age of twenty-five, varying in amount from £12 10s. to 1s., according to the taxpayer's status. It was repealed in 1706. In 1785 bachelors' servants were subjected to a higher tax than those of other persons. In Mr. Pitt's graduated Income Tax, in 1799, the rate was higher for bachelors than for married men.

Back Lane Parliament was the name given to an assembly of Catholic delegates from all Ireland, which met in Dublin in Dec., 1792. They drew up a petition professing loyalty and demanding the franchise. The bishops signed it for the clergy, and the delegates for the laity. Five gentlemen, among whom were Byrne and Keogh, went over to present it. Dundas presented them, and they were assured that their wishes would be considered.

Bacon, Francis. [St. Albans, Viscount.]

Bacon, Sir Nicholas (*b.* 1509, *d.* 1579), was born at Chislehurst and educated for the law, obtaining in 1537 the office of Solicitor to the Court of Augmentations. During the reign of Mary, Sir Nicholas, like many others, conformed to the Catholic religion, although he had been, under Edward VI., an active supporter of the Reformation. Having married a daughter of Sir Anthony Cooke, he became Cecil's brother-in-law, and by the latter's recommendation obtained the post of Lord Keeper of the Great Seal on the accession of Elizabeth. He speedily won the confidence of the queen, and became famous for his decisions in equity. In 1561 he did his best to bring about an alliance with the Huguenot leaders in France, and subsequently strongly supported the marriage of the queen, whose favour he lost for a time in 1564, owing to his having participated in the publication of John Hales's book on the succession. The Lord Keeper was for this offence struck off the roll of Privy Councillors, at the instance of his enemy, the Earl of Leicester, and "strictly enjoined to meddle with no business whatever except that of the Court of Chancery." Shortly afterwards, however, he recovered his position at court. In 1568 he was one of the commissioners to inquire into the guilt of the Queen of Scots in the matter of the Darnley murder, and he superintended the trial of the Duke of Norfolk in 1572, although he took no active part in it. Lord Keeper Bacon had a great influence over his brother-in-law Cecil, and is said to have framed the Acts aimed at the Queen of Scots and her supporters. He died Feb. 20, 1579, having held his office for twenty years. His son says of him:—"He was a plain man, direct and constant, without all finesse and doublenesse," whilst a contemporary describes him as "a man of greate diligence and ability in his place, whose goodnesse preserved his greatness from suspicion, envye, and hate."

Camden, *Reign of Qn. Elizabeth*; Burnet, *History of the Reformation*; Campbell, *Lives of the Chancellors*; Foss, *Judges of England*.

Bacon, Roger (*b.* 1214, *d.* 1294?), studied at Oxford and Paris, and took orders as a Franciscan friar. His proficiency in natural science exposed him to very severe treatment on the part of his superiors. Accused of dealing in magic, he was prevented from lecturing at Oxford, and ordered to go to Paris, where he remained several years. Clement IV., in 1266, interested himself in Bacon, induced him to publish his works, and procured his release and return to Oxford. In 1271, in the *Compendium Studii Philosophiæ*, he made a violent attack on the monks and clergy. In 1278 he was again imprisoned, and remained in confinement for fourteen years. As a philosopher and man of science, Roger Bacon is a personage of the first importance in the history of mediæval thought.

Bacon's chief work is the *Opus Majus*, an encyclopædic survey of existing knowledge, which has been compared with the great work of his later namesake. It is printed by Jebb, Lond., 1733. Some of Bacon's minor philosophical treatises are published in the Rolls Series, 1859. A very large number of his writings are still in manuscript. For accounts of Bacon's life, and estimates of his position in philosophy, *see* E. Charles, *Roger Bacon*, 1861; Schneider, *Roger. Bacon*, 1873; Mr. Brewer's Prefaces to Bacon's *Opera Inedita* (Rolls Series).

Badajos was the scene of the fiercest struggles in the Peninsular War. Originally in the hands of the Spaniards, it was surrendered, by the treachery of its commander, in February, 1811, to the French; and on the 5th of May following the first English siege was begun. Owing to false information as to the movements of the French army, the siege was raised, after the operations had been carried on for a week; but, when the battles of Fuentes d'Onoro and Albuera had checked the armies of Massena and Soult, Wellington began his preparations for the second siege. Circumstances, however, prevented him from taking as much time as he really required for the siege; and after two desperate assaults on San Christoval, an outlying fort, in June, the siege was again raised. But in the next year the two previous failures were avenged. The place was very strongly fortified. On the north it was washed by the Guadiana, with two outlying forts thrown across the river, one of which defended the only bridge. At the north-east corner of the town, the Guadiana is joined by the Rivillas. On the south-east beyond the Rivillas an isolated hill was occupied by a strong fort, called the Picurina. Within the walls, the town was defended by four chief fortresses, the castle at the north-east corner, the Trinidad bastion at the east extremity, with that of St. Maria close to it on the west side, and at the extreme north-west corner, by the castle of St. Vincente. Wellington's works were begun on the 17th of March, and on the night of the 25th the Picurina was assaulted and taken after a desperate conflict. On the 6th April the assault was made. Picton crossed the Rivillas and attacked the castle on the right, while Major Wilson stormed the smaller fortress of San Roque; Colville and Barnard assaulted the breaches; Leith was to make a feint against Pardaleras, while Walker made the real attack at St. Vincente. The troops at the breaches displayed the most undaunted courage and resolution, but the terrible defences devised by Philippon, and the stern resistance of the defenders, baffled all their efforts. In two hours 2,000 men had fallen without result; and Wellington sent orders to the party to retire and re-form. Meanwhile Walker's party had succeeded in effecting an entrance through an empty embrasure into St. Vincente. By sheer hard fighting they carried bastion after bastion, till the rumour of a mine caused a panic, and they were temporarily driven back. They soon recovered, however, and sweeping everything before them took those who were defending the breaches in the rear, and in a very short time made themselves masters of the whole town. This was the most bloody of all the struggles of the Peninsular War, and the English lost 5,000 men in killed and wounded.

Napier, *Pen. War.*; Clinton, *Pen. War.*

Badby, Thomas (*d.* 1410), was a tailor or blacksmith of Worcestershire, and the first person executed under the statute *De Hæretico Comburendo*, for denying the Real Presence. The Prince of Wales, who was present at his execution, made a vain attempt to save him by inducing him to recant. But Badby remained firm to his convictions, notwithstanding the entreaties and promises of the prince.

Walsingham, *Hist. Angl.*; Foxe, *Martyrs.*

Badges, Royal, are distinguished alike from crests and coats of arms. They were intended to be worn on helmets, banners, or caparisons, as well as on the breasts of soldiers, retainers, and attendants. William II.'s badge is said to have been an eagle gazing at the sun; that of Stephen was an ostrich plume. Henry II. used the badge of his house, the planta genista, or broom plant, besides the carbuncle and a sword with an olive branch. Richard I. had a variety of badges: a star issuing from between the horns of a crescent; a mailed arm holding a broken lance; and a sun on two anchors. John seems to have adopted the first of these as his special badge, and Henry III. used the same device. The badge ascribed to Edward I. is "a rose or, stalked proper," while Edward II., in token of his descent from the kings of Castile, used a castle. Edward III.'s badges were very numerous; amongst them were rays descending from a cloud, the stump of a tree, a falcon, an ostrich feather, and a sword erect. Richard II. likewise had a variety of badges, such as the sun in its splendour, the sun behind a

cloud, and a white hart. By Henry IV. numerous badges and devices were employed, such as an eagle displayed, a fox's tail, a panther crowned, and a crescent. Henry V. bore an antelope, a swan, and a beacon. Henry VI. also used the antelope, as well as the feather. The Lancastrian party, however, adopted the red rose as their emblem, in opposition to the white rose of the Yorkists. Edward IV. had numerous badges, such as a black bull, a white wolf, and a fetterlock; but the most famous badge of the House of York was the sun in its splendour, to which Shakespeare alludes at the beginning of "Richard III." This king's peculiar badge was a falcon with a woman's face, holding a white rose. In memory of the finding of the crown in a hawthorn bush at Bosworth Field, Henry VII. adopted a crowned hawthorn bush as his badge, besides which he used the red dragon of Wales and a white greyhound, which last was also used by Henry VIII. Edward VI. bore the sun in splendour. The general badge of the House of Tudor was a rose, which Queen Mary frequently used, besides the pomegranate and a sheaf of arrows. Elizabeth also used the rose, as well as the falcon, and James I. the rose and the thistle. Since this time royal badges have not been used, but the rose has come to be considered the emblem of England, the thistle of Scotland, the shamrock of Ireland, and the harp of Wales.

Badon, Mount (Mons Badonicus), is the name of the place where King Arthur is said to have defeated the Saxons in 520. Its position is unknown; one school of historians identify it with some place in the south of England, as Badbury, in Dorsetshire; another with towns in the district between the Forth and Clyde, as Borden Hill, near Linlithgow. [Arthur.]

Bagemond's Roll was the valuation by Bocamund de Vicci, the Papal Commissioner, in 1275, of all benefices in Scotland, a tenth of the revenues of which were to be devoted to the recovery of the Holy Land. This roll was the basis on which ecclesiastical taxation in Scotland rested down to the time of the Reformation.

Bahamas, The (or Lucayos), consist of a number of small islands in the North Atlantic Ocean, lying to the north-east of Cuba. The principal islands are New Providence (in which is situated Nassau, the capital), St. Salvador (the first land sighted by Columbus on his voyage in 1492), Great Bahama, Long Island, and Eleuthera. Although the Bahamas were discovered by Columbus in 1492, no attempt was made to colonise them until 1629, when an English settlement was planted in New Providence. In 1641 the English were driven out by the Spaniards, but returned again in 1666, and held the islands until they were compelled to retire by a combined French and Spanish attack in 1703. For some years after this the Bahamas were chiefly resorted to by buccaneers, who were, however, extirpated in 1718 by Captain Rogers. In 1781 the islands were taken by a Spanish force, but were recaptured by Colonel Devereux, and finally given up to England by the Treaty of Versailles, 1783. The government, which is representative, is vested in a Governor, an Executive Council of nine members, a Legislative Council of nine, and a Representative Assembly of twenty-nine members, which meets at Nassau, and which is elected by the people of eleven different islands.

B. Edwards, *Hist. of the West Indies*; R. M. Martin, *Hist. of the Colonies*; Sir E. Creasy, *Britannic Empire*.

Bail (Fr. *bailler*, to hand over, deliver; or Lat. *bajulare*, to take up a burden) is used in English common law to denote the freeing of accused persons from imprisonment, on security being accepted that they will appear to stand their trial. *Mainprize* has much the same meaning as bail, and the two terms are used almost promiscuously in the old law books. By the common law all offences were bailable except murder. By the Statute of Westminster, 1275, the power of granting bail in cases of felony and treason was taken away. *Common Bail* or *Bail below* was often required for the release of persons charged with trifling offences; but the bail was entered in the names of John Doe and Richard Roe, and was therefore merely formal. This was abolished by 2 Will. IV., c. 39. By 7 Geo. IV., c. 64, justices of the peace might release persons charged with felony if the evidence were not such as to raise a strong presumption of their guilt. The modern practice is regulated by the Act 15 and 16 Vict., c. 76.

Bailiff, a word cognate with Fr. *bailli*, from Old Fr. *bailler*, to carry or govern, and Low Lat. *ballivus*, or *bajulus*, a governor, is a person who is entrusted with power of superintendence by a superior. The term was in common use among the Normans both in France and in Sicily, and accordingly, after the Conquest, we find it applied loosely to many officials: thus the sheriff was called the king's bailiff, and the district over which his jurisdiction extended was called his bailiwick; so too is the jurisdiction of the chief forester in Henry I.'s charter; the keeper of Dover Castle was also called bailiff, and later on the word is used of *elective* functionaries. The burgesses of Colchester could elect bailiffs in the reign of Richard I., and under Henry III., when the right of choosing their mayor was taken away from the Londoners, they were allowed to elect bailiffs instead. Gradually the word became attached to definite offices: (1) *The presiding magistrate of a town*, who assumed the functions of the English *reeve*, called in

mercantile towns *port-reeve*, whose Latin title *prepositus* was applied to him—with this essential difference, that the reeve before the Conquest might be, and in the old free towns frequently was, chosen by the citizens, while the Norman bailiff was almost invariably appointed by the lord—*e.g.*, the bailiff of Beverley by the Archbishop of York. His duties were to preserve the king's peace, and to preside over the chief court of the town. Thus in Leicester the bailiff was the constituting officer of the portmanmote until the middle of the thirteenth century, and in Beverley the archbishop's bailiffs held the court in his name until the reign of Henry VIII. By the end of the thirteenth century, however, the mayor had supplanted the bailiff nearly everywhere; the summonses of borough members to a national council are addressed to the mayors of the towns more frequently than to the bailiffs, and in cases where both are mentioned the mayor is placed first. Later on, the citizens of Poole, in 1371, were allowed to call their chief magistrate *mayor* instead of *prepositus*. Nevertheless, the idea of the bailiff being a great town official still lingered on, and the inquiries of the Corporation Commissioners in 1835 showed that there were 120 officers of this nature in the corporate towns. [Reeve.]

(2) *The bailiffs of the liberty and the manor*, and closely connected with them the *bailiffs of the royal demesne*, were officials of higher position than those of the towns. It may be conjectured that the latter are the *ballivi mei* mentioned in Magna Charta on terms of equality with the sheriffs, and they are mentioned as officers of importance in Henry II.'s Inquest of Sheriffs. Before the Conquest the presiding officer of the Courts of the Liberties, which were jurisdictions exempt from that of the hundred, and of lands held in sac and soc, which corresponded to a certain extent to the Norman manor-system, was the reeve, whose subordinate was the *hydel*, or beadle. The bailiffs of the liberty or honour and of the manor, represented their lords in the *court-baron*, or ancient assembly, of the township where by-laws were made, in the *court customary*, where the business of villanage was transacted, and in the *court leet*, which had criminal jurisdiction; in the great baronial honours, whose system corresponded to that of the shire, the bailiff attended the *sheriff's tourn* or court for the view of frankpledge. On a liberty the lord and the bailiff, as his lord's representative, were the only persons who could execute the king's writ to the exclusion of the sheriff until the Statute of Westminster the second (1295), when it was provided that if the bailiff neglected to execute a writ within the liberty, a writ, with a clause of *non omittas*, should be issued authorising the sheriff himself to enter the liberty and execute the writ. During the reigns of the Edwards, and subsequently, the power of these bailiffs was narrowly watched; they were to be sworn to make distress, and punished for malicious distress by fine and treble damage; to truly impanel jurors, and to make returns by indenture between them and the sheriffs. They could not arrest without order of the sheriff. The exclusive jurisdictions of the liberties still exist in many parts of England, and in 1844 the power of the bailiffs was regulated by placing their appointment in the hands of the judge of the courts, *i.e.*, the county-clerk or under-sheriff before whom they are held, and subjecting them to severe penalties for misdemeanour. With the decay of feudalism the bailiff of the manor became an unimportant functionary who looked after his lord's interests in the matter of collecting rents, surveying improvements, &c.

(3) The *bailiff of the hundred* presided, after the Conquest, in the smaller court of the hundred, the chief business of which was to settle disputes about small debts. He represented the king's interest, and was probably the same as the *gerefa*, or reeve of the hundred, of the laws of Edward the Elder and Ethelred. He was supposed to execute all process directed to the sheriff, to collect the king's fines and fee-farm rents, and to attend the judges of assize and gaol-delivery. From Bracton we learn that another of his duties was to select four knights of the hundred, who were in turn to choose the jury of inquisition. These jurisdictions of the hundreds fell, under the Norman kings, into the hands of great landowners, in which case the bailiff was appointed by the lord, and presided in the manorial courts as well as the hundred-court. The functions of the bailiff of the hundred were, therefore, gradually absorbed by the bailiff of the manor on the one side, and on the other by the improved machinery of the county courts, which, in the days of Henry III., began to obtain in England. These functions were also, to a certain extent, represented in later times by (4) the *sheriff's bailiff*, who is, however, mentioned as early as 1170 in Henry II.'s Inquest of Sheriffs. The office can hardly be said to be of constitutional importance; bailiffs executed writs and made arrests within the sheriff's bailiwick, and they were usually bound, in an obligation to the sheriff, for the due execution of their offices, whence they were called *bound bailiffs* (vulgarly corrupted into *bum bailiffs*). *Special bailiffs* may also be nominated at the request of the suitor in a case, and approved by the sheriff, for a particular occasion. Their persons were protected, and severe penalties laid on them for misdemeanour by the Inferior Courts Act (1844).

Mereweather and Stephens, *Hist. of Boroughs and Municipal Corporations*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, and *Select Charters*; Atkinson, *Sheriffs*; Knight, *Political Cyclopædia*. [L. C. S.]

Bailiwick signifies either a county in which the sheriff as bailiff of the king exer-

cises jurisdiction, or the liberty or franchise of some lord, "who has an exclusive authority within its limits to act as the sheriff does in the county." [BAILIFF.]

Baillie, ROBERT (*b.* 1599, *d.* 1662), minister of Kilwinning, was one of the leaders of the Covenanters, and a voluminous writer. He was one of the Assembly of Divines at Westminster, and in March, 1649, was one of the commissioners sent to Charles II. at the Hague.

Baird, SIR DAVID (*b.* 1757, *d.* 1829), entered the army in 1772, and in 1776 obtained a company in a new regiment, raised by Lord Macleod, and destined for India. He arrived at Madras in Jan., 1780, and shortly afterwards had active employment made for him by the irruption of Hyder Ali into the Carnatic. While proceeding with his regiment, under Colonel Baillie, to join Sir Hector Munroe, he fell into an ambuscade which had been set for the detachment. Baird, wounded in four places, remained a prisoner till he was released in July, 1784. In 1789 he went on leave to England, but returned two years later as lieutenant-colonel of his regiment. After this he was continually employed in some active service in India, being present at the siege of Pondicherry in 1793, and leading the storming party at Seringapatam in 1799. In 1800 he was appointed to command the expedition to Egypt, where he acted in conjunction with the army which Abercromby had commanded. Taking umbrage at Wellesley's promotion, Baird came to England in 1803, and two years later was despatched to the Cape of Good Hope, which he reduced and formed into a colony. On his return to England in 1807, he was sent under Lord Cathcart to Denmark, and was twice wounded at the siege of Copenhagen. He had no sooner returned from that expedition than he was despatched with 10,000 troops to reinforce Sir John Moore. Having effected a junction, Sir David shared in all the hardships of the dreadful retreat, and finally rendered excellent service as second in command at Corunna, where he lost his left arm.

Chambers, *Biog. Dict. of Scotsmen;* Napier, *Pen. War.*

Bajee Rao, the son of Ragoba, became, on the death of Madhao Rao II. in 1796, the natural heir to the office of Peishwa. On acceding to office, Lord Wellesley made it his great object to conclude a subsidiary alliance with Bajee Rao. The march of Holkar on Poonah (1801) so alarmed the Peishwa that he began to treat, while the total defeat of his own and Scindiah's troops at the battle of Poonah, Oct. 25, 1802, drove him to the English residency, and from thence to the coast, where, at his own request, he was transported by an English ship to Bassein. He was now eager for the English alliance, and on Dec. 31, 1802, the memorable Treaty of Bassein was concluded. The Peishwa himself, however, repented of the treaty as soon as he had affixed his seal to it, and commenced a series of intrigues with Scindiah and the Bhonslah to render it ineffectual. The treaty, however, had effectually curbed his power, and the victories of the English in the war which followed set a seal to this by completely breaking up the Mahratta Confederacy. Under the rule of Sir George Barlow, Bajee Rao made a vain attempt (1806) to reassert his lost power. The Peishwa, however, waited anxiously for a chance of revenge on the English. A general confederacy of Mahrattas and Pindarries was organised against the English in 1815. The next year Bajee Rao's attitude became more hostile, and he began to intrigue with Scindiah, Ameer Khan, and Holkar, and assembled a large body of troops near his capital. A British force was ordered up to Poonah, and the Peishwa was compelled to accept the treaty of June 5th, 1817, which bound him to dismiss his mischievous minister Trimbukjee, the great opponent of the British; to renounce the formal headship of the Mahrattas for ever; to dismiss all foreign ambassadors, and refer all communications from foreign states to the Company's government. Bajee Rao had no sooner signed this treaty than he proceeded to hasten his intrigues, and, in the full assurance of powerful support, he plunged into hostilities Nov. 5, 1817. The defeat of Kirkee was immediately followed by the surrender of Poonah and the retreat of the Peishwa. He was again severely defeated, by General Smith, at Korgaom, on Jan. 1, 1818, and at Ashtee, soon after which battle he was forced to surrender. He was taken to Bithoor, sixteen miles from Cawnpore, where he received an annuity of eight lacs of rupees for the rest of his life. He died in 1853, leaving an adopted son, Nana Sahib.

Wellesley, *Despatches;* Grant Duff, *Hist. of the Mahrattas;* Malcolm, *Polit. Hist. of India;* Mill, *Hist. of India.*

Balaclava, THE BATTLE OF (Oct. 25, 1854), during the Crimean War, was brought on by the Russian general, Prince Mentschikoff, who moved a body of 30,000 men on Balaclava, hoping to get possession of the harbour, and to cut the allies off from their supplies. The Russians first attacked the redoubts in the valley of Kadikoi, defended by the Turks, who fled almost immediately. The Russian cavalry then advanced towards Balaclava, but were checked by Sir Colin Campbell's Highland Brigade, and by the Heavy Brigade of cavalry. The charge of the Heavy Brigade was a peculiarly brilliant piece of cavalry fighting. The Russians, though more than twice as numerous as their opponents, were driven back

in confusion. The main body of the English and French now came into action, and the fighting about the captured redoubts began to thicken. Lord Raglan, thinking the enemy were retiring with the guns from one of the redoubts, sent orders to Lord Lucan, in command of the cavalry, to follow and harass their retreat. But by the time the Light Brigade was prepared to carry out the order the broken Russian cavalry had re-formed, and the main body of Liprandi's *corps d'armée* had advanced and formed at the bottom of the valley. Notwithstanding, Lord Lucan—"from some misconception of the order given," as Lord Raglan's despatch said, and of the verbal instructions of Captain Nolan, the aide-de-camp—"considered that he was bound to attack at all hazards," and, in spite of Lord Cardigan's remonstrance, insisted that the charge should be carried out. Accordingly, the Light Brigade (consisting of the 5th and 11th Hussars and the 17th Lancers), in all 673 men, commanded by Lord Cardigan, rode down upon the whole Russian army. They broke their way right through the enemy's lines, and struggled back again through the valley, in which the Russian guns played on them from front, flank, and rear as they rode, with the loss of 113 killed, 134 wounded, and 15 prisoners. Except for some desultory cannonading, this ended the battle. The Russians had not effected their object, but they kept possession of the ground they had won in the valley, so that the victory may be said to have been indecisive.

For an elaborate description and a full discussion of the questions connected with the gallant, but culpably reckless, "Charge of the Six Hundred," *see* Kinglake, *Invasion of the Crimea*.

Balance of Power may be defined as the existence of such a connection and such relations of power among a majority of neighbouring states, that no one of them can endanger the independence or the rights of any other state without effectual resistance, and without danger to itself. The term seems to have come into existence at the beginning of the sixteenth century. The Duc de Rohan's work, *Trutina Statuum Europæ*, was published in 1645. The first attempt towards establishing a balance of power in Europe was probably that of Henry IV. and Sully, which dates from 1603. Their idea was to create a confederation in Europe under the title of the "République très chrétienne." It was to contain fifteen states: five elective monarchies—the Pope, the Emperor (the ancient freedom of election being restored, with a provision that no two successive Emperors were to be chosen from the same house), the Kings of Poland, Hungary, and Bohemia; six hereditary monarchies—those of France, Spain, England, Denmark, Sweden, and Lombardy, the last a new kingdom created for the Duke of Savoy; four republics—Holland, Venice, a republic containing Genoa, Florence, and Central Italy, and Switzerland, which was to be considerably enlarged. Each of these states was to have its limits so well defined that it could not exceed them without being attacked by all the rest. There was to be liberty of conscience—Roman Catholics, Lutherans, and Calvinists were to be on an equality; there was to be a general federal council, to keep peace at home, and to make war upon the infidel. (*See* Sully, *Œconomies Royales* in Petitot's *Collection of Memoirs*.) The plan of Henry IV. came to nothing, and the Peace of Westphalia (1648) is generally regarded as the foundation of the modern political system of Europe. It established a *modus vivendi* between Catholics and Protestants; recognised the Republics of Switzerland and the United Netherlands; placed the German Empire on a firmer footing; and raised a bulwark against the ambition of the house of Austria. The second great settlement was that of the Treaty of Utrecht (1713), which put an end to the war of rivalry between France and Austria for the throne of Spain. Since the Peace of Westphalia the equilibrium of Europe had been more seriously threatened by the house of Bourbon than by the house of Hapsburg; but the Treaty of Utrecht gave Spain to a younger branch of the Bourbon line. England was the principal power in the negotiation, whereas she had taken no part in the Treaty of Westphalia. The third great settlement of Europe was in the Peace of Vienna in 1815. This was designed to restore to Europe the tranquillity which had been broken by the wars of the French Revolution and of Napoleon. Its arrangements were based on calculations of the balance of power, but many of them have been falsified by events. The theory of the balance of power may at one time have been defensible, but it has often given rise to spoliations and violations of justice. It is impossible to restrain every state within the limits which once sufficed for it. The growth of wealth, of population, of colonisation, the inevitable facts of annexation and conquest, are witnessed in all ages of the world. Peace is destroyed if each of these increments is held to justify a similar addition to neighbouring states. The law of progress determines the shifting of the balance; but there is no reason why each of these changes should be the signal for a European war. The modern law of nations depends rather on securing the equality of all states, great and small, before the law, and the protection of the weak against the violence of the strong. The growth of one state in power and prosperity is not necessarily a danger to the rest. It may even be sometimes regarded as an additional guarantee for peace.

Besides the works of Sully and the Duc de Rohan mentioned above, *see* Hume, *Essays*, ii.

7; and the standard works on International Law, esp. Wheaton, *Hist. of the Law of Nations;* and Bluntschli, *Droit Internat. Codifié.* [O. B.]

Baldock, Robert (*d.* 1327), was Chancellor of England from 1323 to 1326. He was one of Edward II.'s chief supporters, and shared with the Despensers the hatred of the baronage. In 1326, on the landing of Queen Isabella, he fled with the king and the Despensers into Wales, where he was seized and sent to the Bishop of Hereford's palace in London. Hence he was dragged by the mob and thrust into Newgate, where he shortly afterwards died.

Baldwin, Archbishop of Canterbury (1185-90), born at Exeter, was educated at Ford Abbey. He became Bishop of Worcester in 1180, and in 1184 was Archbishop of Canterbury. He preached the second crusade in England and himself took the Cross.

Bale, John (*b.* 1495, *d.* 1563), one of the most zealous of the Reformers under Henry VIII., was made Bishop of Ossory by Edward VI., 1552. He was compelled to leave England during the reign of Mary, but returned on the accession of Elizabeth, and was made Prebendary of Canterbury. Bale was a voluminous writer, and wrote, besides several miracle plays, a work of British biography, entitled *Illustrium Majoris Britanniæ Scriptorum Catalogus*, which extends from Japhet to 1549.

A selection from Bale's *Works* was published by the Parker Society in 1849. The fullest account of him is given in Cooper, *Athenæ Cantab.*

Balfour, The Right Hon. Arthur J. (*b.* 1848), a nephew of Lord Salisbury, educated at Eton and at Trinity College, Cambridge, first sat in the House of Commons in 1874 as member for Hertford. For a time he was one of the members of the "Fourth Party." In Lord Salisbury's first administration (1885) he was President of the Local Government Board; in 1886 he joined the Cabinet as Secretary for Scotland; in 1887 he became Chief Secretary for Ireland; in 1891 he succeeded the late Mr. W. H. Smith as First Lord of the Treasury and Leader of the House, resuming these positions when his party returned to power in 1895, and again on the reconstruction of the Ministry in 1900. In July, 1902, on the retirement of Lord Salisbury, he became Prime Minister, and held office until his Cabinet resigned at the end of 1905. In January, 1906, he was defeated at Manchester East, but was elected the following month for the City of London, and became Leader of the Opposition.

Balfour, John (of Burley), in conjunction with Hackston, his brother-in-law, and John Henderson, murdered Archbishop Sharp, 1679. He made his escape after the murder, and was at the battle of Drumclog (q.v.).

Baliol, The Family of, was one of the wealthiest in Normandy, being possessed of the lands of Nyvelle and Bailleul; the house also acquired considerable estates in the north of England after the Conquest, and held Harcourt and Barnard Castles. Its members were found taking an active part on the side of England in all the Border wars. John de Baliol having married Devorguilla (granddaughter of David, Earl of Huntingdon), transmitted to his son, John Baliol, a claim to the Scottish crown, 1291.

Baliol, John de, one of the regents of Scotland during the minority of Alexander III., was deprived of his office by the English party, 1255.

Baliol, John, Lord of Galloway, was the son of John de Baliol, regent of Scotland, and Devorguilla, granddaughter of David of Huntingdon, from whom he derived his claim to the Scottish throne. On the death of the Maid of Norway in 1290, and the consequent failure of heirs to Alexander III., Baliol, John de Hastings, Robert Bruce, and a host of minor competitors, laid claim to the Crown of Scotland. Together with other Scotch nobles, he was summoned by Edward I. to a conference at Brigham, 1291, where the succession to the Scotch throne was to be settled. The meeting was adjourned to June, 1292, when the arbiters announced that Baliol's claims were preferable to those of Bruce. Baliol was accordingly declared King of Scotland by Edward, and did homage to him, Nov. 20, 1292; he was crowned at Scone ten days afterwards, and renewed his homage to Edward, Dec. 26, at Newcastle. Edward soon began to exact the rights of an overlord, encouraging appeals to his own courts from those of Baliol; on the appeal of Macduff of Fife, the Scotch king was summoned to appear in London, and though he disobeyed this summons he went to the English court on the appeal of Sir William Douglas in 1293. Little by little Scotch feeling against the action of the English king was aroused; in October, 1295, Baliol, urged by public feeling in the country, concluded an alliance with Philip of France, and in March of the following year invaded England, laying waste the northern counties, and also sent a document renouncing his allegiance to the English king. Edward at once marched northwards at the head of a large army, and took Berwick, Dunbar, and Edinburgh. On July 10, 1296, Baliol seeing that further resistance was useless, made his submission at Montrose, renouncing to his liege lord the kingdom of Scotland. Edward ordered his imprisonment in England for a short time, after which he was permitted to retire to France.

Rishanger, *Chronicle* (C.S.); *Scoti-chronicon;* Sir F. Palgrave, *documents and Records illustrative of the Hist. of Scotland*, Introd., liv., etc.; *Chron. Monast. Sanct. Alban.* (R.S.), vol. iii.

Baliol, EDWARD, the son of King John Baliol, was in 1324 brought over to England from the court of France, and, on the death of Bruce in 1328, secretly encouraged by the English government, and joined by the "disinherited barons," he put forward his claims to the throne of Scotland through hereditary succession (although his father had resigned all connection with the kingdom). In 1332 he landed with an army in Fifeshire, and won the battle of Duplin; shortly afterwards he successfully held Perth against a besieging army, and was crowned at Scone, Sept., 1332. His first act was to render homage to Edward, who at once sent an army to assist him, but the national party gradually gathered strength, and Baliol found himself compelled to retire to the English court after a defeat at Annan. Having obtained the aid of some English barons, he returned to Scotland, where he met with a few successes in the southern part of the country; in 1338 he went to reside in England, where he remained for some time; in 1346 he ravaged the Lothians with an English army, but gained little advantage; in 1356 he resigned absolutely his claims to the crown and kingdom to Edward III.

Dalrymple, *Annals of Scot.*; Burton, *Hist. of Scot.*

Ball, JOHN (*d.* 1381), one of the leaders of the Peasant Revolt [WAT TYLER], is said to have been one of Wiclif's "Poor Priests," and at all events he preached doctrines very similar to theirs. He had been notorious as a wild fanatic for many years, and was imprisoned by the Archbishop of Canterbury in Maidstone gaol, whence he was released by the insurgents, to whom he preached a famous sermon on Blackheath full of socialistic doctrine. He took for his text the popular distich—

"When Adam dalf and Evè span,
Who was then the gentleman?"

On the suppression of the revolt he was seized and executed.

Ballads are of great historical importance, for they were the literature of the people, and give indications, which can be obtained nowhere else, of the popular feeling in stirring times. They were numerous in the old English days, and were sung in the thegn's hall and in the churl's cottage. Some specimens, chief of which is the song of the Battle of Brunanburh, were so popular that they were embodied in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle. After the Conquest, the songs of the people no longer circulated amongst the Norman barons. Not till barons and people were united in the attempt to assert their common liberties did a ballad literature arise which breathes the spirit of all classes. In the reign of John, we again find political songs, and in the times of the Barons' War they were numerous. There are French ballads which were sung in the barons' halls, Latin ballads which were current among the educated class, and rude but spirited English ballads which were sung by the people. Chief in importance amongst these is a Latin "Song of the Battle of Lewes" (Wright, "Political Songs," p. 72), which is a remarkable assertion of constitutional principles, and might have been written by a Whig in 1688. The reign of Edward I. awakened a national spirit, which found its expression in national and martial songs, accompanied by others which grumble at oppression. In the reign of Edward II. the latter kind prevail, while under Edward III. the balance is restored by the patriotism kindled by the French war. The number of English songs becomes greater: the French and Latin sink into the background. The end of the reign of Edward III. saw the English songs disappear, and the others became less spirited. The national impulse was spent, and the problems of the succeeding period awakened no popular expression. Ballads gradually ceased to have a direct bearing on politics, and were concerned with chivalry and romance. They satisfied the popular desire for adventure, but did not deal with current events. The minstrel became a recognised personage, and was generally said to come from "the north countrie," the land where border-raids still kept alive the adventurous spirit. The ballads of Chevy Chase, Edom o' Gordon, and Adam Bell, all show their northern origin. It is of them that Sir Philip Sidney wrote, "I never heard the old songs that I found not my heart moved more than with a trumpet." During the Reformation period ballads dealt with polemical topics, often in a coarse and irreverent manner. However, the influence of ballads naturally declined before the growth of other forms of literature. The stage and the pamphlet afforded other means of expressing popular opinion. The struggle between the Stuarts and the Parliament did not give rise to much ballad literature. But the unpopularity of James II. was sung and whistled all over England in Wharton's "Lillibullero." A vein of very beautiful ballad-poetry was struck in Scotland by the Jacobite risings of the eighteenth century. In Ireland also ballads survive to the present day as a political power. The songs written for the *Nation* newspaper, collected under the name of "The Spirit of the Nation" deserve their popularity by their poetical merits. At the present day there are numerous collections of old ballads, but it is difficult to determine their date, and, in many cases, their genuineness.

Wright, *Political Songs* (Camden Soc.); *Political Poems* (Rolls Series); Ritson, *Ancient Popular Poetry*; *Scottish Songs*; *English Songs*; Percy, *Reliques of Ancient English Poetry*; Scott, *Minstrelsy of the Scottish Borders.* [M. C.]

Ballard, JOHN, or FORTESCUE (*d.* 1586), a Jesuit priest of Rheims, and the original

instigator of the Babington plot (q.v.), landed in England (1585), having previously obtained the sanction of the Pope to the queen's murder. He made a tour of the north and west of England, and subsequently reported to Mendoza, who had been ambassador at Elizabeth's court, that the death of the queen was necessary to the success of an insurrection. In 1586 Ballard returned to England, and was in close communication with Babington. On Aug. 4, 1586, he was arrested, and executed at Tyburn in the following month.

Ballinamuck, Surrender of the French at (Sept. 8, 1798). The French force under General Humbert, which had landed at Killala and routed the troops sent against them at Castlebar, found their way to Longford barred by a large force under Lord Cornwallis, while General Lake with fresh troops was close behind, so that Humbert had no alternative but to surrender. Eight hundred French, and 1,500 Irish surrendered. Many of the latter were at once hanged.

Ballot, Vote by. The ballot is properly a mode of voting in which little balls are used, but it is employed to signify any kind of secret voting. The vote by ballot for members of Parliament appears to have been first proposed in the reign of William III. In 1710, a Bill authorising vote by ballot passed the Commons, but was rejected by the Lords. During the agitation for Parliamentary reform, which resulted in the Reform Bill of 1832, it was not lost sight of as a remedy for bribery; and some disappointment was felt, on the introduction of the Reform Bill by Lord J. Russell, that provisions for secret voting were not contained in it. It was replied that the reason why a ballot clause was not introduced into the Bill, was because it was desirable that the two questions should be kept distinct. When it was found that the ministry did not intend to follow the Reform Act by a Ballot Act, the matter was taken up by independent members of the Liberal party. Mr. George Grote made his first motion in favour of the ballot on April 25, 1835. He repeated it every year till 1839, on which occasion the ayes were 216, the noes 333. Mr. Grote's place in moving the adoption of the ballot was taken by Mr. Henry Berkeley, who in 1851 carried his motion in spite of the opposition of Lord J. Russell and the government by a majority of fifty-one. It was, however, rejected on several subsequent occasions. Vote by ballot was one of the points of the People's Charter, and perhaps the one to which the greatest importance was attached. It was advocated on the ground of its being the only efficient safeguard against bribery and intimidation; it was opposed on the ground of the safeguard being itself founded on falsehoods, and the probability of a man promising to vote in one way and voting in another. The revelations made before a select committee of the House of Commons convinced many statesmen, Mr. Gladstone among others, that the step could not be long delayed. This committee reported, in 1869, that the ballot presented many advantages—that it would put an end to some of the evils in our electoral system, and that it would tend to mitigate rather than to aggravate those which it would not entirely remove. In 1871, the matter was referred to in the Queen's Speech, and a Bill was introduced by Mr. W. E. Forster (q.v.). It passed the Commons, but was rejected by the Lords on the ground that it was brought before them too late in the session. In 1872 it again passed the Commons, but an amendment was introduced in the Lords making secret voting optional. This the House of Commons would not accept, and after a struggle the Lords yielded the point. With the establishment of secret voting, public nominations of the candidates, which had frequently been occasions of serious disorder and rioting, were abolished.

Reports of Select Committee of House of Commons on Parliamentary and Municipal Elections, 1869 and 1870; M'Carthy, *History of Our Own Times*, iv. 206.

[O. B.]

Ballymore, The Battle of (June 3, 1798), was fought during the Irish Rebellion between Colonel Walpole and Father Murphy. The former, marching carelessly towards Enniscorthy with some 500 royal troops, was surprised in a defile by a body of insurgents under Father Murphy. Colonel Walpole fell with a considerable portion of his force, and his guns were captured.

Balmerino, Arthur Elphinstone, Lord (*b.* 1688, *d.* 1746), was a noted Jacobite. He early entered the army, and held command of a company of foot in Lord Shannon's regiment under Queen Anne; but on the accession of George I. he resigned his commission. Elphinstone took part in the Jacobite rebellion of 1715, and fought at the battle of Sheriffmuir. He escaped to France and served in the French army until 1733. He was one of the first to repair to the Young Pretender's standard in 1745, and at once became colonel, and captain, of the second troop of Charles Edward's life-guards. Early in 1746 he succeeded to the title of Balmerino on the death of his brother. Taken prisoner at the battle of Culloden he was tried for high treason before the Lord High Steward's Court in Westminster Hall, found guilty, and executed. He maintained his principles to the end, and his last words were, "God bless King James."

Scots Magazine; Walpole *Memoirs*; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; Burton, *Hist. of Scotland.*

Balnavis, Henry, of Halhill (*d.* 1579), was one of the earliest of the Scottish Reformers. He was appointed a Lord of

Session in 1538, and sat in Parliament in the same year, and supported the Act for the translation of the Old and New Testaments. He was one of the commissioners in May, 1543, appointed to treat of the marriage between Edward VI. and Mary. In 1547, he was taken prisoner by the French force sent to assist the Queen Regent, and conveyed to France in company with Knox. Recalled in 1554, he was in 1563 reappointed a Lord of Session. He was on the commission appointed to revise the Book of Discipline, and one of those who accompanied Murray on his mission to England in connection with the murder of Darnley.

Knox, *History*; Sadler, *State Papers*, i. 83, &c.; M'Crie, *Life of Knox*.

Baltic Expedition, The (1854—55), occurred during the war with Russia. On March 11, 1854, a strong squadron, consisting of eight screw line-of-battle ships, and eight frigates and paddle-wheel steamers, sailed for the Baltic under the command of Sir Charles Napier. Previous to the departure of the fleet a banquet was given to the admiral at the Reform Club, where speeches calculated to increase the war feeling in the country were made by Lord Palmerston and Sir James Graham, and provoked much animadversion in Parliament. In April Sir Charles Napier, strongly reinforced and accompanied by a powerful French fleet, established a blockade of the Gulf of Finland, and captured many Russian prizes. In August Bomarsund was bombarded and taken; but except that a large Russian army had been kept inactive in the Baltic forts, and the Russian fleet had been driven from the sea, nothing further of much importance was done this year. Consequently the government evinced dissatisfaction that more had not been effected, and on the return of Sir Charles in December, he was treated with great coldness, and finally deprived of his command. Rear-Admiral Dundas succeeded him in 1855, and in the summer of that year there were eighty-five English war vessels, besides a large French fleet, in the Baltic Seas. The fleet consisted entirely of steamers, and was accompanied by a flotilla of floating batteries, mortar vessels, and gunboats. Some delay occurred in consequence of a collision between one of the squadron and an American emigrant ship. On June 1st, however, the allied fleets met in the Baltic and proceeded to bombard Sveaborg. This place was battered with shot and shell for three days, with an immense destruction of life and property, but without any appreciable result on the course of the war. The fleets then retired in consequence of the unfavourable weather, and returned home, having effected nothing in proportion to the expense which they had involved, and the expectations to which they had given rise.

Annual Register, 1854—55.

Baltimore, George Calvert, 1st Lord (*b.* 1580, *d.* 1632), was Secretary of State to James I., but was compelled to resign his office in 1624, in consequence of having become a Roman Catholic. He had always taken a great interest in colonisation, and obtained in the year of his death the charter of Maryland from Charles I. An expedition was sent out in 1633 under the patronage of Cecil Calvert, second Lord Baltimore (who died in 1676), and the colony of Maryland was successfully planted. The capital was named Baltimore in honour of its patron.

Bamborough, anciently "Bebbanburgh," is mentioned by Bede, and is said in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle to have been built by Ida, King of Northumbria, about the year 547, and named in honour of his wife Bebbe. There is a very strongly-situated castle, some portions of which possibly belong to a period before the Norman Conquest. The castle was besieged by Penda of Mercia in 642, unsuccessfully defended by De Mowbray against William Rufus, and it played an important part in the civil wars of the fifteenth century. In 1720 it passed into the possession of Nathaniel, Lord Crewe, Bishop of Durham, who turned it into an institution for various charitable purposes, and fitted up apartments for shipwrecked seamen, a library, schools for poor children, an infirmary, &c.

Banbury, judging from the number of Roman remains which have been discovered there, was probably a place of importance before the English Conquest. It appears in Domesday Book as Banesberie. In the reign of Henry I. a great castle was erected by Alexander, Bishop of Lincoln. In 1469 a battle was fought near the town by the troops of Edward IV., under the Earl of Pembroke, and a strong body of northern insurgents, in which Pembroke (weakened by the desertion of Lord Stafford) was defeated, and subsequently beheaded. [Edgecote.] In the Civil War the inhabitants of Banbury were specially zealous for the Commonwealth. After the battle of Edgehill the town was taken by the king, and stood a desperate siege in 1644, for fourteen weeks, when the garrison were reduced to the last extremity before they were relieved by the Earl of Northampton. It was again besieged by Whalley in 1646, but held out till the king had surrendered to the Scots army. The castle was subsequently destroyed by order of the Parliament.

Bancroft, Richard, was Archbishop of Canterbury from 1604 to 1610. He was born in Lancashire in 1544, and was educated at Cambridge University. Bancroft early gained considerable fame as a preacher, and having won the favour of Sir Christopher Hatton, obtained rapid preferment, becoming Treasurer of St. Paul's (1585),

Canon of Canterbury (1594), and Bishop of London (1597). He had already made himself very popular by his denunciations of the Puritans, and Archbishop Whitgift, who was old and unfit for work, entrusted the sole management of church affairs to him. Three years later he was employed on an embassy to Denmark. Bishop Bancroft took an active part in the Hampton Court Conference between the representatives of the Establishment and the Puritans, at Hampton Court, in 1604. Later in the year he succeeded Whitgift as Archbishop of Canterbury, and at once proceeded to compel the clergy to subscribe the articles imposed in the new book of canons which he had compiled, the result being that some three hundred of the Puritan clergy were ejected from their livings. At the same time he was engaged in superintending the present translation of the Bible. In the following year he presented to the king a series of articles of complaint against the judges, who, acting on the advice of Coke, had issued prohibitions in the Ecclesiastical Courts in order to stop the cases before them; but the judges declared that they would submit to an Act of Parliament, and to that only. The undaunted archbishop, who in the meantime had been active in securing the condemnation of the Puritan Fuller, renewed his appeal in 1608, but James, who was inclined to support him, after a violent altercation with Coke, thought it best to reserve his conclusion. The same result happened in the following year, when he, urged on by the prayers of the ecclesiastical lawyers, brought forward his complaint a third time. Bancroft is said to have used his influence to soften the rigour with which Parliament was inclined to treat the Papists after the discovery of the Gunpowder Plot; but he could not prevent the passing of a Bill of Pains and Penalties. In 1608 he was made Chancellor of the University of Oxford, and just before his death took great interest in James's scheme for an episcopal church in Scotland. Archbishop Bancroft was a remarkably sincere though perhaps a narrow-minded man, never deliberately cruel; but a firm believer in the divine origin of the Episcopacy—a doctrine which he was one of the first to assert—he suppressed the Puritans mercilessly, and they, in return, never ceased to abuse him. He has been called covetous, but probably without much foundation.

Strype; Neal, *Hist. of the Puritans* (1732); Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops*; S. R. Gardiner, *Hist. of England, 1603—1642*, chaps iv. and x.; *Biographia Britannica* (1747), art. *Bancroft*.

[L. C. S.]

Banda Islands, in the Indian Archipelago, were taken from the Dutch in 1796, but restored in 1801. They were retaken in 1811, and again restored in 1816.

Bangorian Controversy. [HOADLY.]

Banished Lords (1583) was the name given to the nobles of the Ruthven party who seized Stirling Castle, but were compelled by Arran and a large royal army to flee across the border. They formed a small community, which they attempted to regulate on strict religious principles at Newcastle. The Scottish government outlawed them, and demanded their surrender; this was, however, refused. In 1585 the banished lords, with the Hamiltons and Maxwells and a strong force, marched to Stirling, captured the king, and procured the reversal of their outlawry and the restitution of their estates.

Bank Charter Acts, BANK OF ENGLAND, BANK OF IRELAND, &c. [BANKING.]

Bank Holidays Act, THE, was brought in by Sir John Lubbock (afterwards Lord Avebury), and carried in 1871. It declared that Easter Monday, Whit Monday, the first Monday in August, and the day following Christmas Day should be public holidays.

Banking (1) seems to have originated in modern Europe among the Italian moneylenders, especially those of Florence, of whom the Bardi and Peruzzi, who were ruined by the inability of Edward III. to pay his debts, most concern English history. Banking was first practised in England during the reign of Charles II. by the goldsmiths of Lombard Street, and it soon became an important trade when the advantages of cheques over ready money payments became known, in spite of its dangers as displayed by the frequent bankruptcy of the goldsmiths. Private banks sprang up, such as those of Messrs. Child at Temple Bar, and of Messrs. Hoare in Fleet Street, and the question of a national bank began to be eagerly discussed.

(2) THE BANK OF ENGLAND was projected by a Scotchman, William Paterson, who submitted his plan to the government in 1691. It was well received, but was allowed to lie dormant until 1694, when Montague, the ablest financier in William III.'s ministry, suddenly determined to establish the Bank in order to relieve government of its many difficulties caused by war and misapplied taxation. He borrowed £1,200,000 at eight per cent., and formed the subscribers into a company, who treated the loan to government as part of their capital, the interest being secured upon the taxes. By their charter, which was granted for eleven years, from July 27, the government of the bank was entrusted to a governor and twenty-four directors, who were to be elected annually by such members of the company as possessed £500 capital stock. Sir John Hornblow was the first governor. The company was restrained from trading in anything but bullion, bills of exchange, and forfeited pledges, and from lending money to the crown without the consent of Parliament. In spite of the popularity of the

Bank of England, the government loan of which was raised in ten days, it had at first to encounter much opposition, and several crises occurred, especially during the year 1696. The goldsmiths, who hated the Bank of England, attempted to destroy it by buying up its paper, and suddenly demanding immediate payment. The directors, however, referred them to the courts of law, and, during the time thus gained, managed to restore their credit by extensive calls on their subscribers. They were strengthened by the fall of their rival the *Land Bank*, whose brief popularity had seriously affected their operations during the crisis. This was the idea of two men named John Briscoe and Hugh Chamberlayne, who thought that a bank could be formed to lend money on landed security, their doctrine being that every one who had real property ought to have besides paper money to the full value of their property. The scheme was adopted in a modified form by Harley; he promised to advance two millions and a half to government at 7 per cent., the interest being secured upon a new tax on salt. If a quarter of the money was paid in by the 1st of August the subscribers were to be incorporated under the title of the National Land Bank. William, urged by want of money, grasped at the idea, and headed the list with £500, but the scheme proved an utter failure. The subscriptions never rose to more than £7,500. Thereupon the government turned in despair to the Bank of England; the subscribers, in full court, resolved to lend it £200,000, and thus began the alliance between the Bank and the Whig ministries. In 1708, the Bank capital was doubled, and in the same year an important Act was passed forbidding the issue of notes by associations of more than six persons, which checked the formation of joint-stock banks. In 1720 came the second great crisis of the Bank's existence. The *South Sea Company* then proposed to take over the government debt, consisting of about thirty-two millions, to its capital, receiving in return interest at 4 per cent.; but such was the anxiety entertained by all public companies to have the government for a creditor that the Bank of England contended against the Company for the privilege, but was, fortunately for itself, outbidden. In a few months the bubble burst and the Bank stood secure, though it was compelled by government to pay up two millions out of the £3,500,000 which in a weak moment it had promised to lend its tottering enemy. With the exception of a run on the Bank during the Jacobite rebellion of 1745, which was only averted by payment in sixpences, and a violent attack upon it by the mob during the Lord George Gordon Riots of 1780, there is nothing of especial moment in the history of the Bank of England until 1792, when a violent commercial panic occurred chiefly owing to the reckless use of paper by country banks, some fifty of which failed totally. The *Suspension of Cash Payments* in 1797 was caused chiefly by the drain of bullion due to the war, subsidies to foreign allies, the exclusive purchase of provisions abroad owing to bad harvests, and the hoarding of coin owing to fear of invasion. A run on the Bank set in from all sides, and on February 25th, when little over a million remained in its cellars, a proclamation was issued forbidding it to issue cash in payment. This was followed by a Bill prohibiting it to pay more than 20s. in cash, or to advance more than £600,000 to government; at the same time the Bill of 1777, which prohibited notes for less than £5, was suspended. This measure, by which Bank of England notes became inconvertible, though intended to be temporary, lasted until 1821, during which period the value of paper varied very considerably. The *Resumption of Cash Payments* was proposed by Mr. Peel in 1819; the Act was to have come into effect in 1821, but its provisions were adopted by the Bank two years earlier. In 1825 another crisis occurred. During the last six weeks of the year seventy houses failed, and the Bank itself was only saved, it is said, by the discovery of a cluster of 700,000 £1 notes. The measures of the government were prompt; notes for less than £5 were suppressed, and the law of 1708 repealed, banks with any number of partners being permissible beyond sixty-five miles from London, while the Bank in return was allowed to establish branches to be carried on by its agents. *The Bank Charter Act of* 1833, framed on the occasion of the renewal of the Charter at the instance of Sir R. Peel, Lord John Russell, and others, attempted to stop runs on the Bank by enacting that notes of the Bank of England were to be made legal tender, whereby the country banks would be enabled to meet a panic with notes instead of gold. A deduction of £120,000 a year was to be made in the sum allowed by government to the Bank for the management of the National Debt, while in return a quarter of £14,686,800, the sum due, was paid back. The principle that the paper issued and specie kept in hand should bear to each other the ratio of three to one was established, and the Bank was compelled to publish a general statement of its condition quarterly. In spite of this remedial measure, bullion was continually lacking in London, and in 1839 the Bank of England was in imminent danger of stopping payment, so that Sir R. Peel brought forward the *Bank Charter Act of* 1844. Its object being to regulate the issue of notes, it enacted that the Bank should not be allowed to issue more than £14,000,000 in notes, unless a corresponding amount of specie were retained. Further, no new banks established after the measure became law were to issue their own

notes, and the old banks were not to increase their issue. Sir R. Peel's great Act was the last important piece of legislation affecting the Bank of England.

(3) Joint-Stock Banks were rendered possible by the Act of 1825. They increased largely in numbers after 1836. By Sir R. Peel's Bank Charter Act of 1844 they were allowed to accept bills of any amount or date, and could sue or be sued. Banks other than the Bank of England are regulated by the Companies Act (1862). This Act provides that no association of more than ten persons can carry on a bank unless registered under the Companies Act, that an unlimited company may convert itself into a limited one, that a bank of issue shall, with certain relaxations, though registered as a limited company, have unlimited liability with respect to its notes, and that accounts must be audited and published once a year. There is also the law of 1867, which provided for minute registration with regard to the sale or purchase of shares in a joint-stock banking company.

(4) The Bank of Scotland was established by Act of the Scottish Parliament in 1695. Its capital was £100,000 sterling, of which about £10,000 was paid up, and it had the exclusive privilege of banking in Scotland for twenty-one years. Its capital was intact from state loans, and it was also temporarily exempt from public burdens. Nevertheless, the great African Company started a banking branch in rivalry, but they soon abandoned it for the more exciting pursuit of trade. The bank began to issue notes and establish branches in 1696, and in 1704 it issued £1 notes, and still continues to do so. After the union of England with Scotland it undertook the recoinage, and conducted it with great success. Its capital was increased to £2,000,000 in 1774, and to £2,500,000, its present amount, in 1804, with power, if necessary, to raise it to £3,000,000. It established an office in London in 1867, the restrictions of English joint-stock banks not affecting Scottish. After the monopoly of the Bank of Scotland expired, many unchartered banks started, of which the Royal Bank of Scotland (1727) and the British Linen Company (1746) were the oldest and most successful. The smaller banks, were, however, absorbed in the earlier part of the century into seven or eight large banks with constantly increasing branches still in existence. In 1844 Sir R. Peel's Bank Charter Act allowed the Scottish banks then issuing notes to continue to do so, provided that for every note issued above the average issue of the previous year, a corresponding amount of specie should be kept in stock.

(5) The Bank of Ireland was established in 1783 by charter in pursuance of a request from the Irish Parliament, with the same constitution and privileges as the Bank of England, and a capital of £600,000, increased to £1,000,000 in 1809, and lent to government at 4 per cent. It was prohibited from lending money on mortgage, and this restriction was not repealed until 1860. The restrictions on joint-stock banks as to paper issues caused such distress in Ireland, that in 1821 government allowed the Bank of Ireland to increase its capital to £3,000,000, while joint-stock banks were to be established beyond fifty miles from Dublin.

Gilbart, *Hist. and Principles of Banking*, and *Hist of Banking in Ireland*; Macleod, *Theory and Practice of Banking*; M'Culloch, *Dictionary of Commerce*; Sir H. Parnell, *Observations on Paper*; Molesworth, *Hist. of Eng.* Statutes: 5 and 6 W. and M.; c. 20; 3 and 4 Will. IV., c. 98; 7 and 8 Vict., c. 32; and 25 and 26 Vict., c. 89. *See also* Rogers, *First Nine Years of the Bank of England.*

[L. C. S.]

Bankruptcy Legislation. In the English Statute Book almost the first recognition of bankrupts as distinguished from fraudulent debtors is the Act 13 Eliz., c. 7, by which the goods of a trader who failed to meet his obligations were to be sold for the benefit of his creditors. By Acts passed in the fourth and tenth years of Queen Anne, bankrupts who had paid a dividend might, with the consent of their creditors, obtain their discharge from the Court of Chancery. Bankruptcy jurisdiction belonged to the Court of Chancery, but by the Act 1 and 2 Will. IV., c. 56, proposed and carried by Lord Brougham, a special Court of Bankruptcy was established. It provided that six commissioners and four judges should be appointed to try all cases of bankruptcy. The commissioners could adjudicate only in cases where there was no dispute; if the matter was disputed it was to be referred to a judge. By an Act of 1849 fraudulent bankrupts were rendered more certainly liable to punishment, and composition by arrangement made possible. In 1861 the provisions of the Bankruptcy Acts were extended to others besides traders. The most important of the numerous Bankruptcy Acts of the nineteenth century is that of 1869, which remodelled the Court, and made important changes in the law. The commissioners were abolished, and there were to be a Chief Judge (usually a Vice Chancellor) and a number of registrars. The county courts were constituted local bankruptcy courts with an appeal to the Chief Judge. The property was to be placed in the hands of trustees appointed by the creditors instead of official assignees, and there were provisions by which the bankrupt could not obtain his discharge, except with the consent of a majority of the creditors, unless he had paid ten shillings in the pound. The Act also provided for "liquidation by arrangement," with the consent of the creditors; and repealed or consolidated all former enactments on the subject

of bankruptcy. In 1883 a new Bankruptcy Act was carried by Mr. Chamberlain. It enacted severe punishments against fraudulent bankrupts, and abolished the system of trustees, substituting for them a staff of official receivers appointed by the Board of Trade. In *Scotland* bankruptcy was placed on a legal footing by the Act of 1696. There is no separate Bankruptcy Court, but by 7 Will. IV., c. 56, the Sheriffs have jurisdiction as well as the Court of Session. In *Ireland*, by an Act of the year 1872, the law of bankruptcy was assimilated to that of England. [DEBT.]

Banneret, or **Knight-Banneret,** was a degree of knighthood superior to that of knight bachelor. Bannerets were privileged to carry the square banner instead of the pointed pennon borne by other knights. The distinction was originally awarded for special bravery on the battle-field, and the ceremony of cutting off the corner of the pennon so as to make it a banner was performed by the king in person standing beneath his own royal banner. Bannerets ranked before all other knights except those of the Garter. The dignity was altogether personal, and was never hereditary. It has been sometimes regarded, but erroneously, as a rank of peerage inferior to a barony. It conferred no right to sit in Parliament. The order gradually died out, and in modern times has become extinct; but a knight-banneret was created by George III. as late as 1797.

The name is, of course, derived from banner; but it was sometimes supposed to be a derivative or diminutive of baron, and the Latin form *baronatus* occasionally occurs in some writers and old State-papers.

Stubbs's *Const. Hist.*, iii., chap. xx.; Selden, *Titles of Honour*, 790—792.

Bannockburn, THE BATTLE OF (June 24, 1314), one of the greatest defeats the English ever suffered, was fought near Stirling, on the attempt of Edward II. to relieve the castle of Stirling, which was being besieged by Robert Bruce. The Scots were far outnumbered by the English troops, who, including a large body of Welsh and Irish auxiliaries, may have numbered nearly 100,000 men. Bruce, however, gained the victory in great part by having previously dug holes in the ground so as to impede the magnificent cavalry of the enemy, and by massing his foot into solid squares and circles—a system of receiving cavalry hitherto unpractised, except at the battles of Falkirk and Courtrai, where it had been signally successful. The belief on the part of the English that the camp followers of the Scottish army formed part of a reserve completed their discomfiture; the rout was thorough, and an immense booty fell into the victors' hands. The Scotch generals, in addition to Bruce, who slew in single combat Henry de Bohun, one of the bravest of the English knights were Randolph, the king's nephew, Edward Bruce, Walter Stewart, and James Douglas; the English were led by Edward II. in person, and the Earls of Pembroke and Gloucester. Edward narrowly escaped being taken prisoner, and had to ride at full speed to Linlithgow, hotly pursued by Douglas; his privy seal fell into the hands of the victors. The result of the battle was a futile meeting of Scotch and English commissioners with a view to bringing about a better understanding between the two countries.

Scotichronicon, xii.; Dalrymple, *Annals of Scotland*; Robertsou, *Scotland under Early Kings*; and esp. Barbour's great poem, *The Bruce*.

Bantam, in Java, was the site of an English settlement from 1603 to 1683, in which year the English were expelled by the Dutch. The place was again in the possession of the British from 1811 to 1814.

Bantry Bay is a deep inlet on the west of the county of Cork. Here, on May 1st, 1689, Chateau Renard anchored with a French fleet and put on shore a quantity of stores. Admiral Herbert followed him; but an engagement, claimed as a victory by both parties, was all that took place. In Dec., 1796, a large French fleet of seven sail of the line, three frigates, and seventeen transports, sent to aid an Irish rising, anchored here for a week. They did not immediately land their men, owing to the absence of General Hoche, their commander, who had got separated from the squadron; and subsequently a storm arose and drove them back to France. In 1801, the fleet under Admiral Mitchell mutinied here. Twenty-two of the ringleaders in the mutiny were condemned to death at Portsmouth in Jan., 1802, but only eleven were executed.

Baptists, THE, are a sect of Protestant Nonconformists who hold that the baptism of infants is invalid. On the Continent, at the beginning of the sixteenth century, a body of men with similar views were known to their opponents as the *Anabaptists*, or rebaptisers. They spread over Switzerland, Germany, and the Netherlands, but, in consequence of the violence of their religious and social doctrines, were forcibly suppressed (about 1535) by the governments of those countries. Some of the Dutch Anabaptists fled to England, and were put to death by Henry VIII.; but the true sect never existed here in large numbers, and the name was vaguely applied to all who insisted on adult baptism. The Anabaptists or Baptists suffered for their faith under the Tudors, by whom their secret conventicles were forbidden. The last of them who was burnt alive was Weightman, in 1612. During the next few years their views were, in part, adopted by the Brownists or Independents, and it is difficult to draw a distinction between the two sects. In 1633 the Peculiar or Calvinistic Baptists separated from the Independents, and founded

a church of their own, and in 1644 the London Baptist Churches published a Confession of Faith. The story of their persecution after the Restoration, and of the gradual removal of their religious disabilities after the Revolution, does not differ from that of other dissenting churches. During the seventeenth century the differences between the Peculiar and General Baptists, principally on the doctrine of the Redemption, became wider, and in 1770 the latter body became separated into the General Baptists' New and Old Connexion. The Scotch Baptists appear to have become a recognised body about 1760. As each church is complete in itself and the form of government is congregational, considerable differences of opinion prevail among the Baptists on minor points. As a rule, neighbouring churches unite into associations, and the Baptist Union of Great Britain and Ireland connects them all together. The Baptists have displayed much energy in mission-work, chiefly in India and the East.

Price, *Protestant Nonconformity in England*; Bogue and Bennett, *Hist. of Dissenters*; Wilson, *Hist. of Dissenting Churches*; Stoughton, *Hist. of Religion in England*.

Barataria was the title of some letters written in the Dublin journals by Henry Flood and his followers in 1767. Barataria was Ireland, and Townshend was Sancho; the members of his council were the officers of Sancho's household. These letters created much sensation on account of their wit and boldness.

Barbados, one of the Windward Islands, is supposed to have been discovered by the Portuguese about 1518; it was first colonised by an English expedition under Sir Oliver Leigh, 1605, and in 1624 was granted by James I. to Lord Ley, who sent out a number of colonists. Shortly afterwards the whole of the Caribbean Islands was made over to Lord Carlisle, and a long dispute ensued as to the ownership of Barbados; the quarrel lasted for some years, and frequent collisions between the two parties took place in the island. In 1647 Lord Carlisle granted a lease of the island for twenty-one years to Lord Willoughby, who fortified the island for the king, and in 1651 defeated a large Parliamentary force which had been sent out from England under Admiral Ayscue. The Barbadians, however, were shortly afterwards compelled to capitulate, though many of the leading men subsequently received from Charles II. substantial rewards for their loyalty. In 1663 the sovereignty of Barbados became vested in the crown, and the proprietary government was dissolved; in 1675 and 1692 slave insurrections broke out, but were speedily suppressed. In the next century, especially during the administration of Lord Howe (1733—35), the condition of the Barbadians was much improved, both socially and politically, though property in the island was almost entirely destroyed by a severe hurricane in 1780. The condition of the slaves in Barbados was almost as bad as in Jamaica, and in 1826 there was an insurrection, which was, however, soon quelled; the slaves were emancipated in 1834, and the apprentice system done away with in 1838. On the assumption of the sovereignty of the island by the crown in 1663, a tax of 4½ per cent. was imposed on all native produce exported. This tax proved a great burden upon the planters, and was abolished in 1838. The governor of Barbados is governor-in-chief of the Windward Islands; the administration is representative, and is vested in a legislative and executive council nominated by the governor, and a house of assembly of twenty-four members elected by the freeholders. It is owing to the opposition of the Barbadians that it has hitherto been found impracticable to form a federation of the Windward Islands, as has been done in the Leeward Islands. Barbados was divided into parishes as early as 1629.

Ligon, *Hist. of Barbados*; B. Edwards, *Hist. of the West Indies*; Creasy, *Britannic Empire*; R. M. Martin, *British Colonies*.

Barbour, John (*d.* 1395), was the author of the great national Scottish epic, *The Bruce*. Of his life little is known. He was probably born about the year 1316; studied at Oxford, and became Archdeacon of Aberdeen, Clerk of the King's household, and one of the Auditors of the Exchequer in Scotland. *The Bruce* extends from the death of Alexander III. to the death of King Robert. It is a noble epic, full of spirit and vigour, and true chivalrous feeling; and is, moreover, highly interesting historically, as being almost the only Scottish authority for this period. Barbour also wrote a book of Legends of the Saints, and *The Brute*, dealing with the story of Brutus.

The earliest edition of *The Bruce* was printed at Edinburgh in 1570. The poem has been carefully edited by Mr. Innes for the Spalding Club (1856); and by Mr. Skeat for the Early-English Text Society (1875).

Barbuda, one of the Leeward Islands, and celebrated for the salubrity of its climate, is the property of the Codrington family, who have held it under lease from the crown since 1684.

Barcelona, the chief town of Catalonia, played an important part in the Spanish Succession War. In 1704 an attempt was made upon it by Sir George Rooke, who landed the Prince of Darmstadt with some marines, relying upon co-operation within the city. The design, however, was betrayed by some of the conspirators, and the prince hastily re-embarked. In 1705 the allies, under the Prince of Darmstadt and the Earl of Peterborough, appeared before the town. The fortifications were ancient, but they had been repaired and strengthened,

and the natural advantages of the town and the strong castle of Montjuich were very great. The besieging force was weak, and the Spanish auxiliaries showed little disposition or capacity for regular siege operations. After a fortnight the troops prepared to embark; but Peterborough suddenly announced his intention of attacking Montjuich. Ascending the hill at dawn with 1,400 men, he surprised the garrison and captured the fortress. The castle of Barcelona, now exposed to a fire from the hill, soon surrendered, and on Oct. 3rd the town capitulated. The Archduke Charles was besieged in Barcelona in 1706, by a fleet under the Count of Toulouse, and an army of 20,000 men under Marshal Tessé. Sir John Leake, with thirty ships, came to the relief of the town, but hesitated to attack the French fleet till Peterborough, who had put off in an open boat, arrived on board his ship with instructions to supersede him. The French army retired, and the fleet followed its example. After the Peace of Utrecht the Catalans refused to surrender Barcelona to Philip of Anjou; but the place was captured by the Duke of Berwick in Sept., 1714. In the Peninsular War, Barcelona was occupied by the French, Feb. 13, 1808. In March, 1809, an attempt on it was made by Lord Collingwood, in conjunction with the Catalan levies and Somatenes; but the French continued to hold it till the end of the war.

Barclay, William (*b.* ?1546, *d.* 1608), a Scotchman by birth, after serving many years in France, came to England in 1603, and was well received by James I. He had quarrelled with the Jesuits, and, though still remaining a Roman Catholic, was strongly opposed to the temporal power of the Pope. He had also written a work in favour of extreme views of royal authority, which recommended him to James I. His Catholicism, however, prevented his preferment, and after spending two years in England he returned to France just before his death. His controversy with Bellarmine respecting the Papal power earned him considerable fame, and his views as to the limits of the Pope's authority were adopted by a large number of English Catholics. In politics he was a vigorous upholder of extreme monarchical principles.

Barclay's chief works are *De Regno et Regali Potestate Adversus Buchananum, etc.*, and *De Potestate Papæ*, printed together at Hanover, 1617. *See* Locke, *Treatise on Government.*

Bardolf, Thomas, Lord (*b.* 1367, *d.* 1408), was one of the nobles who joined Henry of Lancaster in 1399, but he subsequently espoused the cause of the Percies, and joined in the plot to put the Earl of March on the throne. He fled to Scotland in 1405, and in 1408 took up arms in Yorkshire against the king, and was mortally wounded at Bramham Moor.

Bards. [Druids.]

Barebones' Parliament (July 4th to Dec. 12th, 1653) was the nickname given to the Assembly summoned by Cromwell and the council of officers after the expulsion of the Rump (q.v.). It derived its name from a certain Praise-God Barbon, or Barebones, a leatherseller of Fleet Street, who took a somewhat prominent part as a member of this Assembly. It consisted of 139 persons summoned as representatives—122 for England (including 7 for London), 6 for Wales, 5 for Scotland, and 6 for Ireland—who were chosen by Cromwell and his officers from lists of persons "faithful, fearing God, and hating covetousness," furnished to them by the various churches. Amongst them were Blake, Montague, Monk, Ashley Cooper, and other men of position and influence. They began by electing Cromwell and four other officers to be members of their body. They set to work to reform the administration of the law, relaxed imprisonment for debt, passed a Civil Marriage Act, commenced the codification of the law, and began the process of abolishing the Court of Chancery. They decided to abolish the power of patrons to present to benefices, and the institution of tithes. These resolutions, especially the latter, would have rendered the existence of a State Church impossible, and Cromwell and the country at large were not prepared to go so far. A sudden stroke solved the difficulty. On Dec. 12th Sydenham, one of the members, having mustered his friends before many of the other party had arrived, suddenly proposed, with the concurrence of the Speaker, that the Parliament (which he described as useless and injurious to the Commonwealth) should resign its power into the hands of Cromwell. This motion was at once carried, and those who dissented were expelled by a company of soldiers under Colonel Goffe and Major White. The "sober men" of that meeting, as Cromwell called them, resigned their power into his hands. He accused the other party of an intention "to set up the judicial law of Moses," and to abolish all magistracy and ministry as anti-christian. Some historians, objecting to the somewhat ludicrous title of Barebones' Parliament, have called this Assembly "The Little Parliament," while others prefer to style it "The Assembly of Nominees." It has been described as an assembly of obscure fanatics, but Whitelocke says that "many of this assembly" were "persons of fortune and knowledge."

Whitelocke, *Memorials;* Ludlow, *Memoirs;* Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.;* Guizot, *Cromwell;* Carlyle, *Cromwell;* Masson, *Life of Milton*, vol. v.

Barillon, French ambassador in England (1677—1688), was employed by Louis XIV. to keep Charles II. and James II. in dependence upon France, or, at any rate, inactive in

European politics. With this object he fomented the quarrel between the court and the country party, writing to his master in 1687, "It may be held as an indubitable maxim that agreement between the King of England and his Parliament is not for the interest of your Majesty." When early in 1688 the national opposition seemed likely to endanger James's position, it was Barillon who advised the bringing over of Irish troops. Yet he allowed himself to be duped by Sunderland's assurances; and it was for this reason that, after he had been obliged to leave England by William, he was not appointed to attend James in Ireland.

Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*, vol. iv. Extracts from Barillon's reports are translated in Dalrymple, *Memoirs of Great Britain*, and are given in Fox, *Hist. of James II.*, appendix.

Barkham, John (*b.* 1572, *d.* 1642), historian, herald, and antiquary, assisted Speed in his work, *The History of Great Britain*, and wrote the greater portion of Guillim's *Display of Heraldry*.

Barking Abbey was one of the oldest and richest nunneries in England. It was said to have been founded by St. Erkenwald, Bishop of London, and after being sacked by the Danes in 870 was restored by Edgar. The revenues of the convent were very large, and the abbess, holding more than thirteen knights' fees and a half, held her lands from the crown as a barony. The nuns were of the Benedictine order, and after 1200 exercised the right of electing their own abbess. The convent was surrendered to Henry VIII. in 1539.

Lysons, *Environs of London*, iv.; Morant, *History of Essex*.

Barkstead, John (*d.* 1662), a goldsmith in the Strand, served in the City train bands, and subsequently obtained a colonelcy in the Parliamentary army. He took part in the king's trial, and was one of those who signed the death-warrant. Subsequently he became Lieutenant of the Tower and Steward of the Household to the Protector. At the Restoration he fled to the Continent, but was betrayed, brought back, and executed at Tyburn.

Barlow, Sir George (*b.* 1762, *d.* 1846), a civil servant of the Bengal establishment, by meritorious service of twenty-eight years obtained a seat in the Council, under Lord Wellesley. His industry and official experience were great, but he was unequal to the responsibilities of empire. On the death of Lord Cornwallis, the government of India was temporarily (1805—1807) in Sir George Barlow's hands. The result of his determined non-intervention policy was the restoration to Scindiah and Holkar of many of the advantages which England had gained by the Mahratta Wars. He was a great opponent of missionary enterprise in India, and caused the Company to assume the whole management of the temple of Juggernaut, including the three hundred dancing girls. In spite of the favour of the Directors, Sir George was not appointed Governor-General, but was nominated Governor of Madras in 1807. His want of tact made him very unpopular in this position, and he was involved in bitter disputes with his subordinates. His obstinacy and violence did much to produce the Madras mutiny, but he displayed much firmness while it lasted. The result of the mutiny was his recall in 1811.

Malcolm, *Polit. Hist. of India*; Mill, *Hist. of India*.

Barnard Castle, in Durham, was occupied by the Royalists under Sir George Bowes during the Northern rebellion of 1569. It was subsequently taken by the rebels under the Earl of Westmoreland in the course of the same episode.

Barnard, Sir John (*b.* 1685, *d.* 1764), was an eminent London merchant who became Lord Mayor in 1757. He sat for London from 1722 to 1758. He was a vigorous opponent of Sir Robert Walpole's, and in 1733 attacked that minister's sinking fund and the excise scheme, which he declared "could not, even by malice itself, be represented as worse than it really was." In 1737 he introduced a Bill (which was rejected) to lower the interest of the National Debt by borrowing money at three per cent. to redeem the annuities for which a higher rate was being paid. In 1742 he declined to attend the secret committee appointed to inquire into Walpole's administration. He attempted, but without success, to moderate the outcry raised against Admiral Byng. He was a man of high character, and was much respected by all parties.

Coxe, *Walpole*; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*

Barnet, The Battle of (1471), was fought between Edward IV. and the Earl of Warwick and the Lancastrians. On March 14th Edward landed at Ravenspur and marched towards London, no attempt being made to check him. Having been welcomed by the citizens of London, Edward, learning that Warwick was posted at Barnet, marched out to meet him, and drew up his army on Hadley Green. The fight commenced at five o'clock in the morning of April 14, which that year was Easter Day. The Lancastrian right wing under Lord Oxford was at first victorious, and drove in Edward's left; but a heavy fog occasioned them to mistake a part of their own army for the Yorkist force; confusion ensued, of which Edward took advantage to retrieve the fortune of the day. After very severe fighting, in which no quarter was given on either side, the Yorkists were completely victorious, and Warwick and his brother Montagu were slain. It is impossible

to give any authentic statement of the numbers or the losses on either side.

Warkworth, *Chronicle*, vol. vi., 1883 (Camden Soc.); *Gentleman's Mag.* (Oct., 1844); *Historie of the Arrival of Edward IV.* (Camden Soc.); *Archæologia*, vol. xxix.; and esp. *Transactions of Lond. and Middlesex Archæolog. Soc.*, vol. vi., 1883.

Baroda Commission, The (1875). The Guicowar, Mulhar Rao, was in this year accused of attempting to poison the Resident, Colonel Phayre. He was tried by a mixed commission of three English and three natives. The commission failed to come to any satisfactory conclusion, as the English members considered the case proved, while the natives thought the charge had not been substantiated. Lord Northbrook, the Governor-General, however, held the former opinion. The Guicowar was therefore deposed by proclamation of the Viceroy, and his widow allowed to adopt an heir.

Baron. The history of the word baron is one of those cases in which questions hotly disputed may be virtually settled by strict discrimination of the meaning of a name. The word, which originally meant "man" or "freeman," has now come to mean the simplest grade of the peerage. Between these extreme points, it passes through important alterations of meaning. The word first occurs in England after the Norman Conquest. When William the Conqueror's "barons" are spoken of, it is quite clear that this means all who held lands directly of him —that is, of course, if they held by military service. In this large body of chief tenants—some 1,400 in number, including ecclesiastics—there was naturally from the first a tendency to a practical division between the great lord, who had knights holding under him, and the simple knight, who held but his own small estate. But it is unnecessary to say with Madox that this was also a clear legal distinction, "an original difference between tenure by barony and tenure by knight service;" and it would be impossible as yet to find any principle on which to base such a legal distinction. But already, under Henry I., the practical distinction had become accentuated, and it soon came to be the custom that the greater "baron of the king" should treat for payment of his relief and aids directly with the king, instead of paying through the sheriff; that on the rates becoming fixed his relief should be 100 marks, while ordinary chief tenants paid 100s.; similarly, that he should lead his own tenants to the host, while the other served under the sheriff's banner; that he should be amerced by his equals in the King's Court, not by the sheriff; and, most decisive of all, that he was summoned *proprio nomine* by a special writ, not, like the "lesser barons," by a general writ to the sheriff for each shire. From the biography of Becket and the *Dialogus de Scaccario*, we see that this last distinction was recognised and customary early in Henry II.'s reign; while in Magna Charta it is claimed and conceded in the Article 14, which deals with the mode of convoking the Great Council; and it is acted on thereafter, even though this article was dropped in the later re-issues of the Charter. The greater barons had, in one sense, a qualification by tenure; they would all be holders of a barony, not (that is) a definite number of knights' fees, as was sometimes stated—for some baronies consisted of no more than one or two such—but holders of some group of knights' fees which had at the Conquest been endowed with such a special character, or had since come to be so regarded: and in this sense the word is used in the Constitutions of Clarendon, and as early as Henry I.'s Charter. These leading landowners, with the earls, could not well be left unsummoned. But outside this inner necessary body, the king had a wide circle of holders of baronies out of whom to select those whom he should by his writ call to special attendance in host or in council. And here a further exclusion went on. For throughout the reigns of Henry III. and Edward I., special summonses to the host were sent to more than 100 barons; while to Edward I.'s Parliaments the number so called was hardly half as great. And even so, many of those who were called were not holders of baronies, but of much smaller estates; many, too, were called only occasionally. Here, then, is to be seen Edward's steady design of "eliminating the doctrine of tenure from the region of government." The reluctance of all but the greatest lords to attend co-operated in this direction; and "Edward I. is the creator of the House of Lords almost as truly as of the House of Commons," in the sense that to him was due the smallness of its numbers, the selection (to a great extent) of its members, and the final establishment of the principle that it is constituted by writ of summons, not by tenure. Nor would it be against the desires of the great barons themselves to see the substitution of summons for tenure as the qualification. For mere tenure-in-chief, if accepted, might have flooded the House with the lesser chief tenants, and have brought into it any mere purchaser of a baronial estate. During the same period the "lesser barons" had gradually ceased to attend as barons, and merged into the mass of the county freeholders, whom they inspired with their high spirit and traditions of constitutional resistance, and to whom they acted as leaders in shire moot and in national Parliament. Under the policy of Edward I. and the operation of his statute *Quia Emptores*, and with the introduction of the new idea—representation for all below baronial rank, whether chief tenants or not—tenure-in-chief lost its constitutional value,

and the separation of chief tenants into barons and knights, or nobles and gentry, was accomplished. To complete this, it was only required that the right to receive the special summons should be regarded as hereditary; and this too, as a legal principle, dates from Edward I.'s reign. A further limitation in the sense of the word baron was effected when the crown created barons by letters patent, first in 1387; but the instances are very rare till the close of Henry VII.'s reign. In these patents the right is limited, as a rule, to heirs male, while the older baronies, by writ of summons, could descend through females (so Sir John Oldcastle became Lord Cobham in right of his wife). The mere personal summons, not inheritable, continued under Lancastrian kings, but definitely ceased under the Tudors. The attempt to create a life peerage was disallowed as obsolete in the Wensleydale case, 1856. Since the Earl of Bristol's case in 1626 the receipt of such a writ is an inherited right which cannot be denied. Thus, out of the great mass of "barons" of the Conquest, the leading families were gradually selected (as it were) by the crown. These families have long since disappeared; the crown has supplied their place with a body four times as numerous; but this body has now a right with which the crown can no longer interfere. When the kings of the fourteenth century introduced new grades (duke, marquis, viscount) beside the old baronial body of earls and barons proper, the word baron sank to its narrowest meaning—that which it now bears, a peer who sits by no higher title. The bishops, till the Reformation, sat both in their Old English character and in their new character as barons. But Henry VIII.'s new sees had no baronies attached. The number of abbots who sat had fallen from 100 or more in the thirteenth century to a fixed number of 27 under Edward III.; those who could claim that they did not owe the service of a whole barony were glad to be excused. At the Reformation, when the abbots were excluded, the balance of numbers, for the first time, was left with the lay lords.

The political history of the baronage may be briefly summed up in three periods:—(1) The feudal baronage, whose policy was the weakening of the central power, and whose alliances and habits were those of Normans, was nearly eliminated by forfeiture before Magna Charta. The last great baron of this type may be found in Ranulf, Earl of Chester, who died in 1232. The dispersed character of their estates, the vigorous resistance of the Old English spirit, the strong arm of the Norman king, made this feudal class less formidable than it proved on the Continent. (2) On its ruins had been rising the new families of the ministers rewarded by Henry I. and Henry II., out of which was formed the national baronage which took the lead in winning the Charter, which defeated Henry III.'s plan of personal government, and which finally secured from Edward I. the results of a struggle of a century. Their typical representative is Richard, Earl Marshal in Henry III.'s reign. (3) As the great fiefs began to fall in to the crown, and as the constitutional leadership passed on to the knights, the baronage turns from national aims to dynastic partisanship, family aggrandisement, and the ostentation of chivalry. The people are still only too ready to believe in and to accept them as champions. But they become more and more a narrow class, bound up with one or other of the two royal houses; and they are left alone at last to fight out the Wars of the Roses by the aid of their own retainers, and to be almost exterminated in the struggle. Yet when they were gone, and the Church was powerless in its anti-national Romanism, the nation was helpless at the feet of the new despotism. For England still required its nobles, and in their worst phases they had played a necessary part on the political stage. Even the selfish factiousness of the fourteenth and fifteenth century nobility had been obliged to adopt national grievances for its faction cries; the traditions of noble leadership had been found still to have invaluable strength for the purposes of the Hundred Years' War; and for the rest, the nobles, busy with place-hunting and court intrigues, left space for the silent growth of literature, of commerce, and of municipal life.

The great barons may be roughly reckoned at 400 in Domesday, nearly half of whom held estates in two or more counties. The number of lesser barons was rather smaller. By the thirteenth century both classes have decreased in numbers, but the former have increased the average size of their estates. By the end of the next century the baronial body has sunk to something less than 100 families, still holding, however, a vast proportion of the land of England. Soon after, the two representative estates of clergy and the Commons had risen up to share with them the functions of legislation. The baronial body retained separate and independent privileges. They constituted a great part of the standing council, which took upon itself the administration when the king was a minor. They held with the king the supreme judicial power, both original and appellate. They could be judged only by their brother peers. Till nearly the Yorkist period they were called to give counsel and consent for legislation, while the Commons only had the right of petition. For general administration they were called to "treat and give counsel;" the Commons only "to execute and consent."

Selden, *Titles of Honour*; Madox, *Baronia Anglica*; Dugdale, *Baronage of England*; Sir H. Nicolas, *Historic Peerage*; *Lords Reports on*

the Dignity of Peer, 1825—26 and 1829, esp. ii., pt. 1; Hallam, *Middle Ages*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, *passim*; Gneist, *Verwaltungsrecht*, i. 130—136.

[A. L. S.]

Baronets were first created by James I. in 1611, when, being in want of money for the support of the army in Ulster, he offered the title of baronet to all "who would pay into the Exchequer £1,080, in three annual payments, being the sum required for the pay of a hundred foot soldiers for three years." In Ireland baronets were instituted in 1620, and in Scotland by Charles I. in 1625, and called baronets of Nova Scotia, because it was originally intended to establish them for the encouragement of the settling of Nova Scotia. The principle of this dignity was to give rank, precedence, and title without privilege. A baronet was to remain a commoner, but his title (unlike that of a knight) was to be hereditary. Since the time of Charles II. it has been usual to remit the payment due to the crown on creation of a baronetcy. It was intended that the number of baronets should be limited to 200, but the number was exceeded even before the death of James I.

Barons' War, The. The first distinct appeal to arms of this war was made in 1263 by Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester. Five years before, the incurable misrule of Henry III. had provoked the more public-spirited of his barons to place him under the control of a commission of reform, and then of a council; from this control he had now been for three years struggling to free himself, but with little success. The situation grew daily more distracted; England had two rival governments, the king and the Baronial Council, each claiming obedience, and forbidding what the other commanded. From time to time efforts had been made to arrange the points in dispute, but in vain. Of these points the principal were: the observance by the king of the Provisions of Oxford, the right of holding the royal castles, the power of appointing and removing the state officials and counsellors, and the exclusion of all foreigners from places of trust and profit. Not one of these demands of the barons could Henry be brought to loyally concede. Accordingly, in June, 1263, the smothered disgust of the barons burst into open war. But the campaign had barely begun when Henry's astute brother Richard, King of the Romans, interposed and patched up a kind of reconciliation. Some months of troubled peace followed, which both parties spent in diligent search after the means of getting a lasting peace. In December they agreed to submit their quarrel to Louis IX. of France (St. Louis); and the chief men of both sides swore solemnly to abide by his decision, whatever it might be. At Amiens, in Jan., 1264, St. Louis heard the case that the king in person and the barons laid before him, and gave judgment. This was in favour of the king on every one of the points specified above, though the "liberties, statutes, and laudable customs of the realm of England that were before the time of the Provisions" were left intact. [Amiens, Mise of.] Notwithstanding their oaths, the earl and his party easily found an excuse that satisfied their consciences for refusing to be bound by this decision. War was now entered upon in earnest; and in March the hostile armies were lying within a few miles of each other — the king's at Oxford, the earl's at Brackley. Here a last attempt at a pacification proved fruitless. Then the combatants parted, the king marching to take Northampton and Nottingham, the barons to add the array of the Londoners to their own, and to lay siege to Rochester. This operation brought on the battle that decided the campaign. For the king, alarmed for Rochester, hurried to its relief, and finding the siege raised on his arrival, went on to the reduction of the Cinque Ports. De Montfort cautiously followed, and on reaching Fletching learned that the royal army was but ten miles off, in and around the town and Cluniac Priory of Lewes. Thither, on May 14, he led his followers, full of religious enthusiasm and patriotic ardour, along the slopes of the bushless downs, and, almost with sunrise, burst in upon the half-prepared Royalists. The fiery onset of Prince Edward routed and made havoc of the earl's left wing, where the Londoners fought, but only rendered the baronial victory more sure. Carried off the field by his fury, Edward left his father and uncle to be crushed by the right and centre of the attacking force. Next day the two kings, Edward himself, and his cousin Henry, were prisoners in the earl's hands. De Montfort was now master of king and kingdom. He strove hard to effect a settlement; called a Parliament of the imperfect type then in use; drew up a new scheme of government; and was diligent in framing measures of reform. At the end of the year he took the step that has made him immortal: he summoned in Henry's name a national assembly that was the first to contain all the elements of a full Parliament, duly chosen citizens and burgesses, as well as knights of the shire, barons, abbots, and bishops. This body began its sittings at London in January, 1265; and did its best to strengthen the position of its creator. But this position was already undermined. The baronial party had split into sections, one of which, under Gilbert, Earl of Gloucester, openly thwarted Earl Simon's designs, and at last broke away from the old leader altogether. The end came swiftly on. While De Montfort was suppressing disturbances in South Wales, Edward escaped from his guards, gathered round him his father's friends and De Montfort's foes, and by rapid marches secured the line of the Severn. Early in August, however, the slow moving earl had forced a passage

across this barrier, and, with the king still in his possession, had reached Evesham, hoping to meet his son Simon, who was leading the levies of the south and east to join him. With this object, on Aug. 4, 1265, he was starting from Evesham when he was caught by his active opponent, who had shortly before suddenly fallen upon and destroyed the younger Simon's force at Kenilworth. By wise and well-executed dispositions he now enclosed the old warrior on every side; and after a stubborn contest, the great earl and his bravest followers perished, fighting desperately. Yet the war lingered for two years longer. The harshness of the victors, who pronounced the lands of the rebels forfeit, drove the vanquished to despair. The siege of Kenilworth was prolonged till late in 1266; and at Axholm, in Lincolnshire, another obstinate band of outlaws held out stiffly against the assaults of Edward. At length Axholm was taken; and by this time experience had taught its captor moderation. In the *Dictum of Kenilworth* he offered milder terms to the defenders of the castle; and it surrendered at last (Dec., 1266). In the meantime others of "the Disinherited" had seized Ely, and one more siege became necessary. This lasted till the summer of 1267, when Edward forced his way into the place, and thus ended the Barons' War. [MONTFORT, SIMON DE.]

W. H. Blaauw, *The Barons' War;* Pauli, *Life of Simon de Montfort;* Prothero, *Life of Simon de Montfort;* Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, ch. xiv.

[J. R.]

Barosa, THE BATTLE OF (March 5, 1811), was fought between the English and Spaniards, and the French, during the Peninsular War. General Graham, who had been blockaded through the winter in Cadiz, learning that Soult had marched to Badajos, resolved to rid himself of Victor's besieging force. To effect this purpose he embarked 12,000 men, who landed at Tarifa, in the rear of the French. But with an ill-timed modesty Graham gave up the chief command to La Peña, the Spanish general, who systematically neglected his advice. The low ridge of Barosa was the key both to offensive and defensive movements, and Graham was very anxious to hold it; but La Peña ordered him to march through a thick wood to Bermeja, and left the heights of Barosa crowded with baggage and defended only by a wholly inadequate force. Victor no sooner saw Graham's corps enter the wood than he attacked and took Barosa, cutting off a Spanish division which was on its march. Graham, on hearing of Victor's tactics, at once faced about, and, marching back to the plain, without a moment's hesitation resolved to attack, although the key of the field of battle was already in the enemy's possession. He accordingly despatched one body of troops to attack Laval, who was on the flank, while Brown and Dilke attacked the heights. "The English bore strongly onward, and their incessant slaughtering fire forced the French from the hill with the loss of three guns and many brave soldiers." Victor was soon in full retreat, and the British, having been twenty-four hours under arms without food, were too exhausted to pursue. In the meantime La Peña looked idly on, so that the remains of the French army, retreating in the greatest disorder, were allowed to escape.

Napier, *Peninsular War;* A. M. Delavoye, *Life of Lord Lynedoch;* Alison, *Hist. of Europe,* ix. 538.

Barrackpore, an important military station in Lower Bengal, fifteen miles from Calcutta, was the place where, during the First Burmese War (q.v.) the 47th Native Regiment, who were ordered for service, presented a memorial (Oct., 1824), setting forth the extreme difficulty of procuring cattle, and begging to be relieved of the burden of providing means of conveyance. The sepoys were informed that they would receive no assistance. On Nov. 1st the 47th broke out into open mutiny, and refused to fall in at the word. After vainly endeavouring to reason with them, the Commander-in-chief ordered up several European regiments and a detachment of horse artillery. The sepoys were ordered to march at once, or ground arms: on their refusal a volley was discharged on them by the artillery, and the European regiments fell on them. The slaughter was very great. The ringleaders were subsequently tried by court-martial and executed; and others were sentenced to hard labour in irons. It was at Barrackpore that the first mutinous demonstrations took place during the Sepoy rebellion of 1857. In February of that year the native troops quartered at this place refused to bite the ends of their cartridges. On Mar. 29 the 34th Native Infantry mutinied; it was disbanded May 5, the 10th Native Infantry having been previously disbanded Mar. 31.

Kaye, *Sepoy War,* i. 266 *seq.*

Barré, ISAAC (*b.* 1726, *d.* 1802), in 1746 entered the army, and served in Flanders and Canada. In 1759, he was present, and severely wounded, at the storming of the heights of Abraham. In 1761, Lord Shelburne gave his vacated seat for Chipping Wycombe to Barré. Two days after taking his seat, he made a most violent attack on Pitt. He strongly supported Bute's government in the debates on the Peace of Paris in 1762, and was rewarded for his services by being appointed Adjutant-General to the British Forces, and soon afterwards Governor of Stirling Castle. But on the retirement of Lord Shelburne from the Board of Trade, Barré voted in opposition to the Grenville ministry in reference to the prosecution of Wilkes for libel, and was summarily dismissed from his military appointments and

reduced to half-pay in Dec., 1763. He continued strenuously to oppose the ministry in their action with regard to Wilkes and general warrants, and his ability as a debater became more and more conspicuous. On the introduction of the Stamp Act in 1765, he was one of the "two or three gentlemen who spoke against the Act, and that with great reserve and remarkable temper." He was a firm supporter of the policy of the Rockingham government, and on Pitt's taking office in 1766 he received a minor appointment. But in Oct., 1768, he retired with Lord Shelburne, on account of differences with the Duke of Grafton, whom he forthwith attacked in Parliament. During the long period of Lord North's administration Barré was out of office, and was especially active in advocating the cause of the revolted colonies in America, and the right of Wilkes to his seat. In the second Rockingham administration in 1782, Barré was appointed Treasurer of the Navy; but while Burke was proposing his Economical Reforms, and before the contemplated enactments could have come to his knowledge, Barré accepted an enormous pension of £3,200 a year, which, however, he was subsequently induced to resign in return for the clerkship of the Pells. It has been attempted to identify Barré with the author of the *Letters of Junius;* but the assertion rests on no sufficient evidence. The closing days of Barré, like those of his old adversary, Lord North, were darkened by blindness.

Walpole, *Memoirs of the Reign of George III.*; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; Trevelyan, *Early Years of C. J. Fox*; Britton, *Junius Elucidated.*

Barri, Gerald de. [Giraldus Cambrensis.]

Barrier Treaty, The (1715). The project of giving the States-General a "barrier" against France by means of a line of fortresses along the frontier had been raised in the Grand Alliance negotiations of 1701, and again in 1703, but was defeated by the hostility of Austria. In 1709, however, a treaty was concluded between England and Holland, by which the former bound herself to obtain for the Dutch the right of supplying garrisons for the Flemish fortresses, including Ypres, Menin, Lille, Tournai, Condé, Valenciennes, Charleroi, Namur, Damm, and Dendermonde. The treaty was signed by Townshend on the part of England, as Marlborough refused to be a party to it. The arrangements were revised and considerably altered, much to the disadvantage of the Dutch, by a second agreement which was come to in 1713, in which the number of barrier fortresses was greatly curtailed. The treaty was, however, not definitively signed till Nov. 15, 1715. The chief provisions were that the Low Countries were guaranteed to the house of Austria, and were not to be alienated on any conditions whatsoever. The Dutch were to garrison Namur, Tournai, Menin, Furnes, Warneton, Ypres, and Knoque; and Dendermonde was to be garrisoned jointly by Dutch and Austrian troops. The Dutch were very dissatisfied at this curtailment in the number of towns ceded to them, and still more so at the commercial stipulations by which England was put on the same footing with Holland, as regards the commerce of the Belgian towns. But the treaty was altogether a disturbing element in European politics, and an especial source of friction in the relations of England and Austria. It was one of the causes of the alienation of England and Austria previous to the beginning of the Seven Years' War. The Barrier Treaty was annulled by the Treaty of Fontainebleau, 1785. [Utrecht, Treaty of.]

Koch and Schoell, *Histoire des Traités*, ii., ch. 11; Lecky, *Hist. of the Eighteenth Century*; Wyon, *Reign of Q. Anne.*

Barrowists, The, who derived their name from one of their leaders, Henry Barrow, a lawyer, were a sect of Separatists in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, closely allied in their doctrines with the Brownists. Henry Barrow was examined before the Court of High Commission in 1587, for his "schismatical and seditious opinions," and imprisoned, but continued to issue inflammatory pamphlets urging the abolition of episcopacy; he was found guilty of "writing and publishing sundry seditious books and pamphlets tending to the slander of the queen and government, and was executed at Tyburn, April 6, 1593. The Barrowists shared the aversion of the Brownists to legal ministry; and were deemed still more proper subjects for persecution. They refused to hold any communication with the Church on the grounds: First, that the worship of the English Church was idolatrous; second, that unsanctified persons were admitted into the Church; third, that the preachers of the Church of England had no lawful calling; and fourth, that the government was ungodly. For these views many of them were imprisoned, and in 1593, on the passing of the Act making a monthly attendance at church compulsory, a great number of the sect went with the Brownists to Holland, and subsequently founded a new home in America.

J. B. Marsden, *Christian Churches and Sects*; Mosheim, *Ecclesiastical History*; Bogue and Bennett, *Hist. of Dissenters*, i. 175, &c.

Barton, Andrew (*d.* 1511), was a contemporary of Sir Andrew Wood, and one of Scotland's first great naval commanders. In 1497, he was in command of the escort which accompanied Perkin Warbeck when he left Scotland. In 1512, after doing considerable damage to the English shipping, he was killed in an engagement with two ships that had been expressly fitted out against him, and had fallen

in with him in the Downs. His death was one of the grievances which led to the invasion of England by James V., and the battle of Flodden Field.

Barton, Elizabeth (*d.* 1534), better known as the Nun, or Holy Maid of Kent, was the servant of Richard Masters, incumbent of the parish of Aldington in Kent. The awe excited by the moral tone of some of her ravings when under the influence of epilepsy suggested to her master and others the possibility of making her a means of fanning the growing discontent against the king. She was accordingly taught to counterfeit a state of trance, and then to give utterance to prophecies respecting matters declared to be revealed to her by the Holy Ghost. As her words were all in support of the clerical party and against the king's recent legislation, she was regarded with great favour by the clergy generally; she corresponded with Queen Catherine and Charles V., and became in a short time a dangerous power in England. When, however, she boldly declared, among other things, that if Henry divorced Catherine, and married again during her lifetime, he should not be a king a month longer, but die a villain's death, it was thought high time to take particular notice of her madness, and by the king's orders she and her more prominent accomplices were arrested. Having confessed their imposture upon examination in the Star Chamber, Elizabeth Barton and her fellow-conspirators were ordered to read their confession the next Sunday at St. Paul's Cross, immediately after the sermon. The whole matter of the imposture was then brought formally before the Parliament, and Barton and six others were attainted of high treason, and executed May 5, 1534.

Hall, *Chronicle;* Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*, ii. 164, *&c.*; Statute 25 Hen. VIII., c. 12.

Basilicon Doron (The Royal Gift) is the title of a work written by King James I. in 1599, and addressed to his eldest son, Prince Henry. In this work he maintains that the kingly office is ecclesiastical as well as civil, and therefore the king is necessarily head of the Church; and that equality among ministers is inconsistent with monarchy. The tract advocates the establishment of episcopacy, and the banishment of the principal Presbyterian ministers in the country.

The *Basilicon Doron* was printed at Edinburgh in 1603.

Basing House, the seat of the Marquis of Winchester, was one of the Royalist strongholds in the Civil Wars. Standing as it did a short distance from Basingstoke, it commanded one of the principal roads to the West. It was several times attacked by the Parliamentarian forces without success. Finally, after a long and brilliant defence, it was taken by Cromwell, October 16, 1645, and burnt to the ground. "The jubilant Royalists had given it the name of *Basting* House," on account of the difficulty experienced by their opponents before it.

Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion;* Carlyle, *Cromwell.*

Bass Rock, The Fortress of, in the Firth of Forth, was held by some of its Jacobite prisoners, who overpowered their guard, for James II. from 1691 to 1694, when the little garrison, numbering about twenty men, capitulated on honourable terms.

Bassein, The Treaty of (Dec. 31, 1802), was concluded between the English and Bajee Rao, the Peishwa. Its stipulations were that a British force of 6,000 infantry, with a suitable complement of artillery, should be stationed within the Peishwa's dominions; that districts in the Deccan, yielding twenty-six lacs of rupees a year, were to be assigned for their support; that the Peishwa should entertain no Europeans in his service belonging to any nation at war with the English; that he should engage in no hostilities or negotiations without their concurrence, and should refer all his claims on Surat, the Nizam, and the Guicowar, to the arbitration of the Governor-General. The treaty also guaranteed their rights to the southern jaghirdars, feudatories of the Peishwa. [Bajee Rao; Wellesley, Marquis.]

Wellesley, *Despatches;* Mill, *Hist. of India.*

Basset, Philip (*d.* 1271), was a member of the great judicial family which furnished so many judges and ministers to the Angevin kings. In 1233 he joined in the revolt of Richard Marshall, but quickly returned to his allegiance, and was one of Henry's staunchest supporters against the barons. In 1261 he was appointed Justiciar of England, seemingly in conjunction with Hugh le Despenser, and held the office till 1263. He fought most bravely in the battle of Lewes ("Sir Philip Basset, that brave knight, worst was to overcome," says Robert of Gloucester) but was eventually taken prisoner. The king's victory at Evesham released him, but he was not restored to his office, though constantly employed in the royal service till his death.

Bastwick, John (*b.* 1593), a physician, published in a work entitled *Flagellum Pontificis* (1635), attacks which he declared to be directed solely against the Pope and the Roman Catholic clergy, but which were considered by the English bishops to reflect on themselves. For this he was condemned by the High Commission Court to fine and imprisonment. While in prison he wrote two other works, *Apologeticus ad Presules Anglicanos* (1636), and *The New Litany* (1637), in which he accused the bishops of an inclination to Popery. For this he was sentenced, in 1637, to a fine of £5,000, the loss of his ears, the

pillory, and perpetual imprisonment. In 1640 he was released by the Long Parliament, the proceedings against him cancelled, and £5,000 given him in reparation. Bastwick was alive in 1648, but when he died is uncertain. Clarendon speaks of him as "a half-witted, crack-brained fellow, unknown to either university or the College of Physicians, but one that had spent his time abroad between the schools and the camp, and had gotten a doctorship and Latin."

Clarendon, *Hist of the Rebellion*, iii. 58.

Basutoland, the north-eastern province of Cape Colony, with which it was incorporated in 1871, was annexed by Great Britain in 1868. It was placed under the government of Cape Colony, and its local affairs were administered by an agent appointed by the governor at Cape Town and by five magistrates, each presiding over a special district. But the government of the colony found itself constantly in difficulty with the native tribes; negotiations were entered into with the Home Government, and the country is now under the control of the Colonial Office.

Batavia, The Capture of (1811), is chiefly interesting as being the conquest of the last surviving French settlement in the East. In the year 1810 the island of Java had come into the possession of France by the incorporation of the kingdom of Holland with the French empire; and the Indian government was bent upon its reduction. In March, 1811, 10,500 men were sent out under Sir S. Auchmuty, and early in August landed about twelve miles to the east of the town of Batavia. The united French and Dutch troops abandoned Batavia, and took up a position in a very strong camp called Fort Cornelius. On August 8th the outposts were driven in, and the advanced works were occupied by the English. At length it was decided to make a desperate attack on the main fort, as the lateness of the season necessitated speedy action. The attack was delivered from three sides at daybreak on the morning of the 26th. On the right Colonel Gillespie burst in, and pushed the defenders before him until they were met on the other side by the assaulting parties in the centre and left, who, after a stubborn fight, had almost simultaneously overthrown the defenders and burst in. The storming force lost 872 men in killed and wounded. The few troops who escaped from Fort Cornelius, after resisting for a few days, came in; and with them the whole island was surrendered to the British, to be, however, at the close of the war restored to the Dutch.

Alison, *Hist. of Europe*, ix. 684; James, *Naval Hist.*; *Annual Register*, 1811.

Bate's Case (1606). The Levant Company, which had been granted by Elizabeth a monopoly of the trade with Turkey and Venice, had allowed non-members to import currants on payment of 5s. 6d. per cwt. Upon the dissolution of the company in 1603, the government continued the imposition. In 1606 a merchant, John Bate, refused to pay, and the case was brought before the Court of Exchequer, which gave judgment for the crown. It was laid down from the bench that the royal power was double,—*ordinary*, unchangeable without authority of Parliament, and *absolute*, varying according to the king's wisdom; under the absolute power came all matters of commerce, including customs. Relying upon this decision, Cecil published, in 1608, a *Book of Rates* imposing fresh duties on many articles. In 1610 the Commons declared that impositions without consent of Parliament were unconstitutional, and petitioned for their removal; from this time the question constantly recurred in the struggle between Parliament and the crown.

S. R. Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng., 1603—1642*, chap. xi.; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*, chap. vi.

Bath, Order of the, so-called because the recipients of the honour were required to formally bathe the evening before investiture, is generally supposed to have been established by Henry IV. at his coronation in 1399. After that it became the practice of English kings to create Knights of the Bath previous to their coronation, and upon other great occasions. But after the coronation of Charles II. the practice fell into abeyance, till the order was revived by George I. in 1725. It was subsequently remodelled by the Prince Regent in 1815, and at present consists of three classes — Knights Grand Cross, or G.C.B.'s; Knights Commanders, or K.C.B.'s; and Companions, or C.B.'s.

Bath, William Pulteney, Earl of (*b.* 1682, *d.* 1764), was of good family and inherited a large fortune. He entered the House of Commons (1705) and distinguished himself on the Whig side during the last years of Anne's reign, having contracted friendship with Walpole. On the accession of George I., Pulteney became one of the Secretaries of State. In the political language of the day he, Stanhope, and Walpole were known as the three "grand allies." When Walpole's quarrel with Stanhope resulted in his retirement from office, Pulteney followed his patron (1717). When Walpole became supreme in 1721, Pulteney naturally expected a position in the Cabinet. Instead, a peerage was offered him. In disgust he, after some hesitation, joined the Opposition (1725), and in conjunction with Bolingbroke brought out the *Craftsman*, a journal in which Walpole was bitterly attacked. In 1728 he conducted a vigorous assault on Walpole's sinking fund, but without much success; but his speech against Walpole's excise scheme was more successful, and the minister was obliged to withdraw the obnoxious measure.

Pulteney's name had previously been struck off the list of privy councillors. He supported the Prince of Wales in opposition to the king and Walpole. In 1740 he was one of those who seceded from the House—an unwise step which he attempted in vain to excuse. In 1741 he conducted that last grand attack on Walpole's foreign policy which drove him from office. Pulteney, however, declined to form a ministry, and retired into the Upper House as Lord Bath. He gradually sank into insignificance, and his popularity waned. In 1743 his friends succeeded in persuading him to come forward as candidate for the premiership in opposition to Pelham; he failed, however, although supported by the splendid talents of Carteret. In 1746, he and Granville (Carteret) were commissioned by the king to form a ministry. This, the "Forty hours' Ministry," was an egregious failure, and the Pelhams returned to power. Long before his death Pulteney had become altogether forgotten by the political world. His talents were considerable, and his public life was on the whole respectable, and marked by uprightness and integrity; but he was somewhat wanting in steadfastness of purpose and discretion. His parliamentary eloquence appears to have been of a very high order. Besides some poems which were highly praised by Pope, Pulteney was the author of several vigorous political pamphlets.

Coxe, *Memoirs of Walpole*; H. Walpole, *George II.*, and *Catalogue of Royal and Noble Authors.* [L. C. S.]

Bathurst, Allen, 1st Earl (*b.* 1684, *d.* 1775), entered Trinity College, Oxford, in 1699. He was returned for the borough of Cirencester in 1705, and was created a baron in 1711. In 1723, at the attainder of Atterbury, he bitterly taunted the bishops for their animosity against their brother. As a Tory politician, he supported the claim of Bolingbroke to be restored to his seat in the House of Lords. During Walpole's administration he was an active member of the opposition. From 1757 to 1760 he was Treasurer to George, Prince of Wales, and in 1762 was created Earl Bathurst. A somewhat acrimonious politician, his speeches were marked by caustic wit and brilliancy of metaphor.

Bathurst, Henry, 2nd Earl (*b.* 1714, *d.* 1794), the son of Allen, first earl, entered Parliament for Cirencester in 1736. He was a steady opponent of Sir Robert Walpole, and in 1745 was made Solicitor-General to the Prince of Wales by the Leicester House party. On the death of the prince, he took steps to conciliate the court, and was rewarded in 1754 by a puisne judgeship. On the death of Charles Yorke in 1770, he was appointed one of the three Commissioners to hold the Great Seal. "No one of the three," says Lord Campbell, "had any confidence in himself or in his colleagues. And after the learned trio had gone on for a twelvemonth floundering and blundering, the public dissatisfaction was so loud that some change was considered necessary." The change made was the appointment of Lord Bathurst to the Woolsack. Left to himself, he got on better than he had done with his two colleagues, and relied with such modesty on the help of better men that he made few mistakes. In 1778 he resigned the Great Seal into the hands of Lord Thurlow, and became President of the Council, which office he held till Lord North's resignation. His last years he spent in retirement in the country. He has been justly called "one of the weakest, though one of the worthiest of our Chancellors."

Campbell, *Lives of the Chancellors*; Foss, *Judges of England.*

Bathurst, Henry, 3rd Earl (*b.* 1762, *d.* 1834), was the son of the second Earl Bathurst. In 1804 he was appointed Master Worker of the Mint. In 1807 he became President of the Board of Trade. In 1809 he was Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs which he held only from Oct. 11 to Dec. 6. On June 11, 1812, he was appointed Secretary of State for the Colonies, and discharged the duties of the office for nearly sixteen years. In 1828 he was appointed President of the Council, which office he retained till the resignation of the Wellington administration in 1831.

Bats, The Parliament of (1426), was the name given to the Parliament which assembled in this year when the quarrel between the Duke of Gloucester and Cardinal Beaufort was at its height. It received its name from the bats or bludgeons carried by the hostile and excited partisans of the rival statesmen.

Battle Abbey was founded by William the Conqueror on the site of the battle of Hastings, the high altar standing, it is said, on the very spot where Harold planted his banner. It was not consecrated till 1094. The abbey, which was dedicated to St. Martin, and filled with Benedictine monks from Marmoutier in Normandy, was richly endowed by the Conqueror, and enjoyed many privileges, including that of sanctuary. The abbot was mitred and was a peer of Parliament. At the dissolution of the monasteries in Henry VIII.'s reign, the income of the abbey was estimated at £880 14s. 7½d. The buildings of the abbey, which are partly in ruins, and have been partly converted into a dwelling-house, show that the structure must anciently have been of great extent and magnificence. The Roll of Battle Abbey, which was lodged in the keeping of the abbot, contained a list of all those who fought on the Norman side in the battle of Hastings. The catalogue was, however, much tampered with by the monks in later times.

and is of comparatively little value as an authority. A remnant of the exceptional position of Battle Abbey is to be found in the fact that the incumbent of the parish is still included among the Deans of Peculiars, though he does not appear to have any special duties.

Camden, *Britannia*; Dugdale, *Monasticon*; Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, iv. 406. An account of two manuscript Chronicles of Battle, apparently of small value, is given by Hardy, *Descriptive Catalogue*, iii. 23, 163.

Baxter, Richard (*b.* 1615, *d.* 1691), a celebrated Nonconformist divine, was in earlier life a clergyman of the Church of England, and in 1640 was presented to the living of Kidderminster. During the Civil War he was chaplain to Whalley's regiment, and in this capacity was present at the sieges of Bridgewater, Exeter, Bristol, and Worcester. He was a very moderate supporter of the Presbyterian church polity, and in temporal matters an adherent of limited monarchy; so that he was a strong opponent of Cromwell during the later years of the Protector's life. At the Restoration Baxter was appointed one of the royal chaplains, and took a leading part in the Savoy conference. He was even offered the bishopric of Hereford, which he refused. In 1662, however, on the passing of the Act of Uniformity, Baxter quitted the Church and remained for some years in retirement. In 1672 he settled in London, and lectured at several Dissenting places of worship. Subsequently, however, he was much harassed by legal proceedings under the Conventicle Act, and in 1685 was brought before Jeffreys, who, treating him with his usual brutality, sentenced him to eighteen months' imprisonment, and fined him 500 marks. Baxter was an extraordinarily prolific writer of polemics and works on divinity, and is said to have composed over 160 treatises. Some of them, *e.g.*, *The Saints' Everlasting Rest*, and *Reasons for the Christian Religion*, are still widely popular.

Baxter's *Practical Works*, with *Life* by W. Orme, Lond., 1830 (23 vols.); Tulloch, *English Puritanism and its Leaders;* Baxter's *Narrative of the Most Memorable Passages of his Life and Times* (1696); Sir J. Stephen, *Essays in Ecclesiastical Biography.*

Bayeux Tapestry, The, was in all probability the idea, and possibly, in great measure, the handiwork, of Matilda, wife of William the Conqueror. It is a long narrow strip of tapestry or needle-work representing, in a number of pictures worked in woollen thread, the battle of Hastings and the events which led to it. It is twenty inches wide and two hundred and fourteen feet long; and is divided into seventy-two compartments, with Latin superscriptions indicating the objects represented. The Tapestry is an authority of the utmost value for the period with which it deals. It was presented by Matilda to the cathedral of Bayeux, of which see her brother-in-law Odo was bishop, and it is to be seen at the present day in the Library Museum at Bayeux.

The Bayeux Tapestry has been reproduced in engravings by Stothard, folio, 1747, and in photographs by J. Comte, 4to, 1879. It has also been engraved by the Antiquarian Society, with elucidations by G. C. Bruce, 1855. For an exhaustive and valuable discussion of the character, origin, &c., of the Tapestry, see Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, iii. 553 seq.

Beachy Head, The Battle of (June 30, 1690), fought during the war of the Austrian Succession between the English and Dutch on the one side and the French on the other, terminated in a victory for the latter. Lord Torrington, who commanded the combined English and Dutch fleet, had abandoned the Isle of Wight to the French, under Tourville, and retreated up the Channel, when peremptory orders from the Privy Council to engage the enemy were sent him. Accordingly, when the enemy were sighted, he bore down upon them, placing the Dutch ships in the van. He had less than sixty sail of the line, and the French had eighty. But his ships were superior in equipment and crews to those of the enemy. The Dutch, under Evertsen, fought bravely for several hours, receiving very little assistance from the rest of the fleet, and they finally drew off in a shattered condition. Torrington thereupon sought refuge in the Thames. His conduct and motives on this occasion were loudly condemned, and the action was looked upon as a highly disgraceful one for England. The only use Tourville made of his victory was to burn Teignmouth. [Torrington, Viscount.]

Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*, iii. 608.

Beacons, or signal-fires on the coast and on conspicuous positions in the inland country, intended to give notice of the approach of an enemy or of other danger, have been used from an early period in England. According to Stow, beacons were set up by Edward II. when the landing of Mortimer and Queen Isabella was expected. They were regularly used at stated places along the line of the Borders, to give warning of raids of the Scots. Lord Coke says that regular beacons, "pitch-boxes as they now be," were established only after the reign of Edward III. Inland beacons were erected by the sheriffs at the expense of the country; beacons on the coast were originally under the superintendence of the Lord High Admiral, and subsequently, by 8 Eliz., chap. 13, transferred to the corporation of Trinity House.

Beaconsfield, Benjamin Disraeli, Earl of (*b.* 1804, *d.* 1881), was the eldest son of Isaac Disraeli, the author of the *Curiosities of Literature.* He was first destined for the law, but he soon turned to literature. In 1827 he published his first novel, *Vivian Grey*, and subsequently travelled on the Continent and in the East for some years In the year 1832 he appeared as the Radical

candidate for High Wycombe. His opinions were gradually changing, and in 1836 he published a series called *The Letters of Runnymede*, which was a violent attack on the Liberal party. In 1837 he was returned as Conservative member for Maidstone. His first speech in the House was a conspicuous failure; it concluded with the well-known words: "I have begun several times many things, and I have often succeeded at last. I shall sit down now; but the time will come when you will hear me." During the first years of his parliamentary career he was a supporter of Sir Robert Peel; but when Peel pledged himself to abolish the Corn Laws in 1845 Mr. Disraeli turned towards the Protectionists, and at once became their leader. In December, 1852, Lord John Russell resigned, and Lord Derby entered office with Mr. Disraeli as Chancellor of the Exchequer. In 1858 he returned to office and brought in a Reform Bill, which, however, did not meet with much support. The Liberals again returned to office, and for ten years longer Mr. Disraeli led the opposition, and severely criticised Lord Palmerston's foreign policy. In 1867 the Liberals once more resigned, and Lord Derby and Mr. Disraeli came into power. They immediately brought in and carried a Reform Bill on the basis of household suffrage, which was carried after a violent and bitter struggle. In Feb., 1868, Lord Derby retired and Mr. Disraeli became Prime Minister. His tenure of office was, however, very short. Mr. Gladstone carried his Irish Church Resolutions against the government, and in the general election which followed the Conservatives were completely beaten. Mr. Disraeli declined to take office in 1872, but in 1874 Mr. Gladstone dissolved, and when a general election returned the Conservatives with a majority of fifty, Mr. Disraeli became Prime Minister, holding office for six years. Several measures of domestic legislation were passed during this period, including a Factory Act (1878), an Artisans' Dwellings Act, and the Agricultural Holdings Act. In March, 1876, public indignation in England was violently excited by the reports of atrocious cruelties practised by the Turks on the Bulgarian Christians; and the support given by the government to the Porte was made the text for vigorous attacks by some of the leading Liberal statesmen. In Aug., 1876, Mr. Disraeli was raised to the peerage by the title of Earl of Beaconsfield. Throughout 1876 and 1877, the Prime Minister, in spite of much opposition in the country, and the withdrawal of two of his own colleagues, Lord Derby and Lord Carnarvon, continued to maintain a guarded and even hostile attitude towards Russia; and when the Russians seemed about to enter Constantinople, the British fleet was ordered to the Dardanelles, and an Indian contingent was brought to Malta. When a treaty was concluded between the belligerents at San Stefano, Lord Beaconsfield insisted that the document should be submitted to the great powers. A general congress at Berlin followed, which Lord Beaconsfield himself attended as one of the representatives of England, and in the summer of 1878 the Eastern Question was temporarily set at rest by the Treaty of Berlin (q.v.). In the general election of 1880, the Liberals were victorious by an enormous majority, and Beaconsfield resigned. In the early weeks of 1881 he was prostrated by a complication of maladies, and succumbed, after a severe struggle, on April 19th. He was buried at Hughenden, in Buckinghamshire, and a memorial was voted to him in Westminster Abbey by Parliament. Lord Beaconsfield was the author of a poem, *The Revolutionary Epic*, a *Life of Lord George Bentinck*, several political pamphlets, and a number of novels, in which many of his ideas and theories on politics may be traced. The best known of these brilliant political romances are *Sybil*, *Coningsby*, *Tancred*, and *Endymion*, which last was published within a few months of the writer's death.

G. Brandes, *Charakterbild*; Cucheval-Clarigny, *Lord Beaconsfield et son Temps*; T. P. O'Connor, *Life*; Clayden, *England under Lord Beaconsfield*; Beaconsfield's *Speeches and Letters*.

Beadle, or BEDELL (Old-Eng. *bydel*, from Anglo-Saxon, *beodan*, to bid), properly means the apparitor of a court who summoned persons to appear in answer to charges brought against them. Bedells seem before the Conquest to have occupied a position on the jurisdictions of the liberties, and lands held in sac and soc, corresponding to that of under-bailiff. The estate of Leominster had, according to Domesday Book, eight *proposití*, or reeves, and eight *bedelli*. Their privileges were, to have a little land of their own, and to be exempt from manual labour. The *king's bedells* were personages of considerable importance, and are mentioned in the lists of tenants-in-chief in Bedfordshire. After the Conquest the office sank in importance, and the bedells appear as criers in the manor courts, and in Shakespeare's time as petty village functionaries; in the forest courts they made proclamations and executed processes; while rural deans employed bedells to cite clergy to visitations, whence came the present parochial beadles. At Oxford University there is one esquire bedell and three yeomen bedells, each attached to the faculties of law, medicine, and arts; they are elected in convocation, and can be forced, if necessary, to resign at the end of the year. Their duty consists chiefly in bearing the maces before the Chancellor and Vice-Chancellor. At Cambridge, where there are three esquire bedells and one yeoman bedell, they are supposed to attend professors as well.

Ellis, *Introduction to Domesday*; *Statuta Univ. Oxoniensis*.

Beaton, DAVID, CARDINAL (*b.* 1494, *d.* 1546), the son of James Beaton, of Balfour, was educated at the University of Paris, where he became intimate with the Duke of Albany, and in 1519 was appointed ambassador from Scotland to the French Court. He was employed in various negotiations at Paris and Rome, in which he acquitted himself so well that he was made a cardinal by Paul III. in 1538. On the death of his uncle, Archbishop James Beaton, in 1539, he succeeded him as Archbishop of St. Andrews, in which capacity he showed much zeal in the persecution of the Protestants. Three years later, on the death of James V., he endeavoured to get possession of the infant Queen of Scots, and to obtain the regency by means of a forged will, but failed, and was for a time imprisoned. On his release he became Chancellor of Scotland in 1546, and distinguished himself by his zeal in bringing to the stake those Protestants on whom he could lay hands. His cruelty towards the members of the Reformed party, together with his French and Italian sympathies, caused the cardinal to be bitterly hated by the Reformers. A plot (to which Henry VIII. and the English Privy Council were probably parties) was concocted for his assassination. On May 29, 1546, his castle of St. Andrews was seized by Norman Leslie, the Master of Rothes, with Kirkaldy of Grange, and others, and he was murdered. His character is thus stated in the *Iconographia Scotica*:—"The cardinal was by nature of immoderate ambition; by long experience he had acquired address and refinement, and insolence grew upon him from continual success. His high station in the Church placed him in the way of great employments; his abilities were equal to the greatest of these, nor did he reckon any of them to be above his merit. . . . . He was one of the worst of men—a proud, cruel, unrelenting, and licentious tyrant."

Iconographia Scotica; Tytler, *Original Letters*; Knox, *History*; *Pitscottie Chron.*, i. 488; Cook, *Hist. of the Reformation in Scotland*; T. H. Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*.

Beaton, JAMES (*d.* 1539), was made High Treasurer of Scotland, 1505; in 1509 he was appointed to the archbishopric of Glasgow, and in 1523 was translated to St. Andrews. He took part in the fray of "Cleanse the Causeway" (1520) between the Douglas and Hamilton factions, and subsequently became an object of intense interest to English politicians, who sought to win him over to an English alliance. He is said to have been "very crafty and subtle," and he certainly managed to evade Wolsey's elaborate plans for getting possession of his person. At last, in a rash moment, the archbishop quitted the castle of St. Andrews, and was seized and imprisoned for a short time. He finally became an ally of England and a great friend of Wolsey. As Chancellor of Scotland, he granted Queen Margaret a divorce from her husband, the Earl of Angus, though she found it necessary to obtain a papal dispensation as well.

Beaton, JAMES, a nephew of Cardinal Beaton, obtained the archbishopric of Glasgow, 1552. He was secretary to Mary Queen of Scots, in whose behalf he pressed on an alliance with Spain, 1565. In later years he became Mary's ambassador in France, where he unsuccessfully attempted to obtain aid for her.

Beauchamp, THE FAMILY OF, was founded in England at the Norman Conquest by Hugh de Bello Campo or Beauchamp. The earldom of Warwick was conveyed to the family by Isabella, sister and heiress of William de Mauduit. She married William de Beauchamp, Baron of Elmsley (*d.* 1268), the seventh representative of the family from Hugh. Their son William was first Earl of Warwick, and Guy, the second earl, is known to history as "The Black Dog of Arden." Richard, the fifth earl, married the widow of his uncle, Richard Beauchamp, Earl of Worcester, and their son Henry was created Premier Earl of England and Duke of Warwick; but he died without male issue in 1445, so that the dukedom and the male line of this branch of Beauchamps expired. But his other honours passed to his daughter Anne, and on her death at the age of six they reverted to her aunt Anne, who married the great King-maker, Richard Neville, Earl of Salisbury, subsequently created Earl of Warwick. [NEVILLE.] On the death of her daughters, Anne's inheritance was restored to her, and by her transferred to King Henry VII. The present Earl Beauchamp is descended from the second son of William de Beauchamp, Baron of Elmsley, in the female line. The peerage was created in 1815.

Beaufort, THE FAMILY OF, was descended from John of Gaunt and Catherine, widow of Sir Hugh Swynford. He married her in 1396, but all their children were born before this marriage. These children were four in number: John, created Earl of Somerset and Marquis of Dorset; Henry, afterwards Bishop of Winchester and cardinal; Thomas, Chancellor and Duke of Exeter; and Joan, married to Ralph Neville, Earl of Westmoreland. The name of Beaufort which they bore was derived from a castle belonging to the Duke of Lancaster in Anjou. They were all legitimated by a statute passed in 1397, by royal letters patent and a papal decree. The letters patent were confirmed by Henry IV., who, however, introduced a restrictive clause "excepta dignitate regali," which now appears as an interlineation in the patent roll of 20 Richard II. From John Beaufort, Earl of Somerset, was descended Margaret, the mother of Henry VII., and thus arose the Tudor claim to the throne. [TUDOR.] Charles Somerset, the illegitimate

son of Henry, third Duke of Somerset, was created Earl of Worcester by Henry VIII. The fifth earl, a distinguished partisan of Charles I., was created Marquis of Worcester in 1642. His grandson, the third marquis, was created Duke of Beaufort in 1682.

Beaufort, Henry, Cardinal (*b.* 1377, *d.* 1447), was the natural son of John of Gaunt by Catherine Swynford. In 1398 he was made Bishop of Lincoln, and in 1405 translated to Winchester. In 1403 he was appointed Chancellor, but resigned the Great Seal on his appointment to Winchester. During the latter part of Henry IV.'s reign, Beaufort sided with the Prince of Wales, and was accused, apparently not altogether without reason, of urging him to compel his father to abdicate in his favour. On Henry V.'s accession he once more received the Great Seal, which he retained till 1417, when he proceeded to Constance to attend the Council which was endeavouring to heal the great schism in the Church. Beaufort exerted his influence to induce the Council to elect a Pope before proceeding with the reformation of the Church. In gratitude for his assistance, the new Pope, Martin V., offered him a cardinal's hat, which, however, the king refused to allow him to accept. On the accession of Henry VI., Beaufort was appointed one of the members of the Council of Regency, and, in 1424, was for the third time invested with the office of Chancellor, which he held till 1426. Throughout the whole of Henry VI.'s minority, Beaufort's great aim was to counteract the dangerous influence of Gloucester, whose selfish schemes both at home and abroad threatened the greatest danger to the State. The first great quarrel between the rivals took place in 1425, when riots occurred in London, and things wore such a serious aspect that Bedford had to return from France and effect a reconciliation. In 1426 Beaufort committed the great mistake of his life in accepting the cardinal's hat; it laid him open to suspicion, and caused him to be regarded with distrust by many who had previously sided with him. In 1427 he led a futile crusade against the Hussites in Bohemia, and in 1429 he preached a crusade with the same object in England, got together troops, but took them to the assistance of the English in France instead of to Bohemia. From 1430 to 1434 Beaufort was for the most part abroad, and the next six years of his life were chiefly occupied in labouring for peace with France, Gloucester being the leader of the war party. One result of his efforts was the assembly of the Congress of Arras, which, however, failed to effect anything. In 1440 he attempted to accomplish the same object by the release of the Duke of Orleans, who had been a prisoner since the battle of Agincourt, on the understanding that he should do his best to bring about a treaty. This was one of Beaufort's last public acts; he gradually retired from political life, and employed his last years in the affairs of his diocese. In 1444 he had the satisfaction of seeing a truce made between England and France, and thus his policy was at last successful. He died peacefully very shortly after his great rival, Gloucester, and the legends which make him the murderer of the "Good Duke Humphrey," and paint the agonies of his death-bed, are unsubstantiated by the smallest particle of evidence. He had been for many years, certainly since the death of Bedford, the mainstay of the house of Lancaster. "It must be remembered in favour of Beaufort," says Dr. Stubbs, "that he guided the helm of State during a period in which the English nation tried first the great experiment of self-government with any approach to success; that he was merciful in his political enmities, enlightened in his foreign policy; that he was devotedly faithful and ready to sacrifice his wealth and labour for the king; that from the moment of his death everything began to go wrong, till all was lost."

The Chronicles of Monstrelet, Whethamstede, Hardyng, and the Continuator of the Croyland Chron.; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, vol. iii.; M. Creighton, *History of the Papacy*, &c. [F. S. P.]

Beaufort, Margaret (*d.* 1509), was the daughter of John Beaufort, Duke of Somerset, and great granddaughter of John of Gaunt by Catherine Swynford. Left by the death of her father in the guardianship of William de la Pole, Duke of Suffolk, she was married by him to his son John at the early age of nine years. Suffolk, however, was soon afterwards attainted and murdered at sea, and Margaret's marriage with John de la Pole was, as a consequence, pronounced a nullity. In 1455, when barely fifteen years of age, Margaret Beaufort married Edmund Tudor, Earl of Richmond, eldest son of Sir Owen Tudor, a Welsh knight, by Katherine of France, widow of King Henry V. This husband died in 1456, before her son Henry, afterwards Henry VII., was born, and she then, in 1459, married Sir Henry Stafford, a younger son of the Duke of Buckingham. In 1481 Margaret was once more a widow, and in the following year, 1482, she married for the third and last time, her husband being Thomas, second Lord Stanley. By the Yorkist princes Margaret Beaufort appears to have been treated with an unusual degree of leniency, considering the prominent position she occupied among the Lancastrians in virtue of her son. Her wealth, which was great, was simply transferred, by Richard III., from her own direction to that of her husband, Lord Stanley, whose control over its disposal appears to have been merely nominal. She was the foundress of St. John's College, Cambridge, and gave many

other benefactions to the two universities, and to many religious houses. The Lady Margaret Beaufort is the reputed author of *The Mirroure of Golde to the Soul*, adapted from a French translation of the *Speculum Aureum Peccatorum*, and printed by Wynkin de Worde; and of a translation of the *Imitation of Christ* attributed to Gerson.

H. Walpole, *Catalogue of Royal and Noble Authors.*

Beaugé, The Battle of (1421), was fought between the English, under the Duke of Clarence, brother of Henry V., and a combined force of French and Scots, under the Dauphin and the Earl of Buchan. The English were completely routed, and Clarence was slain. The effect of this battle in strengthening the Dauphin's party in France was very great, and Henry had to undertake another expedition to France to restore the prestige of the English.

Beaulieu Abbey, a famous abbey and sanctuary in Hampshire, was founded by King John for Cistercian monks in 1204. There Anne Neville, widow of the King-maker, took refuge after her husband's defeat and death at Barnet in 1471; and to Beaulieu it was that Perkin Warbeck fled in 1497, after the failure of his attempts to seize the crown.

Beaumont, The Families of. (1) Turolf, descendant of one of Rollo's comrades, married the sister of Gunnor, wife of Duke Richard the Fearless of Normandy. From this marriage descended Robert de Bellomonte, or Beaumont, who inherited the county of Meulan, in Normandy, from his mother, and, following the Conqueror into England, obtained there ninety-one manors. In reward for the support he gave to Henry I., he received the earldom of Leicester. His eldest son Waleran succeeded to the county of Meulan; his second son Robert to the English earldom. With the death of the fourth earl, Robert, without issue, 1204, the earldom expired. Simon de Montfort, afterwards leader of the crusade against the Albigenses, having married Amicia, eldest sister of the last earl, received a grant of the earldom from John. (2) Henry de Beaumont, styled in 1307 "consanguineus regis," and possibly a descendant of a natural daughter of Henry I., was summoned to Parliament in 1309 as a baron. His descendant, John Beaumont, sixth baron, was created viscount 1440, being the first of that dignity in England. His son, a partisan of the house of Lancaster, was attainted 1461, and his estates conferred on Lord Hastings. In 1485 he was restored in blood and honour, but on his death without male heir the viscounty became extinct. In 1840 the abeyance of the barony was terminated in favour of Miles Stapleton, a descendant of the last viscount's sister.

Beaumont, Henry de (*d.* 1340), was the son of Louis of Brienne, and grandson of John of Brienne, King of Jerusalem. He was employed by Edward I. in Scotland, and became one of Edward II.'s favourite advisers. In 1311 the Ordainers demanded his banishment, but this does not seem to have been carried out, as we find him subsequently enjoying the royal favour. He deserted Edward in 1326, and joined Isabella and Mortimer, who confirmed him in his possessions, and gave him some of the confiscated lands of the Despensers.

Becket, St. Thomas, Archbishop of Canterbury (*b.* 1118, *d.* 1170), was the son of Gilbert Becket, a native of Rouen, a merchant, and at one time port-reeve of London. His mother was a native of Caen. Thomas was put to school—first at Merton Priory, and then in London. He was trained in knightly exercises in the household of Richard de L'Aigle at Pevensey, and grew tall and strong. His father lost money, and Thomas became a clerk in the office of Osbern Eightpenny, his kinsman, and there gained a good insight into business. He was introduced into the household of Archbishop Theobald, and took minor orders. As Theobald introduced the teaching of canonical jurisprudence into England, Thomas, who soon became his favourite, devoted himself to that study. He went to Bologna, where Gratian was lecturing, and stayed there a year, and then went to Auxerre. On his return Theobald employed him in some important negotiations. In 1152 he prevailed on Pope Eugenius to forbid the coronation of Eustace, and thus paved the way for the success of Henry of Anjou. The archbishop richly rewarded Becket's services. He was made rector of St. Mary-le-Strand and of Otford in Kent, and prebendary of St. Paul's and Lincoln; in 1154 Archdeacon of Canterbury and Provost of Beverley. When Henry succeeded to the throne he made Thomas his Chancellor. The early years of the reign must have been full of work for the new Chancellor. Thomas was zealous for his master. When Henry levied scutage on Church lands the Chancellor approved the step, while his old patron Theobald opposed it. The scant regard which he had for ecclesiastical pretensions is proved by the part which he took in the suit between the Bishop of Chichester and the Abbot of Battle (*Chron. de Bello*, pp. 88—104). Much of the time of the Chancellor was taken up with hearing causes, and he visited some counties as an itinerant justice. His style of living was splendid, and many young nobles were educated in his household, among whom was the king's eldest son, Henry. This splendour was remarkably displayed in his embassy to Louis VII., in 1158, to arrange the marriage of the young Henry. In the expedition to Toulouse the next year, he fitted out and maintained a large force at his own expense, and, clad in armour, led his troops in person, and distinguished himself in the field.

In 1161 Henry was anxious to make his Chancellor archbishop. Thomas was unwilling to accept the office, and told the king that it would cost him the royal favour. The next year he was elected by the monks of Christ Church and by the suffragan bishops and clergy of Canterbury. He was ordained priest, and the following day received consecration. From that time the life of Thomas was changed. Till then his sympathies and efforts had been wholly for the king; henceforward they were devoted to the Church. The man remained the same—impulsive, vigorous, obstinate, and sensitive. He was not such as would serve two masters, and soon resigned the Chancellorship. He made some devoted friends, and already had many enemies. Gilbert Foliot, Bishop of London, a strict ecclesiastic, disliked the appointment of one who had led so secular a life, and this feeling was probably shared by many. In reclaiming the property of his see, Thomas made other enemies, and seems to have acted with impolitic violence. In 1163 he attended the Council of Tours, and came back filled with thoughts of the power of the Church. He soon increased the feeling of distrust awakened in the king's mind by the resignation of the Chancellorship, for he excommunicated one of the tenants of the crown, contrary to the rule laid down by the Conqueror. He also opposed a change which the king wished to make with reference to the assessment of a tax, which Dr. Stubbs has thought (*Const. Hist.*, i. 462) to have probably been the Danegeld, and high words passed between the king and the archbishop. The same year (1163), in a Council at Westminster, Henry proposed his plan of bringing criminal clerks under the jurisdiction of the lay courts. Though this change was necessary for the welfare of the state, it was naturally offensive to churchmen. Thomas was not alone in objecting to it; he was alone in daring to withstand it. Henry complained of the exactions of the ecclesiastical courts, and demanded whether the bishops could agree to the customs of his grandfather. By the advice of the archbishop they answered that they would do so "saving their order." This answer enraged the king, and Thomas was called on to surrender the honours of Eye and Berkhampstead. In Jan., 1164, at a Council at Clarendon, the famous Constitutions were brought forward which purported to be declaratory of the ancient customs of the kingdom. These Constitutions, by bringing the clergy under secular jurisdiction, by their settlement of the election and status of bishops, by taking away the right of free appeal to Rome, and by other provisions, tended to destroy all clerical immunities. Thomas was persuaded to consent to them. After he had done so he repented, withdrew his consent, and begged the Pope to pardon him for his weakness. In October the same year the archbishop was cited to a council at Northampton. He was not summoned personally, as was his right, but through the sheriff of Kent, to answer a plaint made against him by John the Marshal. At this council a violent attack was made upon him, and he was commanded to render an account of his chancellorship, though he had received an acquittance on his resignation. The bishops did not stand by him. Some, like the Archbishop of York and the Bishops of London and Chichester, were his enemies; others were afraid of the king. The archbishop saw that the king was determined to crush him. He fled, took ship, and, landing near Gravelines, found shelter in the Abbey of St. Bertin. Flanders was, however, no safe place of refuge. Louis, glad of an opportunity of embarrassing Henry, welcomed the archbishop to France. Alexander III. was at Sens, having been forced to leave Italy by the Emperor Frederic. His fear of turning Henry wholly to the side of the Emperor made the Pope half-hearted and vacillating in his support of the archbishop, and he commanded him to take no steps against the king for awhile. Henry confiscated the revenues of the see, and banished all the kindred of the archbishop. His violent measures were carried out with great brutality by Ranulf de Broc. Thomas found shelter in the Cistercian Abbey of Pontigny. There he led a life of ascetic severity, and gave himself to the study of the Canon Law, which must have strengthened his resolution to defend the rights of the clergy. In 1166 Alexander was able to return to Rome. Freed from the papal prohibition, the archbishop at Vezelay solemnly excommunicated his most violent enemies, and, with a voice broken with emotion, declared that, unless the king repented, he would excommunicate him also. In return Henry, by threatening the Cistercians, compelled them to cause the archbishop to leave Pontigny. He took shelter at Sens. The Pope was still in danger from Frederic, and disapproved the Vezelay excommunications. In 1167 he thwarted the archbishop by sending legates to Henry, and thus suspending his legative power. The destruction of Frederic's army by pestilence did not enable the Pope to act more firmly, for he was forced to remain in exile. In 1169 a meeting took place between Henry and the archbishop at Montmirail in the presence of Louis. The archbishop refused to submit to the judgment of the two kings, except with the condition "saving the honour of God," and no good was done. The same year another meeting took place at Montmartre, and ended in failure, for Henry refused the archbishop the kiss of peace. Alexander was anxious to end the quarrel. He was annoyed by the violence of the archbishop, and excited his indignation by absolving the Bishops of London and Salisbury whom Thomas had excommunicated. Henry, in 1170, caused his

eldest son to be crowned by the Archbishop of York. This was a violation of the rights of Canterbury, and Thomas threatened to lay the kingdom under an interdict, which he now had power from the Pope to pronounce. Louis was enraged with Henry, and formed a combination against him. [Henry II.] A reconciliation was effected at Freteval, July 21. Even after this the king and the archbishop were on anything but friendly terms. The king complained because Thomas delayed his return to England, for he was anxious to get him out of France. The archbishop complained of the injuries done to his see. Henry still put off the kiss of peace. The archbishop landed in England Dec. 1, and was greeted with delight by the people. A morbid desire for martyrdom had taken hold of his mind. He came back with no intention of living in peace with his enemies; he would withstand them to the end, and lay down his life for the cause of the Church. He sent before him papal letters suspending and excommunicating the bishops who had taken part in the coronation. He went to London to see his former pupil, Prince Henry, and all the city was moved with joy at his coming. Young Henry refused to see him, and bade him return to his see. His enemies, and especially the family of De Broc, annoyed him in every way in their power; and, on Christmas Day, he uttered a violent anathema against them. When the king heard of the excommunication of the bishops he spoke the well-known hasty words of anger against the archbishop. Four of his knights, Hugh de Morville, Reginald FitzUrse, William de Tracy, and Richard Brito, acted on these words. They crossed to England, took with them Ranulf de Broc and a band of men, and murdered the archbishop in Canterbury Cathedral, Dec. 29, 1170. The Archbishop was canonised 1173, and his festival was appointed for the day of his martyrdom. The impression that the martyrdom made on the popular mind was very deep, and for three centuries after his death his shrine was the favourite place of pilgrimage for Englishmen.

The contemporary Lives; in verse, Garnier, *Vie de Saint Thomas*, ed. Hippeau; in prose, William FitzStephen, Herbert of Bosham, Edward Grim, Roger of Pontigny, and John of Salisbury. Dr. Giles's imperfect edition of the Letters of St. Thomas, of John of Salisbury, and others, in *Patres Eccles. Anglic.*, has now been superseded by *Materials for the History of Archbishop Thomas Becket*, ed. Canon Robertson (Rolls Series). See also *Becket: a Biography*, by Canon Robertson; and *Saint Thomas of Canterbury*, in Freeman, *Historical Essays*, 1st Series.

[W. H.]

Beckford, Alderman (*b.* 1709, *d.* 1770), was an extremely wealthy merchant, owning large estates in the West Indies. Going through the regular steps of municipal dignity, he became an alderman, and was also returned to Parliament for the City of London. Both in Parliament and in the Common Council he was a firm and enthusiastic supporter of Lord Chatham. In 1768 Beckford became Lord Mayor, and in the following year he was re-elected—an almost unprecedented honour. With the City authorities the government was very unpopular, nor had it a fiercer opponent than the Lord Mayor. A petition from the Corporation of London to the king had been treated as unconstitutional and unworthy of an answer. A remonstrance was next sent, to which the king replied with a dignified rebuke. Nevertheless, Beckford, on May 23rd, laid another remonstrance before the king, and, when the king had expressed his annoyance and displeasure, proceeded to argue with him. "The insolence of Beckford," says an eye-witness, "exceeded all his or the City's past exploits." Within a month he was dead of a fever, which common report said was caused by the excitement of his interview with the king. Beckford's enormous wealth descended to his son William, the eccentric author of *Vathek*.

Bedchamber Question, The (1839—1841). On the resignation of Lord Melbourne in 1839, Sir Robert Peel was summoned to form a ministry. On his mentioning incidentally to the Queen the changes which he thought it necessary to make in the royal household, he received a letter from her Majesty saying that the removal of the ladies of her bedchamber would be repugnant to her feelings. Finding that Sir Robert would not give way on this point, the Queen summoned Lord Melbourne to her aid. Lord Morpeth's sister and Lady Normanby were the two ladies to whom Peel specially objected. The desire to support the Queen induced the Whig statesmen, in spite of their previous humiliations, to return to their posts. In 1841, on the downfall of the Whig ministry, the question arose again. The Prince Consort, however, arranged that three great Whig ladies should resign the situations which they held in the Household of their own accord. This prudent compromise settled the difficulty, and saved the assertion of Peel's principle.

Hansard, *Debates*, 3rd series, xlvii. 979, &c.; Spencer Walpole, *Hist. of Eng. from 1815*.

Bede (Bæda) (*b.* 673, *d.* 735) was born probably at Jarrow, in the territory of the abbey of Wearmouth, founded by Benedict Biscop. By this learned man Bede was educated, and eventually entered the monastery of Jarrow, an offshoot of the Wearmouth foundation. Here Bede spent the remainder of his life, dividing all the time not engrossed by religious teaching between learning and teaching. He was a very prolific author, as is sufficiently proved by the long list of his writings which he appended in his fifty-ninth year to his *Ecclesiastical History*, and even on his death-bed he was busy with literary labour. His great

work is the *Historia Ecclesiastica Gentis Anglorum*, on which his fame rests. It is divided into five books. The first twenty-two chapters of the first book form only an introduction, wherein, after a short description of Britain and its ancient inhabitants, we have the history of the country, reaching from Julius Cæsar to the introduction of Christianity among the Angles by Gregory's missionaries. From this point only (chap. 25) begins the independent research of Bede. The Church history of the English is then carried down in this book to the death of Gregory the Great (604). The second book begins with a long obituary of this Pope, so important for the English Church, and ends with the death of Edwin, King of Northumbria (633). The third book reaches to 635. Here begins the fourth book, extending to the death of Cuthbert (687), the famous saint already twice celebrated by Bede himself. The last book (to the year 731) concludes with a survey of the several sees, and of the general state of Britain in that year. Bede's *History* is our main and, indeed, almost our only authentic source of information for the century and a half that followed the conversion of the English to Christianity, and is therefore a work of much interest and importance, apart from its attractions of style. Besides the *Historia Ecclesiastica*, which was translated into Anglo-Saxon, it is said, by King Alfred, Bede wrote a very large number of minor works, among which are a *Life of St. Cuthbert;* a *Chronicon*, or general summary of history up to the year 729; *The Lives of the Abbots of Wearmouth and of Jarrow*, and *An Epistle to Egbert, Archbishop of York*, which gives an interesting account of the state of the Church. All are of considerable historical importance, though they yield in interest to the Ecclesiastical History. The greater number of Bede's compositions—said to have amounted to nearly 150—were probably theological treatises or commentaries on the Scriptures.

The best edition of Bede is that of Dr. Giles, in six vols., Lond., 1843, &c.; and there is a good edition of the Historical Works by Mr. Stevenson (Eng. Hist. Soc.), in two vols., Lond., 1841. An edition of the *Hist. Eccles. Anglor.* has been published by the Clarendon Press, and there is a translation in Bohn's *Antiquarian Library*. A scholarly edition of Books iii. and iv. of the *History* has been published by the Pitt Press, under the editorship of Prof. Mayor and Mr. Lumby, which contains a vast amount of learning and research, and is enriched with a translation of Ebert's account of Bede, from which the main facts stated above have been gathered. [F. S. P.]

Bedford first appears in history in 571, when the Britons were defeated there by the Saxons, under Cuthwulf. The castle underwent many sieges. In 1138 it was taken by King Stephen, and in 1215, during the war between John and the barons, it was captured by Falkes de Breauté, who continued to hold it till 1224, when he took one of the justices prisoner. Thereupon a force was levied against him, and Bedford was besieged. On its capture, the castle was dismantled. During the Great Rebellion Bedford declared for the Parliament, but in 1643 was captured by the Royalists.

Bedford, Peerage of. In 1415, John, third son of Henry IV., was created Duke of Bedford. In 1549, John Russell, Lord High Steward of England, who had received the lands of the Abbey of Woburn, in Bedfordshire, was created Earl of Bedford. In 1694 William Russell, fifth earl, was created Duke of Bedford.

Bedford, John, Duke of (*b.* 1389, *d.* 1435), was the third son of Henry IV., and was created Duke of Bedford in 1415. In 1416 he distinguished himself by defeating the French fleet, and in the next year commanded an expedition to Scotland to avenge the "Foul Raid" (q.v.). During Henry V.'s absence in France, Bedford was appointed Lieutenant of England, and on his death-bed Henry constituted him Regent of France. To cement the Burgundian alliance, Bedford, in 1422, married the sister of the Duke of Burgundy, and by the vigour and ability of his administration the English not only succeeded in maintaining their conquests for several years, but even gained ground upon their enemies. In 1424 he won the great victory of Verneuil; but the relief of Orleans interfered with the progress of the English arms, and in revenge for the powerful aid she had given to the enemy, Bedford caused Joan of Arc when she fell into his hands to be burned to death as a witch. In 1432 his wife died, and in the next year he married Jacquetta of Luxemburg, thereby increasing Burgundy's estrangement from the English. In home affairs Bedford was always ready to act as the mediator between Gloucester and Beaufort, and by his influence over the former was able to restrain his reckless and extravagant disposition to a certain degree. The latter years of Bedford's life were embittered by the follies of Gloucester, the successes of the French, and the defection of Burgundy. With him perished all hopes of English supremacy in France, and all chance of retaining even Normandy and Guienne. A brave soldier, a skilful general, a prudent and far-sighted politician, and, taken altogether, a just and merciful governor, Bedford had in him many of the elements of greatness. "He was certainly equal," says Mr. Stevenson, "possibly superior, to Henry the Fifth. But for the treacherous friendship of the Duke of Burgundy, he would probably have overrun France and expelled Charles the Seventh. It is questionable whether the hero of Agincourt would have been able to effect to much as the hero of Verneuil did." His misfortune was that he was the champion of

a cause which was radically unjust, and which was destined from the beginning to ultimate failure. The greatest blot on Bedford's memory is his treatment of Joan of Arc, which it is difficult to palliate; it was equally cruel and impolitic. But, if we except this episode, Bedford was seldom guilty either of harshness or impolicy.

The Wars of the English in France (Rolls Series), with Mr. Stevenson's valuable introductions; Lord Brougham, *England and France under the House of Lancaster*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, vol. iii.

[F. S. P.]

Bedford, John Russell, 1st Earl of (*d.* 1555), was a gentleman of Dorsetshire attached to the court of Henry VIII. Russell obtained considerable grants out of the monastery spoils, and thus laid the foundation of the wealth of his family. In 1536 he co-operated energetically with the Duke of Suffolk in repressing the first seeds of discontent in Lincolnshire. Later on in his career Russell again distinguished himself by the complete suppression of the revolutionary outbreak of 1549 in the western counties. Defeating the insurgents in a pitched battle at St. Mary's Clyst, he succeeded in relieving the city of Exeter, which had just previously been hard pressed by the rebel forces; and in entirely destroying their hopes in Cornwall and Devonshire, which were at once placed under martial law. In the Council, Russell, after these events, took part with Warwick against Somerset, and materially contributed to hasten the Protector's fall. For his services on this occasion Russell, who had been made a peer in 1539, was now, in 1550, created, by Northumberland's influence, Earl of Bedford. On the death of Edward VI. Russell thought it prudent to conform to the Catholic mode of worship. He continued accordingly under Mary to enjoy the royal favour, and he was employed by her on several embassies of importance.

Bedford, Francis Russell, 2nd Earl of (*b.* 1528, *d.* 1585), was one of Elizabeth's most trusted counsellors in the early part of her reign. In 1561 he was sent on a special embassy to the Court of France, and three years later to Scotland in conjunction with Sir Thomas Randolph. He subsequently commanded the Northern army at Berwick, and in 1566 was sent to represent Elizabeth at the baptism of James VI. In the course of his negotiations in Scotland he managed to incur the displeasure of the queen, who accused him of taking part with the Scotch lords against Mary, whose marriage with the Duke of Norfolk he subsequently opposed.

Burghley Papers; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*

Bedford, Francis Russell, 4th Earl of (*d.* 1641), was the only son of Lord Russell of Thornhaugh, and on the death of his cousin, the third earl, in 1627, succeeded him in the earldom of Bedford. He was one of the chief promoters of the great work of draining the fens called the Great Level, afterwards, in his honour, known as the Bedford Level. In politics he occupied a moderate position. He was a personal friend of Pym, but was desirous of devising a *modus vivendi* between king and Parliament. He was the head of the Commissioners who negotiated the Treaty of Ripon with the Scots in 1640, and in the early part of the next year, when Charles conceived the idea of forming a ministry from the more moderate of the opposition leaders, he offered Bedford the post of Lord Treasurer and practically that of Prime Minister. This scheme, which seemed to promise success, was frustrated by the sudden death of the Earl of Bedford from small-pox. Clarendon sums up his character thus:—"He was a wise man, and would have proposed and advised moderate courses; but was not incapable, for want of resolution, of being carried into violent ones if his advice was not submitted to; and therefore many who knew him well thought his death not unseasonable, as well to his fame as his fortune."

Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion*; Dugdale, *Hist. of Embanking*; Lodge, *Portraits.*

Bedford, William Russell, 1st Duke of (*b.* 1613, *d.* 1700), was the son of the fourth Earl of Bedford. He was an opponent of the arbitrary policy of Charles I. and Strafford, and a moderate supporter of the Parliament. When the Civil War broke out he joined the Parliamentary standard with a body of horse, and took part in the battle of Edgehill; but he separated from the Parliament in 1645, and joined the king. He was present at the battle of Newbury, on the Royalist side, and greatly distinguished himself. His estates were confiscated, but he succeeded in making his peace with the Parliament and getting them restored. He took some part in the Restoration, and was a prominent supporter of William of Orange at the Revolution of 1688, after which event (in 1694) he was created Duke of Bedford.

Bedford, John Russell, 4th Duke of (*b.* 1710, *d.* 1771), succeeded to the dukedom in 1732. Ten years later he took an active part against Sir Robert Walpole. In 1744 he was appointed a Lord Commissioner of the Admiralty, and a member of the Privy Council. He was soon afterwards appointed First Lord of the Admiralty. In 1748, on the resignation of Lord Chesterfield, he was appointed Secretary of State for the Southern Department, but resigned in 1751, on the dismissal of Lord Sandwich. Five years later he was sent to Ireland as Lord Lieutenant. In that office he did not succeed, and exasperated the Irish by asking for his sister-in-law a pension on the Irish establishment. His principle of government was to silence opposition by donatives: nor did he forget

his friends, especially Rigby, in the general distribution of Irish money. In 1761 he resigned on Bute's accession to power. In the following year he went to Paris as plenipotentiary to negotiate for peace. In the Grenville ministry he became President of the Council. He seems to have acted an independent part in the king's closet, and to have insisted as firmly as Grenville himself on the dismissal of Lord Bute, to whom he was now thoroughly opposed. He was in advance of his age in the knowledge of political economy, and incurred the most violent hatred by opposing a Bill to impose duties on foreign silks. In 1765 he was summarily dismissed from office along with Grenville, and, refusing the overtures alike of Lord Chatham and the Duke of Grafton, remained for the rest of his life out of office. But he continued to take an active part in politics, and in 1769 proposed to resuscitate a statute of Henry VIII. in order to dispense with juries in the American Colonies. Walpole calls the duke "a man of inflexible honesty and good-will to his country," but says that "his manner was impetuous." To this unfortunate trait was probably due his almost universal unpopularity. His portrait has been drawn by Junius, exaggerated and distorted by the rancour of personal animosity.

Bedford Corresp.; Chatham Corresp.; Trevelyan, *Early Hist. of C. J. Fox; Letters of Junius.*

Bedford Level is the name given to a flat district in the east of England, which comprises the Fen country, and includes parts of Cambridgeshire, Norfolk, Suffolk, Huntingdonshire, Northamptonshire, and Lincolnshire. During the earlier Middle Ages this district was a vast swamp, partly inundated by the sea. Attempts were made to reclaim it in the reigns of Henry VI. and VII., and an Act was passed for this purpose in 1601. In 1634, Francis, Earl of Bedford, and a number of other landowners of the eastern counties, obtained permission from the crown to drain the district on condition of receiving 95,000 acres of the reclaimed lands for themselves. The works, however, owing to disagreement with the crown, and the Civil War, were suspended for some years till 1649, when the undertaking was renewed. In 1664 the company was incorporated by royal charter, and it still exists. The operations of the original projectors have been largely supplemented by drainage works undertaken in more recent times.

Begum, an Indian word for queen, princess, &c., is generally used as the title of wives of a reigning or defunct monarch, or of a woman regnant—*e.g.*, Begum of Bhopal, Begums of Oude.

Behar. [Clive, Lord.]

Bek, Anthony (*d.* 1310), son of Walter, Baron of Eresby, accompanied Edward I. on his Crusade (1271). On his return he took orders, and was made Archdeacon of Durham in the year 1279, and bishop in 1283. In 1290 he was sent by Edward to act in concert with the guardians of Scotland, and with the advice of the Estates as lieutenant for Queen Margaret and her husband; and in 1294 he was employed as ambassador to the Emperor. He accompanied the king in his expedition to Scotland in 1296, commanded a division of cavalry at Falkirk in 1298, and was present at the siege of Caerlaverock in 1300. In the same year he became engaged in a quarrel with the monks who constituted the chapter, which lasted the rest of his life. His first quarrel with Edward was occasioned by his refusal to show his franchises to the royal officers, but this difference was soon compromised, and in 1295 Bek was appointed one of the guardians of the counties beyond the Trent. He obtained the empty but high-sounding title of Patriarch of Jerusalem from Clement V., to which he added the title of "King of the Isle of Man." After he got possession of the island by mortgage, Edward I. compelled him to hold it "as of the king's gift," and deprived him of his palatine rights over Durham; these were, however, restored by Edward II., with whom he was a great favourite, and he enjoyed them till his death in 1310. Bek represented the Baronial party in the Church, which saw in Edward I.'s consolidating and centralising policy the overthrow of its own privileges.

Bekcagsog, The Convention of (Oct. 3, 1805), was concluded between Great Britain and Sweden, in order to enable Sweden to join heartily in the European coalition against Napoleon. The terms of the convention were very much the same as those of the Convention of Helsingborg, which had been concluded in the preceding August, and consisted in an arrangement as to the subsidy to be supplied by Great Britain. Sweden agreed to employ 12,000 men in Pomerania, for whom England was to pay at the rate of £12 10s. annually for each man. Pay for five months was to be handed over to Sweden in advance, and £50,000 was to be paid down at once for the purpose of putting Stralsund into an efficient state of defence.

Alison, *Hist. of Europe;* Fyffe, *Modern Europe.*

Beket, Thomas. [Becket.]

Belasyse, John, Lord (*d.* 1689), was the second son of Lord Fauconberg, and, like his father, took a prominent part on the Royalist side in the Civil War. He took part in the battles of Edgehill, Newbury, and Naseby, and the sieges of Reading and Bristol, and subsequently was made Governor of York. He was wounded several times, and three times suffered imprisonment in the Tower. He was raised to the peerage in 1644, and at the Restoration was appointed commander of the

force in Africa and governor of Tangiers, which offices he held till 1667. In the reign of James II. he was appointed one of the Lords of the Treasury.

Belesme, Robert of, one of the Norman followers of William the Conqueror, and eldest son of Earl Roger of Shrewsbury, was created Earl of Montgomery. He was the leader of the disaffected barons against the Norman kings. In 1077 he joined Robert against his father, in 1087 he opposed William II.'s accession to the English throne, and in 1101 supported Robert's claims against Henry I. On this latter occasion he was banished from England, to the great joy of the people, and sought refuge in Normandy. In 1112 he was sent to Henry as an ambassador by the French king, but Henry served him as a rebel and kept him a prisoner till his death, the date of which is unknown. He stands out as the very worst example of the feudal noble. "His contemporaries," says Lappenberg, "are unanimous in describing him as one of the most detestable characters known in history, to whom the most unheard-of barbarities were not merely acts of revenge, but an insatiable enjoyment." Ordericus Vitalis exclaims, when mentioning his banishment from England in 1101, "Rejoice, King Henry, and give thanks to the Lord God, for you became a free ruler from the day when you banished Robert of Belesme from your realm."

Ordericus Vitalis, 707, &c.; Freeman, *William Rufus*, i. 181, &c., and *Norman Conquest*.

Belfast was the site of an important Norman castle which was in the possession of the De Burghs, Earls of Ulster, in the thirteenth century. In 1333, William de Burgh was murdered there by the rebellious English of the Pale. The castle subsequently fell into the hands of the O'Neils, from whom it was taken after the rebellion of Shane O'Neil, and forfeited to the crown. In 1604 the castle and district was granted to Sir Arthur Chichester, who settled there numerous colonists from Devonshire. The castle was rebuilt, and a town speedily grew up round it. In 1611 the town was constituted a borough. In 1637 Strafford gave it certain trading privileges which did much to increase its prosperity. The city has become the chief manufacturing and commercial town in Ireland. By the Irish Universities Act of 1908, Belfast was granted a University.

Belgæ, The, were the inhabitants of part of the south and south-west of ancient Britain. Their districts included the modern counties of Hants, Wilts, Dorset, and part of Somerset. They were in all likelihood closely connected with the Continental Belgæ and are generally considered to have belonged to the Gallic branch of the Celtic stock, and to have migrated to Britain from north-eastern Gaul. It is probable that they contained a very considerable intermixture of Germanic elements, and Mr. Wright, and some other authorities, have maintained that the Belgæ were, in fact, a Teutonic tribe, and were comparatively late settlers in this island. A directly opposite opinion has, however, been maintained by other Celtic scholars. [Britons; Celts.]

See for varic is views, Rhŷs, *Celtic Britain*; Elton, *Origins of Eng. Hist.*; Wright, *The Celt, the Roman, and the Saxon*; Coote, *The Romans of Britain*.

Belgaum, The District of, in the Bombay Presidency, lying to the north-east of the Portuguese state of Goa, was ceded to the British by the Peishwa in 1817.

Belgian Question, The (1830—32). The effect of the French Revolution of July, 1830, in Europe, was to cause a general uprising of nationalities. Belgium, among others, threw off the yoke of Holland, and all Europe now became interested in the settlement of the difficulty. The Dutch government applied to Lord Aberdeen for troops. Thereupon he summoned the London Conference. This Conference in vain attempted to solve the question. It lingered on till Sept. 30, 1832, and then separated, having effected nothing, the final cause of separation being a difference of opinion between the three Northern and the two Western powers as to the employment of force. A convention was immediately concluded between England and France for carrying out the stipulations of the treaty of November. This treaty was signed Oct. 22, and on the 6th Nov. an embargo was laid on all vessels bearing the Dutch flag in British ports. A French army entered Holland and captured Antwerp; and the war was over. Belgium gained her independence with the capitulation of Antwerp.

Annual Register, 1832; S. Walpole, *Hist. of Eng. from 1815*.

Belleisle, (1) The Battle of, was fought Oct. 25, 1747, and resulted in the defeat of the French by the English fleet commanded by Admiral Hawke. Early in the day Hawke fell in with a large fleet of merchant ships bound for the West Indies, and convoyed by nine men-of-war. Without waiting for his ships to fall into line of battle, he vigorously attacked the enemy, and was rewarded with the capture of seven out of the nine men-of-war. The French were completely defeated, and the admiral received the honour of knighthood for the exploit.—(2) The Capture of, took place during the Seven Years' War. In 1761 (June 7), a fleet under Admiral Keppel, conveying 8,000 troops under General Hodgson, arrived before the south-east point of the island. The troops, after being once repulsed, made good their landing, captured Palais, the chief town of the island, and compelled the garrison to capitulate. The island was held till the close of the war (1763).

Bellingham, Sir Edward (*d.* 1549), was sent to Ireland as Lord Deputy by Somerset in 1548, having previously won fame for himself in Hungary and at Boulogne, as well as in the Isle of Wight, where, in his capacity of governor, he defeated the French in 1545. His short period of rule in Ireland was eminently successful, and was marked by strong, wise, and vigorous administration.

Beluchistan is the territory of the Khan of Khelat, situated on the Scinde frontier, and lying to the south of Afghanistan, and between that country and the sea. [Khelat.]

Benares, The Treaty of (Aug., 1773), was concluded between Warren Hastings and the Vizier of Oude. Its stipulations were that Hastings should lend the Vizier an English force to be used against the Rohillas, and should cede the districts of Corah and Allahabad; that the Vizier should give a donation of forty lacs of rupees, and a monthly payment of two lacs for the services of the troops; and that he should pay fifty lacs additionally for the ceded districts. [Rohilla War.]

Benbow, John, Admiral (*b.* 1653, *d.* 1702), entered the merchant service very early in life. In 1680 he was master of a ship which traded in the Mediterranean. He is said to have pickled the heads of a crew of Sallee pirates, which he threw down as salt provisions on the table of the Cadiz magistrates. On his return James II. placed him in command of a ship in the Royal Navy. William III. employed him in checking the Dutch privateers, and in bombarding the French ports, duties which he carried out with courage and success. In 1698 he was sent with a squadron to the West Indies. There he attempted to settle the disputes which had broken out between the Spanish and English settlers owing to the attempted colonisation of the isthmus of Darien by the Scotch. On his return he was made Vice-Admiral (1700). He was sent out again in order to engage the Spanish colonies to disown Philip, the French claimant to the crown of Spain; or, if they refused this, to seize their galleons. He arrived at Barbadoes in 1701 and sailed thence for Jamaica, where he heard that Du Casse had arrived with a squadron of French ships in order to crush the English slave trade. On August 19th, 1702, Benbow, while cruising off St. Domingo, came in sight of Du Casse. He resolved to attack, but the captains of his three best ships, from motives of personal dislike, refused to bring their vessels into action. Benbow, however, with his own ship, fought the enemy for four days. At last the captains addressed a written remonstrance to him, in which they declared that the odds were too great for a continuance of the conflict. Benbow, who was badly wounded, returned to Jamaica to die. Before his death he had the satisfaction of procuring the condemnation of two of his captains, and the dismissal of the third from the service.

Campbell, *Lives of the Admirals*, vol. iii.; *Biographia Britannica*.

Benburb, The Battle of (June 5th, 1646), was fought between Owen Roe O'Neil and General Monroe with the Scottish and English troops. O'Neil had his rear protected by a wood, and his right by the Blackwater. Monroe had ordered his brother to join him with a considerable force, but this O'Neil prevented, while he amused the Scots by feints till his own forces, detached for this purpose, had rejoined him. Monroe now tried to retreat, but was at once charged by the Irish, his horse fled, and the only formidable stand was made by an English regiment under Lord Blaney; when they had been cut to pieces the rest of the Scots fled in disorder. Lords Montgomery and Blaney, with 21 officers and 150 men, as well as all the artillery and ammunition, were captured, Monroe himself escaping with difficulty. Altogether, 3,243 of the English and Scots fell, while the victors lost 70 killed and 200 wounded. This battle was the last great victory achieved by an Irish general on Irish soil.

Whitelocke, *Memorials;* MacGeoghegan, *Hist. d'Irlande*, 1758.

Bench, King's. [King's Bench.]

Bencoolen, in Sumatra, was held by the East India Company as a trading settlement from 1682 to 1824. It was attacked and laid in ruins by the French in 1760. In 1824 it was given up to the Dutch in exchange for their Malacca settlements.

Benedict Biscop was born of a good Northumbrian family, and was in the service of King Oswy. In 653 he went on a pilgrimage to Rome, and on his return laboured hard in missionary work in the north of England. After two years he undertook a second journey to Rome, and subsequently entered the Benedictine monastery of Lerins, where he took the tonsure, and remained some time. He then went to Rome again, and was commissioned to return to England as assistant and interpreter to Archbishop Theodoric. On their arrival in England, Benedict was made abbot of the monastery of St. Peter's, at Canterbury. At the expiration of two years he abandoned this office, and undertook another journey to Rome. On his return he received from Egfrith of Northumbria a grant of land at the mouth of the Wear (674). Here he founded a monastery with a church of stone, and glass windows, and endowed it with numerous books, pictures, and relics, obtained by him on his journeys to Rome. In 682 he founded a second monastery at Jarrow, where Bede spent most of his life. By the impulse he gave to monasticism and to ecclesiastical

art in England, Benedict did work of considerable service to the Anglo-Saxon Church.

Benedictines, The, were the most important of the monastic orders, founded 529 by St. Benedict of Nursia (480—542). Up to this time there had been neither uniformity nor permanence in monastic societies. Benedict's work was that of organisation; instead of fluctuating assemblies of individuals, there was to be a careful gradation of ranks and duties; and though the abbot was bound to consult the monks, his authority was supreme. Moreover, though the Benedictine rule was milder than previous practices, the vow was rendered irrevocable. Instead of devoting themselves entirely to contemplation, the monks were to busy themselves in manual labour or in reading. Soon most of the monasteries of the West were subject to the Benedictine rule. There is some doubt as to the exact date of the introduction of the Benedictine rule into England. Probably it was introduced by Augustine, whose companions were in all likelihood Benedictine monks, but the first introduction is also claimed for Benedict Biscop, and for Wilfrid. The order is mentioned in a charter of Kenred's to the monks of Evesham in 709; but Bede has no reference to it, nor is it alluded to in the act regulating the English clergy at Clovesho in 747. It was not till the time of Edgar that the strict Benedictine rule, under the auspices of Ethelwold, Dunstan, and Oswald (himself a Benedictine of Fleury), became generally prevalent in England, and a "Concord of Rules" was promulgated by Dunstan for the guidance of English monks. Henceforward the Benedictines became by far the richest and most powerful of the monastic orders in England. All the cathedral convents, except Carlisle, and four of the cathedrals instituted by Henry VIII., namely, Chester, Gloucester, Oxford, and Peterborough, and all the English mitred abbeys except Waltham and Cirencester, belonged to the Benedictine order. So important are they in comparison with all other orders of monks in England, that the history of English monasticism is to a large extent the history of the English Benedictines. [Monasticism.] At the time of the dissolution of the monasteries, the number of Benedictine abbeys and cells was 113, with revenues amounting to over £57,000, besides 73 Benedictine nunneries with revenues of nearly £8,000.

Mabillon, *Annales Ordinis S. Benedicti*: Smith and Cheetham's *Dict. Christ. Antiq.*; Dr. Stubbs's Preface to *Memorials of S. Dunstan*; and the first four vols. of Dugdale's *Monasticon*.

Benefice denotes "the right which a clerk has to enjoy certain ecclesiastical revenues on condition of discharging certain services." For the enjoyment of a benefice four things are necessary:—(1) *Ordination* as a priest; a deacon or a layman may be presented, but he must be ordained priest before he can be instituted. (2) *Presentation* by the patron. In theory, a patron, himself a clerk, may *petition* for his own admission; but the usual plan is to make over the right to some other person before the benefice becomes vacant. (3) *Institution* to the cure of souls by the bishop, if satisfied of the sufficiency of the clerk. If the bishop refuse, the patron has a remedy by *quare impedit* in the common law court, and must show satisfactory reasons for his refusal. When the bishop is himself patron, there is neither presentation nor institution, but *collation*. (4) *Induction* to the temporalities by the archdeacon or a neighbouring clergyman upon the bishop's mandate. The papal power of granting dispensation from that canon of the Lateran Council of 1215, which forbade the holding of two benefices by the same person, was transferred at the Reformation to the Archbishop of Canterbury. But the evils of pluralism were so great that by the Acts 1 and 2 Vict., c. 106, and 13 and 14 Vict., c. 98, it was forbidden to hold two benefices unless the churches were within three miles of one another, and the value of one was not greater than £100. Vicarages, rectories, perpetual curacies, and chaplaincies are termed beneficies, in contradistinction to dignities such as bishoprics, etc.

Benefit of Clergy was the right claimed by the clergy to immunity from secular jurisdiction in certain cases. Cases in which it might be urged were such as affected the life or limbs of the offender, with the single exception of high treason. It was at first restricted to *bonâ-fide* clerics, but subsequently got extended to all who could read a verse in the Psalter, known as the "neck-verse," generally out of the 51st Psalm. Should it be declared by the bishop's commissary that the prisoner read it like a clerk, he was delivered over to the ecclesiastical jurisdiction. It was, however, an indictable offence at common law to teach a felon to read in order that he might claim benefit of clergy. The abuse of this custom was very great, and in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries it produced constant disputes between the judges and ordinaries. Henry VII., in 1488, restricted it by declaring that it should not be allowed more than once to persons not actually in orders, and in Queen Anne's reign the neck-verse was no longer required to be read. Benefit of clergy was not finally abolished till the reign of George IV. Benefit of clergy never extended to women till they were included by the Statute 3 and 4 Will. III.

Blackstone, iv., ch. 28; Hale, *Pleas of the Crown*; Statutes 5 Anne, cap. 6; 7 and 8 Geo. IV., cap. 28.

Benevolences, a means of raising money by extorted loans, were first used by Edward IV. Probably in earlier times the practice of

expecting and even asking for "free-will offerings" was not unusual on the part of kings. Edward II. and Richard II. seem to have made some use of this method of levying money. But Edward IV. raised it to a system, and by his popular manners was wonderfully successful in dealing with that large number of his subjects who did not know how to refuse a king's request. Such a method of using personal pressure was, of course, unconstitutional, and gave the king a dangerous means of raising money without Parliament. Under Richard III., in 1484, an Act of Parliament was passed abolishing benevolences as "new and unlawful inventions;" but in spite of this, Richard III. continued to exact them. Henry VII. also revived them, and obtained a quasi-parliamentary sanction by an Act of 1492, which enforced the payment of arrears of money promised by private persons to the king. It was often argued seriously that the law of Richard III., being the act of a "usurper," was not valid. Henry's Chancellor, Archbishop Morton, used to beg for his master, and invented a dilemma which was known as "Morton's fork." If a man lived handsomely he told him that he clearly had money to spare; if he lived plainly, that he was saving money, and must be rich enough to help the king. Henry VIII., in 1545, appointed commissioners, who, under the name of a benevolence, were to move men to grant to the king twenty pence in the pound on the value of their lands: those who refused were to be summoned to answer before the Privy Council. Elizabeth at times solicited loans, but she was frugal, and generally repaid them in time. James I., in 1614, had recourse to this, amongst other schemes for raising money. The Council wrote to the sheriffs requesting them to solicit subscriptions in their counties. Bacon defended the proceeding, saying that it asked for a free gift, and had nothing in common with the extortions of previous times. So many protests, however, were made against this exaction, and so little money was raised by it, that it was not again used by the crown. Even Charles I., in his worst straits, rejected proposals for reviving so unpopular a usage.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, iii.; Hallam, *Const. Hist.* [F. S. P.]

Bengal. The province of British India which lies about the lower portions and the deltas of the Ganges and Brahmaputra. It includes the provinces of Bengal Proper, Behar, Orissa, and Chota Nagpur, and has a population of over sixty-six millions. Bengal was conquered by the Mohammedans in the thirteenth century, and was subsequently ruled by Mussulman viceroys appointed by the various reigning dynasties. In the eighteenth century the Nawab of Bengal was a deputy of the Mogul at Delhi. The first English settlements were formed between the years 1620 and 1640. In 1696 the English bought a small district at the mouth of the Ganges, on which Fort William (Calcutta) was erected. For many years the English were involved in frequent disputes with the native governors, culminating in Suraj-ud-Dowlah's massacre of the Europeans in 1756. [Black Hole.] This was followed by Clive's great victory at Plassey, and some years of fighting. [Clive.] In 1765 the dewanny of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa, was ceded to the East India Company, and the Nawab, Meer Jaffier, was pensioned off. A native dewan was, however, appointed to collect the revenues. In 1773 Warren Hastings abolished the double government, and placed the administration directly in the hands of the Company. The Governor-General of India was also Governor of Bengal, till 1854, when the offices were separated, and Bengal was placed under a Lieutenant-Governor. In 1793 Lord Cornwallis effected the "Permanent Settlement," by which the *zemindars*, or tax collectors, were recognised as proprietors on payment of a land tax to the government; but the rights of the cultivators were recognised and extended by the Bengal Land Law of 1859.

W. W. Hunter, *Orissa*, and *Annals of Rural Bengal*; Stewart, *Hist. of Bengal.* [B. C. S.]

Bengal Mutiny (1795—6). One of the chief results of Lord Cornwallis's administration had been the abolition of sinecures and perquisites in both branches of the service. The civilians had been compensated by increased salaries, but this was impossible in the army, and though the pay was very high, it was disproportionate to that of the civilians. Sir John Shore therefore found he had to deal with a widespread spirit of mutiny. Delegates were elected from each regiment to form an executive board, and the terms offered by it were that the Company's regiments should not be reduced; that the king's troops should be limited by law; that promotion should go by seniority; that all the old allowances should be restored. If this was not granted, they were prepared to assume the government themselves by violence. The matter was entirely mismanaged. At one time obnoxious regulations were issued, which merely enraged the mutineers; at another the greatest concessions were made, one of the ringleaders being promoted to a confidential post in the India House. The arrival of Lord Wellesley ended this. Seeing a number of malcontent commanders congregated at his first *levée*, he peremptorily ordered them to rejoin their regiments within twenty-four hours. His commands were obeyed, and the mutiny was at an end, quelled, it was said, by a glance of Lord Wellesley's eye.

Bennington, The Battle of (Aug. 16th, 1777), fought during the American War of

Independence, took place at Bennington, in New Hampshire, where the Americans had stored large supplies. Burgoyne had detached a considerable force, under Colonel Baum, to seize the magazines at Bennington, and thence to march on to Albany and join the main army there. Finding the place stronger than he expected, Baum entrenched himself, and sent for reinforcements. General Stark, with the New Hampshire men, in vain offered him battle, and on being reinforced, determined himself to attack. The movement was conducted with great skill, and Baum's position was secretly surrounded before he was aware of an intended attack. The entrenchments were gallantly held until ammunition failed the defenders, who then made a bold attempt to cut their way through the American lines. Baum, however, was shot, and the rest of the force laid down its arms.

Bensington, in Oxfordshire, near Wallingford, although now a village, was in early times a place of considerable importance. It was one of the four towns that Cutha took from the Britons in 571; and in 775 Offa defeated Cynewulf of Wessex here, and took the town from him.

J. R. Green, *The Making of England.*

Bentham, Jeremy (*b.* 1748, *d.* 1832), educated at Westminster and Queen's College, Oxford, was originally intended for the bar, but being possessed of private means, he determined to devote his life to the reformation, rather than the practice, of the law, and wrote numerous works with this object. In spite of their unequal value, his books remain a storehouse for the politician and the law reformer. Indeed, there are few administrative reforms which have not been suggested wholly or in part by Bentham's writings. But his value does not only consist in being a suggester of reform on the details of legislation and procedure; he is also one of the fathers of English jurisprudence. His place in that science is midway between Hobbes and Austin. Hobbes had first discerned the doctrine that whatever be the form of government the sovereign authority is ultimately absolute; but he had deduced from this the theory of non-resistance. Bentham perceived the fallacy in this deduction, and separated clearly the *legal* necessity for obedience from the *political* duty of resistance. The test of the propriety of political resistance Bentham held to be "Utility," in the sense of the greatest happiness of the greatest number. This maxim, whatever may be its value as the basis of a philosophy, furnishes an excellent rule for practical action. In fact, as Sir Henry Maine has pointed out, by thus making the good of the community take precedence of every other object, Bentham offered a clear rule of reform, and gave a distinct object to aim at in the pursuit of improvement. In this respect his influence may be compared with that of the *jus naturæ* in Roman law.

Bentham's works, which are very numerous, have been collected by his disciple, Bowring (London, 1837), who has prefixed to the collection a sketch of Bentham's method. Those of his writings which will best repay perusal are *The Fragment on Government* (1776), in answer to Blackstone; *The Book of Fallacies*, and *The Tract on Usury*. His theory of punishments is contained in *The Principles of Morals and Legislation* (published separately by the Clarendon Press), and in a translation from the French of his disciple Dumont, entitled *The Theory of Legislation*. For criticisms of Bentham's philosophy, see preface to Green and Grose's edition of *Hume*, and W. L. Courtney, *Criticism on the Philosophy of J. S. Mill.* [B. R. W.]

Bentinck, Lord George (*b.* 1802, *d.* 1848), acted for some time as secretary to Canning, and in 1828 entered Parliament for Lyme Regis. He was chiefly occupied in sporting matters till within a few years of his death. He came prominently forward in the ranks of the Opposition in 1846, after Sir Robert Peel abandoned the cause of Protection. Identifying himself with the Protectionists, he quickly became their chief, and led them in the bitter campaign which followed against Peel. In this position he displayed an energy, determination, and organising power which seemed to mark him out for high distinction as a political leader. He, however, died suddenly from heart disease, within three years of the time when he had first come prominently before the public.

B. Disraeli, *Lord George Bentinck: a Political Biography* (1851).

Bentinck, Lord William (*b.* 1774, *d.* 1839), entered the army in 1791, and was attached to the headquarters of Marshal Suvaroff during the campaign of 1799—1801. In April, 1803, he quitted England as Governor of Madras, which post he filled till Jan., 1808. In August of that year he was appointed on the staff of the army in Portugal under Sir Harry Burrard. He was at the battle of Corunna, and later was appointed minister at the court of Sicily and Commander-in-chief of all his Majesty's forces in the island. At the head of an expedition he landed in Catalonia (1813), and, after some successes, was repulsed at Villa Franca. In 1814 he left Sicily, repaired to Tuscany, and incited the Italians to throw off the French yoke. In 1827 he went to India as Governor-General. He arrived in 1828, and was compelled to enter at once on the unpopular duty of retrenchment, owing to the deficit caused by the Burmese War. All allowances were reduced, and an order was issued (Nov., 1828) to curtail the batta allowances at all stations within 400 miles of Calcutta. This impolitic and unjust order nearly produced a mutiny, but was forced on Lord William by the Directors. The revenue was

augmented by increasing the opium trade, and by resuming all lands fraudulently alienated from the state. In 1832, on the murder of the Rajah of Cachar (a little province on the north-east frontier of Bengal), Lord William annexed it, in accordance with the general wish of the people; and in 1834 Coorg was also annexed. In other respects Lord William based his policy on the principle of non-intervention. The assumption of the government of Mysore was, however, forced upon him by the incompetence of its ruler. Attempts were also made to establish a connection with the independent states beyond the Company's territories, and to form defensive alliances with the Ameers of Scinde and Runjeet Sing, of Lahore, with whom Lord William concluded treaties in 1831. The civil administration of Lord William stands high in the history of British India as an era of progress. The reform of the law courts and the laws, the admission of native Christians to office, the settlement of the North-West Provinces, the abolition of suttee and the suppression of the Thugs, the introduction of steam communication, and the encouragement of education, serve to mark the period of his rule with distinction. In 1835 Lord William returned to England. He was elected M.P. for Glasgow in 1837, but he did not take any prominent part in home politics.

Mill, *Hist. of Ind.*, book iii., chap. 8.

Beorn (*d.* 1049) was the son of Ulf, and consequently the nephew of Gytha, wife of Earl Godwine. He attached himself to the fortunes of his uncle, and probably about the year 1045 received an earldom which seems to have included the counties of Hertford, Bedford, Huntingdon, and Buckingham. On the outlawry of Swegen in 1046, part of his earldom was granted to Beorn. On Swegen's return Beorn consented to intercede for him with the king, but Swegen, having lured him on board his ship, murdered him and buried his body at Dartmouth. His remains were subsequently translated with great pomp to Winchester.

Anglo-Saxon Chron.; Freeman, *Norm. Conq.*

Berar. [Mahrattas, The.]

Berengaria, Queen (*d.* circ. 1230), was the daughter of Sancho VI. of Navarre, and in 1191 was married at Cyprus to Richard I. She accompanied him to the Holy Land, and it was owing to discourtesy shown to her at Cyprus that Richard I. attacked and conquered the island. After the death of her husband, she resided chiefly in the dower city of Le Mans, and compounded with King John for her dower lands in England, receiving in return a promise of 2,000 marks a year, which was very irregularly kept. She retired in 1230 to the abbey of L'Espan, to which she was a great benefactress, and here she is supposed to have died shortly afterwards.

Beresford, Admiral Lord Charles William De La Poer (*b.* 1846), entered the navy at thirteen. He accompanied the Prince of Wales (afterwards Edward VII.) to India as naval aide-de-camp. As commander of the *Condor* he rendered brilliant services at the bombardment of Alexandria in 1882. Three years later he took part in Lord Wolseley's expedition for the relief of Gordon. In 1886 he was made a Lord Commissioner of the Admiralty, but resigned in 1888 on the question of the strength of the fleet. He commanded the Mediterranean Fleet, 1905–6, was made Admiral and Commander-in-Chief of the Channel Fleet in 1906. In 1909 he resigned his command, and a Committee of Inquiry on the question of Naval Administration followed his resignation.

Beresford, William Carr, 1st Viscount (*b.* 1768, *d.* 1854), a natural son of the first Marquis of Waterford, entered the army in 1785, and first saw active service at the siege of Toulon in 1793. In 1799 he went to India and took command of a brigade of Sir David Baird's army, which was on its way to oppose Napoleon in Egypt. In Egypt he remained as commandant of Alexandria till its evacuation, when he returned home, and was sent to Ireland. In 1805 he shared in the conquest of the Cape of Good Hope, whence he was despatched as brigadier-general with a small force against Buenos Ayres, which he took, only, however, in turn to be compelled to surrender to an overwhelming force. After remaining a prisoner for six months, he managed to escape, and on his return to England was sent in command of an expedition against Madeira, of which, on its capture, he became governor. In 1808, with the rank of major-general, he joined the British armies in Portugal. In the spring of 1809 he was appointed marshal and generalissimo of the Portuguese armies, and proceeded to co-operate with the commander-in-chief. But in May, 1811, he rashly engaged the French at Albuera, and by good fortune, rather than skill of his own, gained a victory. [Albuera.] In the campaigns of 1812 and 1813 he was second in command to Wellington. In 1814 he was raised to the peerage and was immediately charged with an important mission to Brazil. In the year 1815 he was appointed to the command of the Portuguese armies by the King of Portugal, and for some time held that office, until he came into political conflict with the people, when he threw up his appointment, and returned to England in 1822.

Napier *Peninsular War*; Clark, *Georgian Era.* [W. R. S.]

Berlin, The Treaty of (1878), was concluded between Great Britain, Germany

Austria, France, Italy, Russia, and Turkey, for the settlement of affairs in the East after the war between Russia and Turkey. Its chief provisions were, that Bulgaria should be an autonomous and tributary principality under the suzerainty of the Sultan, to be ruled by a Christian government and a prince freely elected, and provisionally administered by a Russian commissary; and that Eastern Roumelia should remain under the direct political and military authority of the Sultan, under conditions of administrative autonomy, and should have a Christian governor-general, to be nominated by the Porte with the assent of the powers. In the event of the Porte and Greece being unable to agree as to the rectification of their frontier, the powers would mediate. Bosnia and Herzegovina were to be occupied and administered by Austro-Hungary. The independence of Servia, Roumania, and Montenegro was recognised. Ardahan, Kars, Batoum, and other portions of Armenia, were ceded to Russia, as was also the part of Bessarabia ceded to Roumania in 1856. [Crimean War.] Complete toleration, equality, and protection of all religions was guaranteed in Turkey. The plenipotentiaries who represented England in the Congress held under the presidency of Prince Bismarck, which preceded the treaty, were the Earl of Beaconsfield and the Marquis of Salisbury. Despite this treaty, by an autograph letter of Francis Joseph I., dated Oct. 5, 1908, addressed to the Premiers of Bosnia and Herzegovina, these two provinces were annexed to Austria-Hungary.

Bermudas, The, or **Somers Islands,** were discovered in 1527 by a Spaniard named Bermudas, who gave his name to the islands. They are about three hundred in number, though some twenty only are inhabited. In 1609 Sir George Somers, who was wrecked there on his way to Virginia, took possession of the Bermudas for the Crown, and settlers soon began to arrive from England. In 1616 a Bermuda Company was formed, and after the Civil War many Royalists came out to settle. The government, which has been representative ever since 1620, is vested in a governor, an executive council of nine members appointed by the Crown, and a House of Assembly of thirty-six members. The convict settlement was abolished in 1862.

Martin, *British Colonies*; Coke, *West Indies*.

Bernard's Case (1858). On January 14th, 1858, a desperate attempt was made by a man named Orsini, and others, to murder the Emperor of the French, by throwing bombs filled with explosives at him near the Opera-house in Paris. The attempt failed, but many persons were injured and some killed. Dr. Simon Bernard was indicted in England as an accessory before the act. He was probably an accomplice. But a good deal of political feeling had been imported into the matter. The French Foreign Office had addressed a despatch to England on the subject of the conspiracy; this had caused great irritation, which was increased by the insulting language towards England used by some of the French officers in their address of congratulation to the Emperor Napoleon. It was felt that the conviction of Bernard would be a mark of subservience on the part of England, and a triumph for the unconstitutional government of the French Emperor. The trial took place at the Central Criminal Court on April 14; and after a six days' hearing the jury returned a verdict of *Not Guilty*.

Berners, Sir John Bourchier, Lord (*b. circa* 1469, *d.* 1532), the holder of many important state offices during the first part of the reign of Henry VIII., and the best of the early writers of English prose, was born at Therfield in Hertfordshire, and probably educated at Balliol College, Oxford. In 1474 he succeeded to the title of his grandfather — John Bourchier — who had been created Baron Berners in 1455. In 1496 Berners aided in crushing the rebellion of the Cornishmen, who had risen against Henry VII.'s tax-gatherers, and after fighting with the army in France at the taking of Terouenne (1573), he accompanied the Princess Mary to Paris, as her chamberlain, on the occasion of her marriage with Louis XII. (1514). In 1515 he was appointed Chancellor of the Exchequer, and was subsequently English envoy in Spain, attended Henry VIII. at the Field of the Cloth of Gold, and was installed in the office of Deputy of Calais in 1520. Although in ill-health, and embarrassed by debt, he zealously performed the duties of the position until his death in 1532. It was at Calais that he undertook a translation of Froissart's *Chronicles*. The translation was so skilfully executed in idiomatic English that it might have been easily mistaken for an original work, and to its popularity has been ascribed the promotion of a taste for historical reading and composition in England in the sixteenth century. His other works include translations of several French and Spanish romances, and of the *Golden Book of Marcus Aurelius*.

H. Walpole, *Royal and Noble Authors*, i. 239. The *editio princeps* of Berners' Froissart was printed by Pynson in London in two vols., 1523 and 1525. After passing through many editions in the sixteenth century it was reprinted by Mr. Utterson in 1812.

[S. J. L.]

Bernicia. [Northumbria.]

Bertha (Bercta), Queen, was the daughter of Charibert, King of Paris, and the wife of Ethelbert of Kent. On her marriage it was stipulated that she should be allowed to profess Christianity and worship as she pleased. The little Roman church of St. Martin at Canterbury was set apart for her use. Her influence was of great service

to Augustine in his missionary work. [Augustine.]

Bede, *Hist. Eccles.*, i., cap. 25.

Bertric (Beorhtric) (*d.* 802), King of Wessex, succeeded on Cynewulf's death. He married Eadburgh, daughter of Offa, and is said to have met his death by drinking a cup of poison prepared by her hands for another person. His reign is chiefly remarkable for the banishment of Egbert and the first appearance of the Danes on the English coast. Peace was secured by the practical acknowledgment on the part of Wessex of the supremacy of Mercia.

Anglo-Saxon Chron.; Henry of Huntingdon.

Berwick was one of the fortresses delivered to the English in 1174, as security for the fulfilment of the conditions of the Treaty of Falaise, and it remained in their hands till 1189. It was one of the four burghs (Edinburgh, Roxburgh, and Stirling being the other three) having a parliament, or court, of their own, and from its importance and wealth was for centuries a thorn in the side of England. In March, 1296, it was taken by Edward I., and most of the townsmen put to the sword, but was recaptured by Wallace in September, 1297. Having fallen again into the hands of the English, it was taken by Bruce in 1318, and held by the Scots until after the battle of Halidon Hill, 1333, when it was seized by Edward III. From this time it was rarely in the hands of the Scots until it was surrendered by Henry VI., in 1461, in order to secure a refuge in Scotland. It became again an English possession in 1482. It was made independent both of England and Scotland in 1551. In 1836 it was created a county of itself.

Berwick, James Fitz-James, Duke of (*b.* 1670, *d.* 1734), was the natural son of James II., by Arabella Churchill, the sister of the Duke of Marlborough. At an early age he was sent to learn the art of war under Charles of Lorraine, and was present at the siege of Buda in 1685. In 1687 he was created Duke of Berwick. After the Revolution of 1688, Berwick fought for his father in Ireland, and was present at the battle of the Boyne. He accompanied James to France, and served under Marshal Luxembourg in Flanders. He was taken prisoner at Neerwinden, but exchanged. In 1696 Berwick took a very prominent part in the unsuccessful plot for a Jacobite insurrection, which was to have been aided by a French force; but it is probable that he knew little of the darker schemes of some of the plotters, who aimed at removing William III. by assassination. In 1704, Berwick, whose military talents were now highly esteemed, was appointed to the command of the French army in Spain. In 1705 he suppressed the Camisard insurrection in Languedoc. In 1706 he was again sent to Spain, and he did much to restore the French cause, which previously appeared almost desperate. In 1707 he completely routed the English and Imperialists at the great battle of Almanza, in which his opponent was a Frenchman, Ruvigny, Marquis of Galway. In 1709, and the following years, he was employed in Dauphiny, and conducted a skilful defensive campaign. In 1713 he returned to Spain and captured Barcelona. In 1716 he was appointed commandant of Guienne; and in 1718 he once more led a French army into Spain, this time in opposition to Philip V., whom he had done so much to place on the throne. At the conclusion of the interval of peace, which terminated in 1733, Berwick was called to superintend the operations on the Rhine. He was killed by a cannon-ball at the siege of Philipsburg. Berwick was created a peer of France and a grandee of Spain. One of his sons was created Duke of Liria, in Spain, and the other Duke of Fitz-James, in the peerage of France. Berwick's military talents were of a very high order, and perhaps not altogether unworthy of comparison with those of his celebrated uncle. In some other respects his characteristics were not unlike those of Marlborough. He had the same coldness, and could be disturbed neither by excitement nor by danger. His integrity, piety, and high sense of duty were unquestioned, and his character has been very highly praised by Montesquieu. Bolingbroke called him the best great man that ever lived.

Berwick's *Mémoires*, written by himself down to 1716, and continued to 1734 by the Abbé Hook, were published in 1778, with an *Eloge Historique* by Montesquieu. [S. J. L.]

Berwick, The Pacification of (1639), was the name given to the agreement concluded between Charles I. and five Scotch Commissioners, the terms being that the Scottish and the Royalist armies should be disbanded, ecclesiastical matters referred to a free general assembly, and civil matters to a parliament.

Berwick, The Treaty of (January, 1560), was concluded between Queen Elizabeth (represented by the Duke of Norfolk) and the Lords of the Congregation (q.v.). Its object was the expulsion of the French garrisons and troops from Scotland, Elizabeth engaging to send troops to the North for that purpose.

Bessborough, John William Ponsonby, 4th Earl of (*b.* 1781, *d.* 1847), better known as Lord Duncannon, entered Parliament for Knaresborough in 1805. He was an active member of the Whig party for many years, and had a considerable share in drafting the Reform Bill. In 1831 he was made Chief Commissioner of Woods and Forests, in 1834 he received the seals of the Home Office, and in 1835 the Privy Seal. In 1846 the Earl of Bessborough was appointed Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland by Lord John Russell. His accession was very popular, as he was a resident Irish landlord, and had

always displayed a patriotic and liberal interest in Irish affairs. His viceroyalty extended over the period of the great famine, and his efforts were earnestly directed to the alleviation of that calamity. He died in May, 1847, during his tenure of office.

Bexley, Nicholas Vansittart, Lord (*b.* 1766, *d.* 1851), the son of an East Indian Director, was educated at Oxford and called to the bar in 1792. In 1796 he was returned to Parliament for Hastings. In February, 1801, he was sent with plenary powers to detach the court of Denmark from the Northern Alliance. Returning to England he was elected for Old Sarum, and supported the Addington ministry, under which he held the office of joint Secretary to the Treasury. He continued in office when Pitt again resumed the Premiership, and, in 1805, was appointed Chief Secretary for Ireland. This place he resigned in the same year through some difference with Pitt in regard to Lord Melville's conduct. In the ministry of Lord Grenville he again became Secretary to the Treasury. In 1812, having published some letters on financial questions, he was appointed Chancellor of the Exchequer by Lord Liverpool. In this important office he remained eleven years, and on his resignation was raised to the peerage with the title of Lord Bexley, and was at the same time appointed to the office of Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, which he held for nine years. "Industrious and plodding," says Mr. Walpole, "he had made an excellent Secretary to the Treasury; but he had neither the knowledge of finance nor the dexterity of debate which would have qualified him for the post which, by a strange fate, he occupied for a longer period than any of his successors."

Memoirs of Lord Liverpool; Castlereagh, *Memoirs and Despatches;* Spencer Walpole, *Hist. of Eng. from 1815.*

Beymaroo, The Battle of (Nov. 23, 1841), was one of the disasters which befell the English during the first Afghan War. The English were in cantonments near Cabul; and on the 14th of November a large force of Afghans, which had assembled with cannon on the Beymaroo hills, was dislodged with some difficulty by Brigadier Shelton. On the 22nd they appeared again at Beymaroo. On the 23rd a strong force set out before daybreak to dislodge them. The hill was carried without difficulty, but thousands of men quickly swarmed out of the city, and the English were overmatched, with only a single gun to answer the long-range matchlocks of the Afghans. The troops, shot down like rabbits, pining with cold and hunger, lost courage and refused to follow their officers. Finally, the whole body of English soldiers abandoned the field and took to flight. [Afghan Wars.]

Kaye, *Afghan War;* Abbott, *Afghan War.*

Beyrout, The Bombardment of (1840). A joint British, Austrian, and Turkish squadron in this year sailed to the coast of Syria, and proceeded to bombard Beyrout, a sea-port at the northern extremity of the Pachalic of Acre, which was held by the troops of the rebellious Pasha of Egypt, Mehemet Ali. The town was quickly reduced to ruins.

Bhawulpore, or **Doodpoutra,** is a native state of the Punjaub governed by a prince called the Bhawul Khan, with Bhawulpore as his capital. The Bhawul Khan's dominions extended at one time across the Sutlej to the Upper Indus, but he was a tributary of the Dooranee monarch. Runjeet Singh demanded the same tribute, and, on failure of payment, seized the territory between the rivers. The Ameers of Scinde also took from the Bhawul Khan a large district on the left bank of the Lower Indus. Thus pressed, he readily accepted, in 1838, the protection of the British, by whom his dominions were guaranteed against further encroachments on the part of his powerful neighbours.

Bhopal is a small Indian native principality in Malwa, in the valley of the Nerbuddah. In 1778 the reigning prince was the only chief in Central India who afforded any support to General Goddard in his adventurous march across the peninsula. This created an undying friendship between the Bhopal dynasty and the English, who protected Bhopal against the Mahrattas. In 1817, during the Mahratta War, Lord Hastings concluded a defensive alliance with this state, and granted it five valuable provinces which had been taken from the Peishwa. The Bhopal state has long been governed by female rulers or Begums, who have displayed great capacity for administration. The principality is said to be the best governed of the Indian native states. In the Indian Mutiny the Begum of Bhopal gave great assistance to the English, and both she and her daughter and successor were created Knights of the Star of India.

Bhonsla was the family name of the Rajahs of Nagpore or Berar. [Mahrattas.]

Bhotan War, The (1864—1865). In the year 1862 a quarrel arose between the independent Bhotan state in the Eastern Himalayas and the English government with reference to some frontier territories in Assam. Various outrages were committed by the Bhotias on English subjects, and in 1863 an embassy under the Hon. Ashley Eden was insulted and ill-treated. War was declared in Nov., 1864. It was badly conducted, and the country was unhealthy. The Bhotias struggled desperately, but finally were compelled to sue for peace. The Bhotias ceded the frontier districts of Assam, for which the English agreed to pay a yearly grant of 25,000 rupees.

Bhurtpore. A native state of Rajputana. The town of Bhurtpore has been twice besieged by the English. (1) In 1805, the Bhurtpore Rajah having taken part with the Mahrattas, General Lake determined on investing the place. It was a town and fortress, eight miles in circumference, surrounded by a lofty mud wall of great thickness, and protected by numerous bastions, and a deep ditch filled with water. It was garrisoned by about 8,000 of the Rajah's troops and the remnant of Holkar's infantry. Without a sufficient siege train, without an engineer officer of any experience, without even a reconnaissance, Lake resolved at once to carry the town by assault. Four unsuccessful assaults were made, entailing the loss of 3,200 men in killed and wounded, and the British finally were compelled to withdraw. This memorable siege lasted from Jan. 4th to April 21st. (2) In the year 1825, a disputed succession to the throne of Bhurtpore occurred. The expelled prince had been under British protection, and so, though Lord Amherst was at first inclined for non-intervention, Lord Combermere, the commander-in-chief, undertook to reduce the hitherto impregnable stronghold. Having demanded the dismissal of the women and children, which was refused, he proceeded to bombard the town. After two months' siege, the assault was given, and in two hours the town was taken; the fortress was then razed to the ground, and the rightful prince restored.

Bhye, in Hindustani, signifies "lady," and was affixed to the names of all Mahratta ladies of distinction—*e.g.*, Tara Bhye, the wife of the first Holkar; Toolsye Bhye, the celebrated concubine of Jeswunt Rao Holkar, &c.

Bible, English Translations of the. In the early times of English Church history translations of portions of the Scriptures were undertaken for the use of the less learned priests. Bishop Aldhelm, of Sherborne (who died in 709), is said to have translated the Psalter. Bede translated the Gospel of St. John, and finished the work on his death-bed in 735. King Alfred encouraged, if he did not actually undertake, the translation of the Gospels, which was current in the tenth century. Towards the end of that century, a Benedictine scholar, Ælfric (who died Archbishop of Canterbury in 1005), translated parts of the Books of Moses, together with Joshua, Judges, Kings, Esther, Job, Maccabees, and Judith. After the Norman Conquest, the early form of the English language gradually altered, and these translations became obsolete. In the middle of the thirteenth century a version of the whole Bible in Norman-French was current amongst the nobles. In the fourteenth century, about 1325, two translations of the Psalms into English appeared almost at the same time. One was by William of Shoreham, a Kentish priest; the other by Robert Rolle, who is known as the Hermit of Hampole. The end of the fourteenth century saw the first complete version of the Bible into English, a work directed by John Wyclif. Besides being a philosopher and theologian, Wyclif was also a fervent and diligent pastor. He was struck by the popular ignorance of the Bible, and resolved to remedy it. He himself undertook the New Testament, and his friend and follower, Nicolas of Hereford, began the translation of the Old Testament. Nicolas advanced in his work as far as the Book of Baruch, when he was called to account for a sermon which he had preached at Oxford. Wyclif, most probably, completed the unfinished work. It would seem that this translation was done by the end of 1382, and was rapidly disseminated among the people by itinerant preachers. The translation was made from the Latin version of St. Jerome, known as the Vulgate. There was a great difference in style between the work of the two translators. Nicolas of Hereford gave a literal rendering of the Latin in a stiff and bald manner. Wyclif was less a slave to the original, and showed a power of forcible and idiomatic writing which sets his translation as the highest point in the development of Middle English prose. No sooner was the work done than Wyclif was aware that it needed revision. This task he at once began, and it was carried on after his death by his follower, John Purvey, who finished the revision in 1388, and thereby gave greater uniformity and precision to the work. The circulation of the Wyclifite versions in manuscript amongst the people did much to prepare the way for the doctrinal changes which the influence of the German reformers introduced amongst a growing party in the English Church. But Wyclif's translation existed only in manuscript, and the printing-press had begun to work its change in the spread of literature. A printed Bible was necessary, and this work was undertaken by a Cambridge scholar, William Tyndale. He did not adopt Wyclif's version, because its language was by this time antiquated, and it was a translation of the Vulgate, whereas the knowledge of the Greek text had in his day made considerable progress amongst learned men. Tyndale translated the New Testament from the Greek text of Erasmus, but was obliged to withdraw to the Continent for the purpose of printing it. In 1526 this translation, which was printed at Worms in 1525, was secretly introduced into England, and was largely circulated, though efforts were made by the bishops to seize the copies and commit them to the flames. Tyndale next began the translation of the Old Testament, and published, in 1530, an English version of the Pentateuch. He was continuing his labours when, in 1535, he was imprisoned at Antwerp,

and was put to death as a heretic in the following year by the order of the Emperor Charles V. At his death his translation had advanced as far as the end of the Books of Chronicles. His work was revised by his friend and fellow-labourer, John Rogers, and its publication, under the name of Thomas Matthew (probably a wealthy merchant who found the funds for the undertaking), was begun secretly in Antwerp. Meanwhile, another English translation of the Bible was in progress at the hands of Miles Coverdale, who was favoured by Cromwell. This translation was not made from the original, but was the result of a comparison of the Vulgate and the German translations. It was published secretly (probably at Zurich) in 1535, and dedicated to Henry VIII., to whom it was presented by Cranmer and Cromwell. Tyndale's version, as edited by Rogers, was completed from Coverdale's translation. It was published by Grafton, an English printer, in 1537, and received the king's licence. The royal sanction given to this translation marked the final victory of the party which was in favour of doctrinal reform. From this time the knowledge of the Scriptures was no longer regarded as dangerous for the people, but was expressly sanctioned. The circulation of translations of the Scriptures was eagerly promoted. In 1539 was published at London an edition of Matthew's Bible, slightly revised by R. Taverner. In 1540 a considerable revision of this version was made under Cranmer's direction, and Cranmer's Bible, known also as the Great Bible, was the first "appointed to be read in churches" by royal command. In 1542 a reaction set in. The Roman party objected to Cranmer's Bible, and endeavoured to obtain a revision in their own favour. Henry VIII., by Act of Parliament, forbade the perusal of the New Testament in English to women, labourers, and uneducated persons. During the reigns of Edward VI. and Mary nothing more was done in the way of translation. But at the beginning of the reign of Elizabeth appeared a new version, known as the Genevan Bible, because it was the work of English exiles at Geneva, where it was first published in 1560. Chief among the translators were Goodman, Whittingham, and Knox. It was translated from the Hebrew and the Greek, but, as was to be expected, betrayed leanings towards the theology of Calvin. In consequence of the existence of these various translations, Archbishop Parker thought it desirable to establish a uniform and amended edition. He accordingly distributed the various books of the Bible, as they stood in Cranmer's edition, amongst the bishops for revision, desiring them not to change the text save where it varied manifestly from the Hebrew or Greek original. The result of two years of revision was the publication, in 1568, of the Bishops' Bible. The Convocation of 1571 ordered that all Church officers should provide copies for use in their churches. Finally, the English Bible assumed its present form in the reign of James I. For the purpose of securing a complete revision, forty-seven of the most learned men in the kingdom were selected for the task. They divided themselves into three companies, which met at Westminster, Oxford, and Cambridge. Twenty-five undertook the Old Testament, fifteen the New Testament, and seven the Apocrypha. They worked under rules laid down by the king for their guidance. They were bidden to take as their basis the Bishops' Bible, and depart from it only when necessary. The work done by the separate committees was afterwards supervised and reduced to regularity by a committee of six persons. After three years' labour the version known as the Authorised Version was produced. Some doubt, however, exists as to the nature of the authorisation. It bears on its title-page the words "appointed to be read in churches;" but there exists no record of any authoritative or exclusive authorisation. However, either by royal authority or by natural selection, the version of 1611 has ousted its predecessors, and for two centuries and a half has been exclusively used in England. In 1870 the conviction that increased knowledge both of the text and of the language of the original required an alteration of the Authorised Version, found expression in the Convocation of the Province of Canterbury. Two companies for the revision of the Authorised Version were appointed, one for the Old Testament, the other for the New. The members were chosen from Biblical scholars of various Protestant denominations, and committees were formed in America for the purpose of acting with the English revisers. Following previous precedent, the object of the revisers was the revision of the Authorised Version with as few changes as was consistent with faithfulness. The revised version of the New Testament was published early in 1880, of the Old Testament in May, 1886.

Anderson, *Annals of the English Bible*; Cotton, *Hist. of Editions of the English Bible*; Madden and Forshall, *Wyclifite Versions*. [M. C.]

Bidassoa, The Passage of the (Oct. 7, 1813), by the English in the Peninsular War, was a well-planned surprise of a remarkably strong position. The French held the heights of a lofty mountain group—the Rhune, the Commissari, and the Bayonette—and they had also strengthened their position by artificial works. Wellington, with great skill, concealed the real point of his attack. Suddenly, in the early morning of the 7th, the columns of attack forded the river with such celerity that the French had not even fired a gun before the troops formed up on the right bank. One after another the three ridges—the

Bayonette, Commissari, and Puerto de Vera—were successively carried; but Clausel fell back on the Rhune, the strongest of all, and held it during the night. On the next day, afraid of being cut off, he retreated, and concentrated his forces on the ridge behind Sarre. The loss of the allies was 1,600, that of the French 200 less; but many of the reported losses among the former were really stragglers, who were becoming more numerous every day.

Napier, *Peninsular War;* Clinton, *Peninsular War.*

Bigod, Family of. Roger Bigod, a poor Norman knight, entered England with William the Conqueror, and in 1075 received a grant of a large part of the confiscated lands of Ralph of Wader, Earl of East Anglia. His elder son William was drowned in the White Ship, 1120; his younger, Hugh, obtained the earldom of Norfolk from Stephen (date uncertain), was confirmed in it by Henry II., and took part in the revolt of 1174. His son Roger, second earl and godson (afterwards third earl), was among the twenty-five executors of Magna Charta. Hugh, third earl, married Maud, eldest co-heiress of William Marshall, Earl of Pembroke, and had two sons—Roger, fourth earl, who inherited the Marshalship of England through his mother, and died without issue; and Hugh, who was appointed Justiciar by the Barons in 1258, and whose son Roger succeeded his uncle in the earldom in 1270. It was this Bigod who helped to secure the Confirmation of the Charters. He surrendered his earldom and estates, in 1302, to the king, and received them back for life only; and though he left a brother, upon his death in 1307, the earldom became extinct in the Bigod family.

Billeting soldiers in private houses had become such an oppressive burden under Charles I. that one of the clauses in the Petition of Right is expressly directed against the practice of quartering soldiers or mariners on private individuals against their will. The practice, however, still continued until an Act passed in 1681 provided that "no officer, military or civil, or other persons, shall quarter or billet any soldier upon any inhabitant of the realm of any degree, quality, or profession without his consent." This Act is suspended annually by the Mutiny Act, which allows soldiers to be billeted on innkeepers and victuallers.

Bills, Parliamentary, are either public, dealing with matters of public policy, or private, being such as concern personal or local interests. The system by which legislation was founded on petition made it possible to alter the terms of the petition so that the statute should not really answer to the request, and even to found a statute on a petition in which the Commons had not concurred. These evils were remedied in the reign of Henry VI., when bills in the form of statutes began to be passed by both Houses. As the Commons have the sole right of taxation, the larger number of bills must originate with them. Bills on certain subjects, such as religion and trade, must originate in Committee of the whole House. The mode of procedure with reference to bills is nearly the same in both Houses. In the Commons, however, a member has to obtain leave to bring in a bill, but this is not the case in the Lords. When leave is moved for, the title of the bill is read and its object is usually stated. If the motion is agreed to, the bill is ordered. It is then presented, and the question is put that it be *now* read the first time. This question must be decided without amendment or debate. If it is negatived, the bill disappears from the orders, but the question may be again brought forward. If it is carried, the question is put that it be read a second time, a day is fixed for the second reading, and the bill is printed. When the day comes the bill appears in the orders, and the question is put that it be *now* read a second time. This is the critical stage, and the whole principle can now be made a matter of debate. A bill may be opposed at all its stages, but as it is at this point that opposition is generally made, it is well to speak of this subject here. It is usual, in opposing a bill, to do so by an amendment of postponement for three or six months, or by some resolution contrary to the tenor of the measure. "The previous question" may also be moved. By this means, however, the bill is not extinguished and can be ordered for another day, while the postponement of a bill to a time when Parliament will not be sitting, or the adoption of an adverse resolution, puts an end to it for the session. It is unusual to reject a bill in direct terms, and such a course would imply that it contained matter offensive to the House. When the bill has been read a second time, it is brought before the Committee of the whole House, and receives any amendments which may be made to it. When it has received its final shape it is reported to the House. It has then to be read a third time, and after that the question is put "That this bill do pass," and on this it is not usual to divide. It is then sent up to the Lords or down to the Commons, as the case may be, and may be amended or rejected by the House which receives it. If it is amended, it is again sent to the House in which it originated, and if the amendments are disagreed upon, it is usual to send a message to state the reasons of the disagreement, or to desire a conference. When the bill is passed by both Houses it receives the royal assent, which may be given by commission, in the words, "La reine le veult." The form of dissent, "La reine s'avisera," has not been used since 1707, so that the crown may perhaps be said to have relinquished its right in this matter. All money bills must originate

with the Commons, and, though the Lords may reject a money bill, they may not amend it. This gave rise to the unconstitutional practice of "tacking," by which, when the House of Commons wished to force a measure on the Lords, it was tacked on to a money bill, so that the Lords had to pass the bill entire or refuse the supply. This plan was adopted on the questions of the Irish Forfeitures, 1699, and of the Occasional Conformity Bill, 1705. The rejection by the Lords of the bill repealing the paper duty, 21st May, 1860, was viewed with much jealousy by the Commons. Such rejection is now made almost impossible by including the whole financial scheme of the budget in a single Act.

Petitions to Parliament on private matters occasioned the appointment of Receivers and Triers of Petitions. These officers, if they found no redress for the wrong complained of in the Courts, referred the matter to Parliament. Petitions to the Commons are frequent from the reign of Henry IV. From these petitions private bills took their rise. These pass through the same stages as public bills. In dealing with them the judicial functions of Parliament are especially prominent. Private bills are brought in on petition and at the expense of the promoters. Before a private bill is brought in, it is subjected to Examiners of both Houses, who see that the standing orders are complied with. The second reading of a private bill affirms the claim, but only on the supposition that the facts stated in the preamble can be made good. It is referred, if opposed, to a Select or Special Committee to decide on this, and by this Committee the question between the petitioners and their opponents is heard and determined. [PARLIAMENT.]

Sir T. E. May, *Parliamentary Practice*; and the authorities given under PARLIAMENT.

[W. H.]

Bingham, SIR RICHARD, who was employed in Ireland, 1580, was one of Elizabeth's most able naval officers. In 1586 he was employed on service in Ireland, and cut to pieces a Scotch force which had landed to join the rebels on the banks of the Moy. He was subsequently made Governor of Connaught, and, whilst holding that office, gained considerable notoriety by putting to death all the Spaniards who were wrecked on the coast of Ireland after the dispersion of the Armada in 1588.

Birinus (*d.* 650), the apostle of Wessex, was probably an Italian by birth, and was commissioned by Pope Honorius to "scatter the seeds of the holy faith in those farthest inland territories of the English which no teacher had yet visited," but landing in Hampshire in 634 he found that Wessex was still in heathenism, and accordingly preached the Gospel there, meeting with immediate success. The two kings, Cynegils and Cwichelm, were baptised, and Birinus was made first Bishop of Dorchester (on the Thames), whence he "went up and down among the West Saxons—that is, from Dorset to Buckinghamshire, from Surrey to the Severn—preaching, catechising, baptising, calling many people to the Lord, and building and dedicating churches."

Anglo-Saxon Chron.; Bede, *Hist. Eccles.*; W Bright, *Early Eng. Church Hist.*

Birmingham, JOHN, EARL OF LOUTH (*d.* 1329), was descended from the Lords of Athenry, and was nominated, in 1318, commander-in-chief of the English forces in Ireland. He won the battle of Dundalk, and sent Edward Bruce's head to Edward III. As a reward for this service, and for his prowess in fighting the O'Connors, he was made Earl of Louth. He was afterwards engaged as the ally of the Butlers and of the Earl of Desmond in their feud with the houses of De Burgh and Poer. In 1329 he, together with some 160 noblemen and gentlemen, was treacherously murdered by the "Germans and savages."

Birmingham, as a market town, is of considerable antiquity. Previous to the Conquest it formed part of the possessions of a family of the same name, and the manor continued to belong to the Birminghams till the sixteenth century. In Leland's time it was already known for its cutlery and hardware manufactures. During the Civil War Prince Rupert's passage through the town, in 1643, was resolutely opposed by the inhabitants, and a sharp skirmish took place. Birmingham shared largely in the industrial movement at the close of the 18th century, and rapidly reached a position of importance among English towns. Its inhabitants took a very prominent share in the transactions which led to the Reform Bill of 1832. It received the franchise by that measure, a municipal constitution by the Municipal Corporations Act of 1835, was granted a University in 1901, and created a bishopric in 1904. Birmingham sends seven members to Parliament.

Birmingham Political Union, THE, was an association formed in the beginning of 1830. Its original purpose was to obtain a repeal of the Act of 1819 for the resumption of cash payments; but it soon adopted the programme of Parliamentary Reform, and became the centre of the agitation for that purpose. As early as Feb., 1830, it was noticed and denounced in the House of Commons by Huskisson. Its leading member was Mr. Attwood, who afterwards sat in the reformed Parliament for Birmingham. The original design was "to form a general political union between the lower and middle classes of the people;" and as the political unions of many other places were affiliated to that of Birmingham, it may be said that the reform agitators of that town were practically

at the head of the movement. When the House of Lords showed a disposition to reject the Bill, immense meetings were held under the auspices of the Birmingham Union, in which threats of refusal to pay taxes, and even of open violence, were freely used. In 1831 a proclamation was issued against political unions, and, in consequence, the Birmingham Union considerably modified its organisation. It continued, however, to display great activity, and on the 7th of May, 1832, all the Unions of the Midland Counties assembled at Newhall Hill, Birmingham, to the number of 150,000 members. Such proofs of the determination of the country had their effect on the House of Lords, and brought about the final acceptance of the Bill.

Birmingham Riots (1791) arose out of the intolerant party spirit which was largely evoked in England by the events of the French Revolution of 1789. In many places associations had been formed for the celebration of the 14th July, as the anniversary of the Revolution. The extreme Tories, who styled themselves "the friends of order," everywhere took alarm; and in Birmingham a handbill was circulated in which the principles and objects of the association were grossly exaggerated or misrepresented. The association at once denied its authenticity, and at first thought of giving up the meeting in consequence of the feeling excited by the circular. This opinion was, however, overruled; and the meeting took place on the 14th July. While the members of the association were at dinner, the hotel was surrounded by a mob, who, after shouting, "Church and King!" for half an hour, retired only to return in redoubled force. They then broke into the house, but found that the members had fled. Baffled and disappointed, they diverted their fury upon two Dissenting chapels, which they demolished. They next attacked the house of Dr. Priestley, and setting fire to it burnt it, together with the valuable library of its owner; and for two days and nights they carried on the work of destruction against the property of prominent Dissenters. On the third day their efforts slackened, and on the fourth several squadrons of cavalry coming into the town soon restored order.

Langford, *Birmingham*; Adolphus, *Hist. of Eng.*

Bishop. The highest order of clergy in the Church. The early British Church was organised under bishops, three of whom were present at the Council of Arles in 314. Christianity, which died away before the invasion of the English, was brought back in southern England by the Roman missionary Augustine, who, under the direction of Pope Gregory I., established bishops to direct the ecclesiastical affairs of his converts. In Northumbria the Columban missionaries had monastic bishops after their custom. When the conversion of England was completed, and the Church united under the Roman organisation, Archbishop Theodore (669—693) carried out the work of diocesan arrangement. The whole of England was divided into dioceses which were the sphere of administration of a bishop. England was also divided into two ecclesiastical provinces, over each of which was set an archbishop. The mode of electing bishops seems to have varied: sometimes the clergy appointed, sometimes the king in the Witenagemot. The bishops sat in the Witenagemot, and also in the shire-moots; they had temporal jurisdiction within their own lands; moreover, they exercised a penitential discipline over moral offenders, and judged the offences of the clergy. The connection between Church and State was close, and we find no disputes between the ecclesiastical and secular jurisdiction. Similarly, national or provincial councils made canons for the Church, frequently in the presence of the king and ealdormen. Bishops soon showed themselves statesmen, and Dunstan may be reckoned as the first great English minister. After the Norman Conquest William I. recognised the political importance of bishops by dispossessing the English occupants of their sees and setting Normans in their stead. Archbishop Lanfranc was in all things William I.'s chief adviser, and by his influence the ecclesiastical courts were separated from the secular courts. The bishops no longer held pleas in the hundred court or shire court, but in courts of their own, which alone decided spiritual cases according to canon law. William II. applied to the lands of bishops the full rigour of feudal extortion, and kept bishoprics vacant that he might himself receive their revenues. Under Henry I. Anselm raised the question of investitures—he refused to receive at the hands of the king investiture to a spiritual office. The result of this conflict was a compromise, by which it was agreed that bishops were to receive the emblems of their spiritual office from spiritual persons, and were to do homage to the king for their temporalities. By this change the bishops were not really benefited; their constitutional position was made more like that of barons, and lost much of its distinctive character. The election to bishoprics, according to the canons, was invested in the chapter of the cathedral churches; but practically their right was exercised in accordance with the royal will. The methods of capitular elections frequently led to disputes, which were referred to the decision of the Pope. In 1206 Pope Innocent III. rejected both the nominee of the king and of the Chapter of Canterbury, and appointed Stephen Langton archbishop. From this time the Popes frequently appointed, and appeals were common. The system of pro-

visions was in the next century extended to bishoprics. But as the crown grew stronger in the next century the king nominated, and the Pope appointed the same person by provision. Papal interference was strong enough to overthrow the rights of chapters, but was powerless against a strong king.

The bishops of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries were a strong element in the resistance to the royal oppression, and rank amongst the staunchest upholders of English liberties. But the growth of Lollardism in the fourteenth century led them to support the crown, and under Henry VIII. they were unable to oppose the royal will. The alternations of religious policy in the reigns of Edward VI., Mary, and Elizabeth, led to frequent deprivations, imprisonment, and in the case of Cranmer, Ridley, and Latimer, to the execution of bishops. In the reigns of Edward VI. and Elizabeth the rapacity of courtiers despoiled the sees of many of their possessions. Elizabeth showed her bishops scant courtesy, suspended them at her pleasure, and even threatened them with deposition. From that time, with the exception of the reign of Charles I., bishops exercised little political influence. Under the Commonwealth episcopacy was abolished and bishops were dispossessed of their sees till the Restoration. The petition of the seven bishops to James II. against his declaration of indulgence, and their subsequent trial for libel and acquittal, is the last time when the action of bishops materially affected the course of English history.

At present a bishop is the head of the clergy within his diocese. He has the power of ordaining priests and deacons, of consecrating churches, and performing certain ecclesiastical acts according to the law of the Church; he is an ecclesiastical judge in certain cases within his diocese, and exercises disciplinary power over his clergy. There are two archbishops and thirty-five bishops in England and Wales. The Archbishops of Canterbury and York, and the Bishops of London, Durham, and Winchester, always sit as lords spiritual in the House of Lords; of the other bishops, twenty-one are summoned (apart from Suffragans) in order of seniority of creation. The Bishop of Sodor and Man is in no case a lord spiritual, and by an Act of 1847, it was enacted that the number of lords spiritual should not be increased by the creation of new bishoprics. The election to bishoprics was settled by an Act of 1544; providing that the king send to the dean and chapter his licence to elect, called his *congé d'élire*, which is always accompanied by a statement of the person whom he would have them elect; if they delay above twelve days the king may nominate. In the year 1848 the Dean and Chapter of Hereford elected, according to the royal *congé d'élire*, Dr. Hampden; but at the time of his confirmation objections against him were tendered. The Court of Queen's Bench decided that these objections need not be received, as the *congé d'élire* was imperative. Thus the appointment to bishoprics is practically vested in the crown. [SUFFRAGAN, Supplement.]

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops of Canterbury*; *Diocesan Histories*, published by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge; Burns and Phillimore, *Ecclesiastical Law*; Godwin, *De Præsulibus Angliæ*.

[M. C.]

Bishopric. The sphere within which a bishop exercises his authority. In the British Church there seem to have been three bishoprics corresponding to the three provinces into which Britain was divided by the Romans. When in 597 Pope Gregory I. sent Augustine to evangelise England, his scheme for ecclesiastical organisation was that London and York should be the centres of the island. Augustine was to be Bishop of London with twelve suffragans, and was to send another to York, who was in turn to have twelve suffragans. This scheme was not fully carried out; but the formation of sees marks the progress of the conversion of England, and the sees followed the divisions of kingdoms or tribes. Augustine at Canterbury was Bishop of Kent; in 604 he set up Justus at Rochester as Bishop of West Kent, and Mellitus at London as Bishop of the East Saxons. In 625, Paulinus was ordained Bishop of the Northumbrians with his see at York; but the work of Paulinus did not last, and Northumbria received Christianity from the Columban monks of Iona, one of whom, Aidan, was made Bishop of Lindisfarne in 635. In 630 Felix created the see of East Anglia at Dunwich. In 635 the West Saxons received as bishop Birinus, who fixed his seat at Dorchester. The see of Mercia was, in 650, set up at Lichfield. Thus the early kingdoms received bishops, and were converted into ecclesiastical dioceses. The further organisation of England was due to the energy of the Archbishop of Canterbury, Theodore, a monk of Tarsus, who laboured from 669 to 693. He broke up the large dioceses, but in so doing followed the lines of tribal arrangements that were earlier than the seven kingdoms. He divided East Anglia into north and south, and set a bishop over the northern part at Elmham in 673. He established a see for the Hecanas at Hereford in 676, and for the Lindiswaras at Sidnachester in 678. The Northumbrian Church had before this conformed to the Roman use. Its large extent was divided by the recognition of York as the see of the Deirans, while Bernicia was divided between Lindisfarne and Hexham, which was made a see in 678; in 681 the Northumbrian dominions in Strathclyde received a bishop at Whithern. In 680 the Hwiccas had a bishop at Worcester, and the Middle Angles at Leicester.

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THE SEVEN BISHOPS.

From the picture in the National Portrait Gallery.

WILLIAM LLOYD, BISHOP OF ST. ASAPH. FRANCIS TURNER, BISHOP OF ELY

JOHN LAKE, BISHOP OF CHICHESTER. THOMAS KEN, BISHOP OF BATH AND WELLS.

WILLIAM SANCROFT ARCHBISHOP OF CANTERBURY.

THOMAS WHITE, BISHOP OF PETERBOROUGH JONATHAN TRELAWNEY, BISHOP OF BRISTOL.

In 705 Wessex was divided by a new see at Sherborne, and in 709 a mission see for the South Saxons was set up at Selsey. In 909 King Edward the Elder divided the see of Sherborne, and gave the men of Somerset a bishop at Wells, and the men of Devon a bishop at Crediton. The troubles of Northumbria affected its episcopal arrangements; after 814 no Bishop of Hexham was appointed, and through the ravages of the Picts the bishopric of Whithern ceased about 810. In 875 the monks of Lindisfarne were driven to quit their monastery, carrying with them the body of St. Cuthbert. In 882 they settled at Chester-le-Street, whence they were again driven in 990, and finally settled at Durham in 995.

At the time of the Norman Conquest episcopal sees were transferred from villages to cities, as being more convenient. Already in 1050 the see of Crediton had been changed to Exeter. In 1075 the see of Sherborne was removed to Old Sarum, that of Selsey to Chichester, and that of Lichfield to Coventry. The see of Dorchester was removed to Lincoln in 1085. In 1088 the see of Wells was transferred to Bath; that of Elmham, which had been transferred to Thetford in 1078, was finally established in Norwich in 1101. With the gradual conquest of South Wales the British Church lost its independence, and received Norman bishops. The Archbishop of St. David's (who had never perhaps exercised any practical authority over the other Welsh bishops) became a suffragan of the province of Canterbury in 1115; Bangor and Llandaff soon afterwards; and the see of St. Asaph was established (or possibly only re-established) in 1143. Moreover, Henry I. cared for the interests of the Church in England by subdividing the huge diocese of Lincoln in 1109, and setting a bishop over the great minster of Ely. In like manner the allegiance of the new English possession of Cumberland was strengthened by the appointment of a Bishop of Carlisle in 1133.

From this time till the Reformation no new sees were created. After the dissolution of the monasteries, Henry VIII. made some show of restoring the goods of the Church by the creation of six new bishoprics—Westminster in 1540, Gloucester, Chester, Peterborough, and Oxford in 1541, Bristol in 1542. The see of Westminster did not long continue. Its first occupant, Thomas Thirlby, wasted its possessions; he was translated to Norwich in 1550, and the see was dissolved. In 1542 the ancient see of Sodor and Man, which was founded by Pope Gregory IV., was annexed to the province of York; but as the island of Man did not come into the possession of the crown till 1825, its bishop was never a peer of Parliament. No further creations were made till the increase of population in the nineteenth century led to the formation of the see of Ripon in 1836, and of Manchester in 1847. In 1836 the sees of Gloucester and Bristol were united, but were again separated in 1897. Recently new sees have been created by voluntary effort, according to the provision of an Act of Parliament. The sees of Truro and St. Albans were founded in 1877, that of Liverpool in 1880, that of Newcastle in 1882, that of Southwell in 1883, that of Wakefield in 1888, that of Southwark in 1904, and that of Birmingham in 1904. [M. C.]

Bishopric, The. A special title given to the patrimony of St. Cuthbert, which was ruled by the Bishops of Durham. On Cuthbert's consecration as Bishop of Lindisfarne in 683, Egfrith, the Northumbrian king, made him large grants of land round Lindisfarne, as well as the vill of Craik near York, and the town of Carlisle. In 883 the monks of Lindisfarne were fleeing with the body of their patron saint before the Danish invaders. The Danish king was dead, and his host was without a leader. St. Cuthbert appeared in a vision to Abbot Eadred, and bade him tell the Danes to take as their king a young captive who was a slave. The Danes obeyed the admonition, and their new king Guthred, aided by the advice of Alfred the Great, showed his gratitude by conferring on St. Cuthbert the land between the Tyne and the Tees. Over this new grant, and the old lands of the church of Lindisfarne, the bishop was given the rights and dignities of the king. Bishop Cutheard (900—915) purchased the ancient parish of Bedlington north of the Tyne, with an area of thirty square miles, and received a grant of similar jurisdiction over it. It is probable that William the Conqueror, finding this state of things, considered it desirable to leave it unchanged, and recognised the lands of the church of Durham as a county palatine. [Palatine Counties.] The *Bishopric* was not co-extensive with the *diocese* of Durham. It consisted of the modern county of Durham, and the districts known as Bedlingtonshire, Islandshire, and Norhamshire. Within this the bishop held his own courts and appointed his own officers; writs ran in his name, and he had his own mint. The men of the bishopric were similarly privileged, and went by the name of *Haliwerefolc*, men for the defence of St. Cuthbert and his patrimony. This exceptional position continued till the Ecclesiastical Commissioners recommended its abolition in 1833, and with the death of Bishop van Mildert, in 1836, the bishopric came to an end.

Surtees, *History of Durham*; Raine, *History of North Durham*. Symeonis Monachi, *Historia Ecclesiæ Dunelmensis*, in Twysden, *Decem Scriptores*.

[M. C.]

Bishops, The Seven, is the appellation usually given to the prelates who were tried for their resistance to James II.'s

Declaration of Indulgence (q.v.). On April 25th, 1688, the king issued his second Declaration of Indulgence, and on May 4th an Order in Council enjoined that it should be read in all churches on two successive Sundays, the bishops being required to distribute copies of it in their dioceses. The Primate Sancroft and six bishops (Ken of Bath and Wells, White of Peterborough, Lloyd of St. Asaph, Trelawny of Bristol, Lake of Chichester, and Turner of Ely) drew up and presented a petition, declaring the loyalty of the Church, but begging to be excused from reading in Divine service an illegal declaration, since Parliament had declared that the sovereign had no power to dispense with statutes. "This is the standard of rebellion," James said as he read it; and, when only four churches in London obeyed the order, he determined to take his revenge by trying the bishops for publishing a seditious libel. The bishops, after having at the king's command acknowledged their writing, were committed to the Tower, where they were visited by many Whig peers and a deputation of Nonconformist sympathisers. When the trial came on, the handwriting was proved by the evidence of the clerk, who had heard the bishops' confession; and Sunderland, whom they had begged to present it, proved the publishing. Among the counsel for the defence was Somers, afterwards Chancellor, whose speech on this occasion created his reputation. After some hours' disputing, the king's brewer, who was on the jury, was persuaded to risk the loss of royal patronage, and a verdict of *Not Guilty* was returned (June 30th). The action of the king in this matter lost him the active support of the Church, and disposed it to at least acquiesce in the measures of William of Orange.

Macaulay, *Hist.*, ch. viii.; Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*, bk. xvii., ch. vii.

Black Act, The (1722), was the name given to an Act passed to check the outrages committed by persons with their faces blackened or otherwise disguised, who appeared in Epping Forest, near Waltham, and destroyed the deer. The penalty of death was imposed on all such transgressions of the law. The Act was made perpetual in 1758, but was repealed in 1827.

Black Assize. [Assize.]

Blackburn Riots, The (1826), were a demonstration by the weavers of Lancashire against the use of machinery. In April a large number of persons assembled at Henfield and proceeded to Accrington, where they demolished the machinery in several mills. The mob then proceeded to Blackburn, and, though a party of dragoons arrived there as soon as the rioters, they could not prevent them from breaking into the factory of Messrs. Bannister, Eccles and Co. A collision occurred; stones and firearms were freely used by the mob; and the Riot Act was read. A great deal of Messrs. Eccles' machinery was destroyed, and much damage done all through the town; and the excitement became so dangerous that the dragoons were ordered to clear the streets. The following day a great deal of destruction was completed, and another collision occurred between the rioters and the military, in which the former were finally routed by a discharge of musketry, nine persons being killed and several wounded. Similar riots broke out next day in Manchester. Troops, however, quickly poured into the disturbed districts, and the riotous assemblages were at an end.

Black Death, The. This name has been given to an epidemic disease of fearful destructiveness which devastated England, in common with the rest of Europe, in 1348—9, and, burst forth anew in 1361—2, and again in 1369. In contemporary and later literature it is usually called the "Pestilence," or the "Great Pestilence," under the former of which expressions it is mentioned by both Chaucer and Langland. It is regarded as having been merely an aggravated outburst of the ordinary plague, which had been smouldering among the population since 1342, and was suddenly kindled into fatal activity by the working of special causes, due to natural phenomena of rare concurrence and exceptional power. The forces of nature, we are told, had been let loose; for several years mighty earthquakes, furious tornadoes of wind and rain, violent floods, clouds of locusts darkening the air or poisoning it with their corrupting bodies, and other abnormal manifestations of elemental strife, had been, from China to Europe, destroying men and their works, blighting vegetation, turning fruitful lands into noxious swamps, and polluting the atmosphere. Whether these disturbances of nature were answerable for the visitation may be questioned; but there is abundance of evidence to prove their actual occurrence, and the ablest scientific writer on the subject—Hecker—has no doubt of the connection between the adulteration of the air that followed them and the virulence of the pestilence. "This disease," he says, "was a consequence of violent commotions in the earth's organism—if any disease of cosmical origin can be so considered." It would be safe at least to suspect that the lingering traces of the epidemic of 1342, and the general physical demoralisation produced by the disturbance of the conditions of life, left men's bodies an easier prey to the malignant agency. The quickening power, however, came from the East. Carried by commerce across the Black Sea from Western Asia to Constantinople, the disease spread widely and swiftly from that centre, and

early in 1347 fell upon Sicily, Marseilles, and several towns on the coast of Italy. After a brief pause at these places, it broke out with unsparing fury at Avignon in January, 1348; advanced thence to Southern France, to Spain, to Northern Italy, and early in April appeared at Florence, where it came under the observation of Boccaccio, who has left a detailed account of its action. Passing through France and visiting, but not as yet ravaging, Germany, it made its way to England. This country it entered at some point in Dorset, where it cut down its first English victims in August, 1348. Thence it travelled—by way of Devon and Somerset, of Bristol, Gloucester, and Oxford —to London, but so slowly that winter had begun before it reached the capital. Soon it embraced the whole kingdom; no spot, however isolated, escaped its rage; England became a mere pest-house. Its chief symptoms in this country were spitting, in some cases actual vomiting, of blood, the breaking out of inflammatory boils in parts, or over the whole, of the body, and the appearance of those dark blotches upon the skin which suggested its most startling name. Some of its victims died almost on the first attack, some in twelve hours, some in two days, almost all within the first three. Before it medical skill was powerless; few recovered, until, as the plague drew towards its close, men bethought them of opening the hard, dry boils—a treatment that relieved the system of the venom and saved many lives. Contagion bore it everywhere; the clothes, the breath, everything the patient touched, the very air that surrounded him, were poisoned with it; even a glance of his eye, men fancied, might strike down the onlooker. Its career in England on this visitation lasted for about a year; but its destructive energy would seem to have been at its height between May, 1349, and the following Michaelmas, the summer heats doubtless stimulating its fury. The havoc it made in the population far exceeded that made by any similar scourge recorded in history; the exaggerations of a contemporary annalist, gross as they are, help us to realise its extent. "Towns, once close packed with men, were stripped of their inhabitants; and to so pernicious a power did the plague rise that the living were scarce able to bury the dead. In certain religious houses, out of twenty inmates there hardly survived two. By several it was reckoned that barely a tenth part of the population had been left alive." It is stated that it slew 100,000 human beings in London—50,000 of whom were buried in a plot of ground which Sir Walter Manny had bought for the purpose, a space now covered by Smithfield—nearly 60,000 in Norwich, and proportionate numbers in Bristol and other leading cities. These numbers are thought incredible; but one scrupulously careful living writer has found evidence which satisfies him that at least half the population died by this outbreak, whilst another, of equal industry, admits that the full sum of the victims cannot have been less than a third. And the leaning of historians is generally towards the higher reckoning, by which the actual carnage would amount, at highest, to 2,500,000, at lowest, to 1,500,000, for the estimates of the population at the time range from 3,000,000 to 5,000,000. For obvious reasons, the mortality was greatest among the clergy and the humbler classes; yet the contagion reached even the highest. A newly-elected Primate, Bradwardine, and Edward III's. daughter, Joan, caught it and perished. For a time its progress seemed arrested by the Scottish border, and "the foul death of the English" is said to have been a favourite oath with the Scots, who felt a malicious pleasure in their enemies' misfortunes; but the scoffers soon involved themselves in the same disasters by making a foolish raid into England, and the work of death went forward in Scotland also. The disease passed over to Ireland, where, if report can be trusted, it discriminated between the intruding English and the natives; the former were taken and the latter left. Its immediate effects on society were of the kind usual in such frightful calamities. Humanity showed itself at its worst and its best: there was much reckless profligacy and revolting selfishness, but not a few examples of self-sacrificing devotion. The terror-stricken rushed to religion for comfort and help; many gave up lands and goods, and sought a haven in monasteries; an earlier and fierce fanaticism—that of the Flagellants—was reorganised, and fascinated or horrified men by its ghastly ritual. The permanent impression that the Black Death made on the human memory is shown in several ways—in this conspicuously, that it was set up as a fixed mark to reckon time from; it was long a practice to date charters and legal instruments from it. Far more important were its economic and remoter historical consequences. The great social movement of the fourteenth century gained by it an impetus, if not an originating force, and found in it the most favourable conditions of success; it led, by regular stages, to the rising of the commons under Wat Tyler; and the whole system of farming was revolutionised by it. It has even been surmised that England owes to it the picturesque hedge-rows that divide her fields. It is certain that the wages of labour at once more than doubled through the scarcity of labourers; that proclamations were issued and statutes were passed fixing the price of labour at its former rate, and imposing penalties on all who demanded or gave more; that, these proving ineffective, others, and again others, were passed with the same aim

and a like result; that ill feeling arose between those who lived *by* and those who lived *on* manual labour, which at last drove the working classes into rebellion. And the difficulty of getting their lands tilled by the old method of villein services and hired labour forced the lords and religious houses to break up their estates, hitherto managed for them by bailiffs, into farms, which they let on leases to the actual tillers of the soil. But this was the issue of a long and complicated process, the details of which are too abundant to be given here. The visitations of 1361—2 and 1369 were also formidable in the extent of their ravages, yet mild as compared with their terrible predecessor. They may be regarded as stages in the gradual settling down of the "great mortality" into the endemic state that it remained in for centuries.

Hecker, *Epidemics of the Middle Ages*; J. E. T. Rogers, *History of Agriculture and Prices in England*, vol. i.; Longman, *Life of Edward III.*; Papers in vols. ii. and iii. of *Fortnightly Review*, by F. Seebohm and J. E. T. Rogers; Creighton, *Epidemics of the Middle Ages*. [J. R.]

Black Dog of Arden, The, was the nickname applied by Piers Gaveston to Guy, Earl of Warwick. "Does he call me dog?" said Warwick. "Let him beware lest I bite him."

Walsingham, *Hist. Anglic.* (Rolls Series), vol. i. 115, 133.

Black Friday was the name given to the 11th of May, 1866, when a commercial panic was at its height.

Black Hole of Calcutta, The (June 20, 1756). Suraj-ud-Dowlah, the Nawab of Bengal, a young man, cruel, effeminate, and debauched, who succeeded Aliverdi Khan early in 1756, was greatly enraged with the English at Calcutta for concealing a fugitive from him. He marched down on Calcutta on June 18 on the pretence that the English had erected some new fortifications without consulting him. The town was ill-prepared to resist an assault, and was moreover weakened by the disgraceful desertion of Mr. Drake, the governor, with the military commandant, who slipped off unperceived, and rowed down to the ships. Mr. Holwell was thereupon placed in command by common consent, and the fort was gallantly held for forty-eight hours, when it became necessary to surrender. The Nawab gave Mr. Holwell every assurance of protection, and retired about dusk to his encampment. In spite of this the prisoners, 146 in number, were thrust into a narrow chamber, some twenty feet square, which had been used as the prison of the garrison, and, however suited for the confinement of a few turbulent soldiers, meant simply death to the crowd thrust into it at the sword's point in one of the hottest nights of the most sultry season of the year. The agonies endured during this terrible night were horrible beyond expression. The night was intensely hot, and as the torments of thirst and suffocation came upon them, the prisoners struggled with one another for a mouthful of fresh air at the windows. They insulted the guards to induce them to fire on them. The majority died in raving madness; and the few who survived owed their lives to the freer ventilation obtained by standing on the bodies of their dead or dying companions. Twenty-three ghastly survivors alone were dragged out the next morning. Mr. Holwell was so broken that he had to be carried before the Nawab, who manifested no compunction at the results of his infamous cruelty.

J. Z. Holwell's *Genuine Narrative*, &c., 1758; Mill, *Hist. of India*, vol. iv., chap. iii.; and the striking account in Macaulay's Essay on Lord Clive.

Black Mail was the compulsory payment exacted by the border chieftains from the dwellers in the more civilised districts on the English side in return for the protection of their cattle and goods. The levy of black mail was made a felony by 43 Eliz., c. 13 (1601). The name was also given to the payment made to the chiefs of some of the Highland clans by those who lived in their neighbourhood in return for the immunity of their cattle from capture. It did not entirely cease till 1745.

Black Mountain War, The (1868). The Hussunzye tribe of Afghans, inhabiting the Agror Valley in the Black Mountain range, broke out into hostilities and attacked a police station. As they showed no disposition to submit, General Wylde was sent against them, Sept. 26th, and after various operations, which lasted till the 7th of Nov., reduced the insurgents, who submitted, and the force was withdrawn on the 10th. [Lawrence, Lord.]

Black Prince. [Edward, The Black Prince.]

Black Sea Conference, The. In 1871, in consequence of a declaration by Russia that she would no longer be bound by the Treaty of Paris of 1856 with regard to the navigation of the Black Sea, a Conference of the Powers was invited to meet at London to settle the questions. In assuming a right to abolish her own treaty engagements, there can be no doubt that Russia counted upon some general understanding she had arrived at with Prussia, to the effect that the latter power would assist her in effecting her wishes. Some delay arose in the assembling of the Conference owing to the anomalous position of France, but on Dec. 18th, Lord Granville received a formal intimation that a French plenipotentiary would present himself at the Conference. The emergency at Paris, however, prevented this, and the representatives

of the other powers proceeded to deliberate without France; but the Duke de Broglie, the French plenipotentiary, eventually appeared on March 13th. As the result of the Conference the Treaty of London was concluded. Its provisions were that articles XI., XIII., and XIV. of the Treaty of Paris, 1856, are abrogated; that the principle of closing the Dardanelles and Bosphorus is maintained with power to the Sultan to open the said straits to the fleets of friendly and allied powers, in the event that the execution of the stipulations of the Treaty of Paris should require it; that the commission for managing the navigation of the Danube should be continued in its present form for a further period of twelve years. The result of this treaty was to open the Black Sea to Russian ships of war, and to allow the Sultan to open the Dardanelles to foreign ships of war if the defence of his throne required it.

Black Watch, The, was the name originally given to the semi-independent bodies of Highlanders who were entrusted by the English government with the duty of keeping order in the Highlands. They were embodied as a regiment of the regular army (the 43rd, afterwards the 42nd) in 1740. Three years afterwards they were removed to London. In May, 1743, the greater part of the regiment mutinied, and set out northwards. They were pursued, surrounded, and compelled to surrender. Three ringleaders were put to death, and the remainder of the regiment sent to the West Indies and to Flanders. As a regiment of the regular army the Black Watch has since borne a distinguished part in nearly all the wars in which England has been engaged.

Blackheath, The Battle of (June 22, 1497), was fought between the troops of Henry VII. and the Cornish rebels. The rebels had taken up a strong position on a hill at Blackheath, within sight of London. The king had recalled the troops destined for service against Scotland, and had collected together at London a large army composed of all the fighting men in the neighbouring counties. He stationed one portion of his army (under his personal command) in St. George's Fields. A second detachment, under the command of the Earls of Oxford and Suffolk, was ordered to make a circuitous march round the hill occupied by the rebels, and take up as strong a position as possible in their rear. The remainder of his forces, under Lord Daubeny, he sent forward to attack the rebels in front. The Cornishmen fought bravely; but ill-armed, ill-led, without horse or artillery, they were unable to offer any long resistance to the disciplined, well-equipped troops who attacked them in front and rear simultaneously. Two thousand of their number were slain, and the remainder surrendered. Among the large number of prisoners were the rebel leaders Lord Audley, Michael Joseph, and Thomas Flammock, who were put to death.

Blacklow Hill, an eminence between Warwick and Coventry, was the scene of the execution of Piers Gaveston by the revolted barons under the Earls of Lancaster and Warwick in 1312.

Blackstone, Sir William (*b.* 1723, *d.* 1780), was the posthumous son of a Cheapside silk-mercer, and was educated at the Charterhouse and Pembroke College, Oxford. He obtained a fellowship at All Souls, and was called to the bar by the Middle Temple in 1746. His practice was never large, and after a few years he devoted his attention mainly to collegiate matters. As bursar of All Souls he showed administrative skill and zeal for reform; and the building of the Codrington Library was mainly due to his exertions. In 1757 he was elected to a fellowship at Queen's College, where his architectural activities again displayed themselves. A year later he was elected to the newly founded Vinerian Professorship of Law, and delivered from that chair the lectures which were subsequently (1765) embodied in the "Commentaries." The fame of his lectures caused him to return to a more active professional life. In 1761 he was appointed Principal of New Inn Hall, a post which he held for five years in the vain hope of establishing at Oxford a college for legal education. He also during this period sat in Parliament for Hendon and Westbury. From 1770 until his death he was one of the Judges of the Common Pleas. As a writer upon law his faults are mainly those of his age—an unscientific arrangement and a loose terminology. Bentham has exposed these faults with great vehemence, but at the same time does full justice to Blackstone's merits as an expounder. "He it is," he says, "who, first of all institutional writers, has taught jurisprudence to speak the language of the scholar and the gentleman." This sentence accurately represents Blackstone's claim to be remembered, and will explain why laymen regard his work with reverence and lawyers with indifference.

Besides the *Commentaries on the Laws of England*, of which numerous editions have appeared, Blackstone wrote several tracts on questions of constitutional law, that on the Middlesex Election, and on the Extent of the Powers of Parliament, being the two best known. The *Commentaries* have been rearranged with doubtful advantage by R. M. Kerr and Mr. Serjeant Stephen. A *Life* by J. C. Clitherow is prefaced to Blackstone's *Reports* (folio, 1781). A biography and list of works published, and in manuscript, by a "Gentleman of Lincoln's Inn" (Dr. Douglass), appeared in 1782. See also Montague Burrows, *Worthies of All Souls*, and Junius, *Letter* xviii.

[B. R. W.]

Blackwater, The Battle of (1598), was fought near the fort of that name in Tyrone. Hugh O'Neil, called the "arch rebel," here

defeated the English Marshal, Sir Henry Bagnall, who had marched to the relief of the fort. O'Neil killed the English leader with his own hands. One thousand five hundred of the English fell, and all their stores and ammunition were captured by the Irish, as well as the fort itself. The forces engaged on each side amounted to something like 5,000 men. This victory led at the time to an almost general revolt of the natives.

Sydney Papers; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*

Bladensberg, The Battle of (Aug. 24, 1814), fought during the American War, took its name from a small village on the left bank of the eastern branch of the Potomac. This position commanded the only bridge over the river; and here the American general, Winder, prepared to oppose the advance of the British, under General Ross, upon Washington. To effect their object it was necessary for the British to carry the bridge and the commanding position of the Americans. Ross accordingly formed his forces into two columns, one under Thornton, the other commanded by Brooke. The attack was entrusted to the former; and so fierce an onslaught did his column make upon the defenders of the bridge that it was carried immediately, together with a fortified house at the farther end. On the other side of the river, Thornton's column was joined by Brooke's men, and a general attack was made upon the American position. One impetuous charge carried it, and the whole American army broke in confusion, and, flying through Washington, never stopped till they had taken up a position on the heights of Georgetown. After a short rest, the British advanced, and on the same evening entered Washington without encountering any further opposition.

Blake, Robert (*b.* 1599, *d.* 1657), was born at Bridgewater and educated at Oxford. He sat in the Long Parliament as member for Bridgewater. At the outbreak of the Civil War he raised a regiment, took part in the defence of Bristol, and successfully held Taunton against the Royalists. In 1649 Colonel Blake was appointed one of the commanders of the navy, and shortly afterwards Warden of the Cinque Ports. He was eminently successful as a naval commander. He drove Prince Rupert from the British seas to take refuge in the Tagus, and, in January, 1651, destroyed almost the entire Royalist fleet in Malaga Harbour. Later in the year he recovered the Channel Island fortresses from the Royalists, and was made a member of the Council of State. In May, 1652, he fought a sharp but indecisive action with the Dutch in the Straits of Dover; and on September 18 defeated them in the Downs. In November he fought a terrible engagement against the Dutch under Van Tromp, whose forces were greatly superior. The English were defeated and compelled to take refuge in the Thames. Blake was present in the bloody and obstinate engagements in February and June, 1653, but, owing to ill-health, took no part in the great English victory of July 29, in which Van Tromp was killed. When war broke out between England and Spain in 1656, Blake was appointed to command the English fleet in the Mediterranean. In April he performed the daring feat of sailing into the harbour of Teneriffe in spite of the fire from the forts, and captured a large fleet of galleons which lay at anchor there. He died the year following, just as he was entering Plymouth Sound. He was buried in Westminster Abbey, but after the Restoration his remains were disinterred and hung at Tyburn. Clarendon speaks in very high terms of his ability as a naval commander. "He was the first man that declined the old track, and made it manifest that the science might be attained in less time than was imagined; and despised those rules which had been long in practice, to keep his ship and his men out of danger, which had been held in former times a point of great ability and circumspection; as if the principal art requisite in the captain of a ship had been to be sure to come safe home again."

Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion;* Whitelocke, *Memorials;* Guizot, *Cromwell;* Hepworth Dixon, *Robert Blake: Admiral and General at Sea.*

[F. S. P.]

Blanche, Daughter of Henry IV. (*b.* 1392, *d.* 1409), was married in 1403 to Louis of Bavaria, eldest son of the Emperor Rupert.

Blanche of Lancaster. [Lancaster.]

Blanche of Navarre, wife of Edward Crouchback (second son of Henry III.), and mother of Thomas of Lancaster (executed after the battle of Boroughbridge, 1320), was the daughter of Robert of Artois, brother of St. Louis, and the widow of Henry, King of Navarre.

Bland, John (*d.* 1555), the rector of Adisham in Kent, was one of the martyrs of the Protestant persecution of Mary's reign. Being convicted of heresy by a commission composed of Thornton, Bishop of Dover, Collins, the deputy of Cardinal Pole, and Nicholas Harpsfeld, the archdeacon, he was burnt at Canterbury.

Bland's Case (1586). John Bland, a currier of London, was brought to the bar of the House of Commons for using slanderous language, saying that the curriers could get no justice in the House, and that the shoemakers were unjustly favoured. On account of his poverty he was dismissed upon making his submission on his knees, and paying twenty shillings to the sergeant. This is an important precedent for the power of the House

of Commons to punish even non-members for offences against its privileges.

D'Ewes, *Journals of the Parliaments of Queen Elizabeth* (1682), p. 366.

Blanketeers. The name given to a body of Manchester workmen who met at St. Peter's Field, March 10, 1817, each man carrying a blanket or great coat with him. It was intended to join the Derby rioters, and march on London; but the attempt proved completely abortive.

Blasphemy. Before the Reformation, offences against religion, of which blasphemy was one, were almost exclusively dealt with in the ecclesiastical courts, and several statutes, passed in the fifteenth century, gave the bishops power to deal with the offence. These powers were not finally dropped till the temporary suppression of the ecclesiastical courts in 1640, and their revival after the Restoration without the *ex-officio* oath. In 1677 the common law writ, *de hæretico comburendo*, was abolished by Parliament; but the judges henceforward treated blasphemy as an offence at common law. It has been held to consist of denial of the being and providence of God, or uttering contumelious reproaches against Jesus Christ or the Holy Ghost, or denying the truth of Christianity. According to the celebrated judgment of Lord Hales in the case of *Rex* v. *Taylor*, "Christianity being parcel of the law of England, to reproach the Christian religion is to speak in subversion of the law:" but in a later case (1883) it has been held that a person may attack the fundamentals of religion without being guilty of a blasphemous libel "if the decencies of controversy are observed." [Reg. *v.* Foote and Ramsay, 1883.] Penalties against blasphemy were enacted by 9 and 11 Will. III., cap. 32, and by 53 Geo. III., c. 160. In Scotland a statute of 1661 prescribed the penalty of death for blasphemy, which was mitigated to fines and imprisonment by 6 Geo. IV., and 7 Will. IV., and 1 Vict., c. 5.

Sir J. Stephen, *Hist. of the Criminal Law*, ii. 396, &c.

Blenheim, The Battle of (Aug. 13, 1704), was fought during the third campaign in the War of the Spanish Succession. Louis XIV. had determined to menace Vienna, hoping to strike at the heart of the Austrian power, and at the same time to make full use of the assistance of his Bavarian ally. Marlborough, however, perceived his object and effected a junction with Prince Eugene, who commanded the Imperial forces in Würtemberg. They were hampered by their colleague, Prince Louis of Baden, a general of the old formal school. The Schellenberg, a hill above Donauwörth, was stormed, and the Bavarians driven from it. Next day Marshal Tallard effected a junction with the armies of Marshal Marsin and the Elector of Bavaria. Marlborough and Eugene got rid of Louis of Baden by persuading him to attack the fortress of Ingolstadt, and prepared for a decisive battle near Blindtheim or Blenheim. This village was situated on the northern bank of the Danube, near the place where it is joined by a little brook, the Nebel. About two miles away, and nearly parallel to the river, is a range of low wooded hills. The small stream of the Nebel runs from these hills. The Nebel divided the two armies. Marlborough commanded the left of the allied forces, Eugene the right. Tallard was opposed to Marlborough, the Elector of Bavaria and Marsin to Eugene. Tallard committed the great error of throwing all his best troops into Blenheim, thereby weakening the centre. The attack of Lord Cutts on the village was repulsed. Marlborough, seeing the weakness of the French centre, threw his cavalry across the Nebel, and after a terrific struggle cut the French line in two. Meanwhile, on the right, Eugene only saved the battle by the steadiness of his Prussian infantry. He had been greatly hampered by the difficulties of the ground. Marlborough's cavalry charge on the French centre had won the day. The French cavalry fled; Tallard was taken prisoner. The French troops in Blenheim were surrounded, and surrendered after a gallant resistance; but the forces opposed to Eugene retreated in good order. The allies are computed to have lost 11,000 men out of an army of 52,000, the French altogether 40,000 out of 60,000, including 14,000 prisoners. The broken army of the enemy retreated with extreme rapidity, and withdrew beyond the Rhine.

Marlborough's *Correspondence*; Coxe, *Marlborough*; Alison, *Life of Marlborough*; Stanhope, *Reign of Queen Anne*.

Bligh, Captain William, well known in connection with the mutiny on the *Bounty*, in April, 1789, which was caused by his tyrannical conduct, was in 1806 appointed Governor of New South Wales, but his appointment was so unpopular, and his conduct so harsh and despotic, that in January, 1808, he was deposed by the colonists, and the other civil and military officers of the colony, and sent back to England. [Pitcairn Island.]

Blockade. [Neutrality; Armed Neutrality; Paris, Declaration of.]

Blockade, The American. It is a principle of international law that a State cannot blockade its own ports. When, therefore, the American Civil War broke out in 1861, President Lincoln had to choose between the blockade or the declaration that the Confederate ships were pirates. The American government chose the former, and on the 19th of April declared the ports of the revolted provinces to be blockaded. This practically recognised the existence of war with the Confederates, and the English government were therefore justified in recognising the

Southern States as belligerents, which was done May 14, 1861. The Federal government protested that the recognition by England was an unfriendly act, but subsequent writers on international law, both American and English, are agreed that England was acting strictly according to the recognised principles of the law of nations.

Wheaton, *International Law*; Phillimore, *International Law*.

Bloet, Robert, Bishop of Lincoln (*d.* 1123), though born of obscure parentage, was Chancellor in 1090, which office he held till his appointment to the see of Lincoln in 1093. He became one of Henry I.'s chief ministers, and is the first man to whom is given the title of Justiciar, indicating a definite office. He held this office from 1100 to 1107, when he probably fell out of favour with the king, and retired into private life. Henry of Huntingdon, who was brought up by the bishop, gives an interesting picture of his household, and says that Bloet "excelled all other men in grace of person, in serenity of temper, and in courtesy of speech."

Henry of Huntingdon, *Hist. Anglor.*, p. 300 (Rolls Series).

Blois, Peter of (*d.* 1200), was descended from a noble family of Brittany, and studied at Paris and Bologna. Subsequently he opened a school at Paris, and was invited to England by Henry II. He became Chancellor of Canterbury Cathedral, and afterwards Archdeacon of Bath, but was deprived of it for his attachment to William Longchamp. Afterwards, however, he was made Archdeacon of London and prebendary of St. Paul's. He was the author of numerous letters, more than 200 of which are extant. Many of them are very valuable for their notices of the politics and manners of the writer's age. The Continuation of Ingulf's History of Crowland from 1089 to 1117 professes to have been written by Peter of Blois; but it is probable that it was composed at a later date.

Hardy, *Descriptive Catalogue*, ii. 128. Peter of Blois' Epistles were printed by Dr. Giles in the *Patres Ecclesiæ Anglicanæ*, Oxford, 1847; and they will be found in Migne, *Patrologia*, vol. 207.

Blondel, or **Blondian,** de Nesle, was a celebrated French troubadour who became attached to the court of Richard I. He is said to have discovered the place of the king's imprisonment in Germany by singing the king's own favourite lays before each keep and fortress till the unfinished song was at length taken up and answered from the windows of the castle of Loewenstein, where Richard was imprisoned. The story, however, does not appear to be older than the fifteenth century.

Blondel, Robert (*b.* 1390? *d.* 1460?), was a member of the court of Charles VII. of France, and was chaplain to Queen Mary of Anjou. He wrote several works designed to excite his countrymen to shake off the English yoke, and was the author of a work called *De Reductione Normanniæ*, which is a highly valuable contemporary narrative of the expulsion of the English from Northern France.

Blondel's *De Red. Norman.* is printed in Mr. Stevenson's *Expulsion of the English from Normandy* (Rolls Series), 1863.

Blood, Colonel Thomas (*d.* 1681), was an Irish soldier of fortune remarkable for his reckless audacity. In 1663 he joined a conspiracy to seize Dublin Castle, but the plot being discovered, he fled. In 1670 he seized the Duke of Ormond in the streets of London with the intention of hanging him at Tyburn, but the duke fortunately escaped. In the next year Blood distinguished himself by attempting to carry off the Regalia from the Tower, and very nearly succeeded in his object. Charles II., however, pardoned him, and gave him an estate worth £500 a year.

Blore Heath, The Battle of (1459), was fought, during the Wars of the Roses, between the Lancastrians, under Lord Audley, and the Yorkists, who were commanded by the Earl of Salisbury. The latter was marching southwards with the intention of effecting a junction with the Duke of York, and Lord Audley was despatched to intercept him. They met on Blore Heath, about two miles and a half from Market Drayton, in Staffordshire. The Yorkists, though inferior in numbers, were completely victorious. Lord Audley, and many other leading men on the same side, were killed, and a large number of prisoners were taken. Salisbury's further march was uninterrupted, and he effected a junction with the Duke of York at Ludlow.

Boadicea, Buddig, or **Boudicca** (the ordinary form of the name has been stigmatised as "the gibberish of editors") (*d.* 62), was the widow of Prasutagus, chief of the Iceni, and was the leader of the great revolt against the Romans in the time of Suetonius Paulinus. The tyranny and oppression of the conquerors had been brought to a climax by the atrocious treatment to which Boadicea and her daughters were subjected, and the revolt she headed was a national one, and included most of the peoples of Central and Eastern Britain. Her success at first was very great. The Romans were slaughtered in great numbers, and many of their important towns taken, including the colonies of Camelodunum, Londinium, and Verulamium. But the return of Suetonius and his veterans turned the tide, and the British were signally defeated in a great battle outside London. According to Tacitus, Boadicea committed suicide, but Dio Cassius asserts that she died a natural death. Her revolt taught the

Romans that the Britons were still capable of resistance to oppression, and the recall of Suetonius in the next year was the inauguration of a milder and more conciliatory policy.

Tacitus, *Annals*, xiv. 31, &c.; *Agricola*, 15; Dio Cassius, xii. 1, 12.

Board of Control, Board of Trade, &c. [CONTROL, BOARD OF; TRADE, BOARD OF, &c.]

Bocher, JOAN (Joan of Kent), was an Anabaptist who was condemned by the commissioners appointed to inquire into heresy in 1549. Their report being that she held heretical and erroneous opinions on the nature of the incarnation, she was burnt to death May 2nd, 1550. "She died," says Mr. Froude (*Hist. of Eng.*, v. 291), "being one of the very few victims of the ancient hatred of heresy with which the Reformed Church of England has to charge itself."

Bocland, in Anglo-Saxon legal phraseology, was that land which was held by book or charter. Originally, it was distinguished both from the "Folcland," or public domain, and from the "ethel," or estate, which was held by an individual by prescriptive right. But in later times the characteristics of ethel land were lost, and bocland was equivalent to "alod," or land which was held in full ownership by an individual, whether it had been inherited as part of an original allotment, or whether it had been separated from the public land and allotted to an individual by the king and the Witan, by charter or legal process. Bocland might be alienated *inter vivos*, or devised by will, and it might be entailed or otherwise limited in descent. The owner was not liable to any public burdens on his land, except the *trinoda necessitas*. [LAND, TENURE OF.]

Schmid, *Gesetze der Angelsachsen*, p. 538; Allen, *On the Prerogative*, p. 143; Reeves, *Hist. of Eng. Law*, i. 5 (ed. of 1869); Spelman, *Glossary*; Lodge, *Essays on Anglo-Saxon Law*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, i. 85.

Boece, or Boetius, HECTOR (*b.* 1465? *d.* 1536), Scottish historian, was born at Dundee, studied at Aberdeen and Paris, and became first Principal of the King's College at Aberdeen. He was the author of a History of Scotland, first published in Latin in 1526, and translated into English by Bellenden ten years later. It is composed with a good deal of literary skill, but is altogether valueless as an authority, the narrative being full of legends and romantic tales of all kinds. Boece's History was very popular, and through it, as Mr. Burton says, "the wondrous tale of the annals of Scotland got a hold on the European mind."

A metrical version of the *Buik of the Chronicles of Scotland of Hector Boyis* was executed by William Steward at the command of Margaret, wife of James IV. It has been edited by Mr. W. B. Turnbull in the Rolls Series (1858).

Boer War, THE. The events which led to the outbreak of this conflict are narrated under TRANSVAAL COLONY. The first shot was fired on Oct. 12, 1899, when the Boers attacked an armoured train. The Boer plan of campaign was to attack the principal British towns adjoining Boer territory, and to invade Natal, with the object of capturing Pietermaritzburg and Durban. Mafeking was invested by Cronje, Kimberley by Wessels, and Joubert led the Natal invasion. On Oct. 20 the invaders were checked by a British force at Talana Hill, but General Penn Symons was killed, and it was judged expedient to quit Dundee and withdraw to Ladysmith. On the 21st the British under General French attacked the Boers at Elandslaagte. After some severe fighting the enemy's contingent was completely broken up; all the equipment of the force and about three hundred prisoners were captured. On Oct. 24 Sir George White engaged the Boers, and withdrew after four hours' fighting, having received a message which assured him that the Dundee column was too near to Ladysmith to be cut off. The Dundee force reached Ladysmith in a state of much exhaustion. The unsuccessful action of Lombard's Kop and the disaster to the Gloucesters at Nicholson's Nek led to the investment of Ladysmith on the 29th. Happily a Naval Brigade, whose guns were the saving of the place, reached Ladysmith in time, and General French, whose services were to be so valuable elsewhere, escaped in the last train which got away from the threatened town. On the following day General Buller, the Commander-in-Chief, reached Cape Town. The "Entanglement of Ladysmith" necessitated a revision of plans. The projected invasion of the Orange Free State was deferred. General Buller's Army Corps was split up, a part went to Natal under General Clery, a part to Queenstown in Cape Colony under General Gatacre, in view of an expected invasion, and another part under Lord Methuen was despatched to the relief of Kimberley. General Buller landed in Natal on Nov. 25.

The severe nature of our task was shown by the opposition which confronted Lord Methuen's advance. During the last week of November he fought three engagements—at Belmont, at Enslin, and at Modder River—the latter an engagement in which the policy of the frontal attack, long ere this declared by experts to be wasteful, began to appear, murderous and dangerous. Though in each of these engagements the British forces were successful, each was purchased by considerable losses. After Modder River, where he himself was slightly wounded, he found it necessary to pause and recruit his forces. Meanwhile Buller was preparing for a general advance in Natal, and on Nov. 30 the Government accepted the assistance offered by the

Colonies. The second week in December was one of the blackest in the history of the British Empire. After a terrible night's march, in which the guide missed his way, General Gatacre, on the morning of Dec. 10, was defeated at Stormberg, losing 719 men killed and wounded; on the 11th Lord Methuen was defeated at Magersfontein, where the Highland Brigade was cut up and General Wauchope killed, with a loss of 950 killed and wounded, and on the 16th, to crown all, General Buller was repulsed at the Tugela River with a loss of 1,100 men killed and wounded and ten guns. The immediate results were the appointment of Lord Roberts as Commander-in-Chief, with Lord Kitchener as Chief of the Staff; the creation of the Imperial Yeomany; and the enrolment of volunteers for the front. Matters were temporarily at a deadlock, except that General French was holding his own at Colesberg against Generals De Wet and De la Rey.

That was the only bright feature at the beginning of 1900. On Jan. 6 the Boers tried to storm Ladysmith, but the attempt was gallantly repulsed by the garrison (with 500 casualties) at Cæsar's Camp and Wagon Hill. General Buller crossed the Tugela, but met with a disastrous reverse at Spion Kop (Jan. 24), and was forced to retreat. On Feb. 5 he again attempted an advance, but was checked at Vaalkrantz, and again retired. Lord Roberts, who had reached Cape Town on Jan. 10, was now in a position to take the field. He determined to relieve the pressure on the beleaguered towns by an advance through the Free State. On Feb. 9 he was at Modder River. On Feb. 15 General French and the cavalry relieved Kimberley, after it had withstood a siege lasting one hundred and twenty-three days, during the greater part of which the garrison had endured the horrors of semi-starvation and, for the latter part of it, the added terrors of bombardment. The besieging forces retreated, Cronje at their head. General French pursued them, by Lord Kitchener's direction, got ahead of them, and on Feb. 17 seized the hills above Paardeberg. Next day the infantry came up and attacked Cronje's position. Our casualties were 1,000. It was work for guns rather than for infantry. The position was bombarded, and on Feb. 27, the anniversary of Majuba Hill, Cronje surrendered with 4,000 men. This event changed the character of the Boer War, which from this time partook more of the nature of guerilla warfare. Pressure around Ladysmith had been somewhat relaxed; General Buller fought his way through at Pieter's Hill, and Lord Dundonald and the cavalry rode into the town on Feb. 28. For four months Ladysmith had been isolated, and its inhabitants had suffered the pangs of hunger, the inroads of fell disease, and the stress of battle The garrison and inhabitants were in a state of great exhaustion. Dysentery and enteric fever in the town had proved themselves more formidable foes than the army of the Boers. About forty per cent. of the European population had invalided, and over five thousand of the military had been in the same predicament. The casualty list—killed, wounded, and missing—of the army of relief totalled up to five thousand. With the relief of Ladymith the Boers vacated Natal.

Half-hearted attempts were made at Poplar Grove and Driefontein to check the advance of Lord Roberts, who occupied Bloemfontein on March 13. Here there was an enforced halt of over six weeks, and a serious outbreak of enteric fever occurred. On March 28 General Joubert died, whom Sir George White, who had felt the prowess of the Boer general, described as "a soldier, and a gentleman, a brave and honcurable opponent." On March 31 De Wet ambushed Broadwood's brigade at Sanna's Post, and four days later a detachment of Irish Rifles at Reddersburg. At last, on May 1, the army resumed its march. On May 17 a flying column under General Mahon relieved Mafeking. On May 24 a proclamation declared the annexation of the Orange Free State. Lord Roberts occupied Johannesburg without resistance, and President Kruger left Pretoria on May 30 for Waterval Boven. Our troops entered Pretoria on June 5, hardly any opposition being offered, and 3,000 British prisoners were released. Three days later the Boer forces were located and defeated at Diamond Hill, twenty miles east of Pretoria. Prinsloo and 3,000 Free State Boers surrendered to General Hunter on July 29. Lord Roberts planned a descent upon Koomati Poort, in conjunction with the troops under General Buller, which had come up from Natal. The two generals dispersed the Boer forces at Dalmanutha and Bergendal, and at Nooitgedacht, on Aug 30, the remainder of the British prisoners were released. President Kruger fled to Lorenzo Marques, whence he sailed to Europe on board a Dutch man-of-war, and Koomati Poort was occupied on Sept. 25. The annexation of the Transvaal had already been proclaimed (Sept. 1), and Lord Roberts left for England.

It seemed as if the war was over. It was not over, but it was entering on a new phase. For eighteen months a vigorous guerilla warfare was practised not only by the burghers but also by the disaffected Dutch of Cape Colony. Reinforcements of 30,000 men were sent out. It was necessary to cut short the food supplies of the guerillas if the war was ever to end. Large tracts of country were devastated, and the Boer women and children gathered into concentration camps. The Boers, however, being in this manner relieved of the care of their families,

carried on hostilities with all the more energy. In February De Wet invaded Cape Colony, but withdrew from the Colony in eighteen days, with the loss of his guns, munitions, and half his men. Negotiations for peace ensued, but broke down chiefly on the question of the treatment of the Cape rebels. Lord Kitchener adopted a new policy—that of block-houses and mobile columns. Wherever there was a line of block-houses, and there were many, communication with a base was assured. Up to the close of 1901 there was a great deal of desultory fighting, in which on the whole the British had the advantage, though Christmas Eve was saddened by the disaster to a yeomanry camp at Tweefontein, which the Boers captured by a night attack.

A system of "drives" by mounted troops was now organised. On one "drive" alone 600 prisoners were taken. The losses, however, were by no means all on one side. The 28th Mounted Infantry were overwhelmed at Klip Drift, and in March De La Rey captured Paris's column, when Lord Methuen, severely wounded, was among the prisoners. But in spite of these successes the Boers were coming to the end of their resources. At a mass meeting of representative burghers at Vereeniging, a majority decided on surrender; and after some discussion peace was signed at Pretoria on May 31, 1902, and proclaimed the day following. Among the conditions of peace the following were the most important. All burghers to have complete immunity on laying down their arms and taking the oath of allegiance to King Edward; the Dutch language to be taught in schools at the request of parents, and to be allowed in Law Courts; the Boers to be permitted to own sporting rifles; martial law to be replaced as soon as possible by civil administration, representative government to follow in due course; the question of native franchise not to be considered until such government be granted; £3,000,000 to be given to the farmers as compensation for damage done to their farms; and a Commission to be formed to repatriate burghers. Subsequently in the Imperial Parliament the sum of £8,000,000 was voted, to be apportioned as follows:—£3,000,000 for grants to burghers to aid them in resuming their normal employments; £2,000,000 for grants in respect of losses incurred through the operations of war; £3,000,000 for supplementary loans, to be repaid after a term of years at 3 per cent. interest. The first and second amounts were to be charged on Imperial funds; for the third the Colonial Governments, now established, were to be the creditors. On the British side 5,774 officers and men were killed in action, and 22,829 wounded; of the Boers about 4,000 were killed, while the number of their wounded is uncertain. There were 40,000 Boer prisoners at the end of the war.

Bohemia, Relations with. Dealings between England and Bohemia begin with the grant of the Emperor Henry VII. to his son John, which established a German line of kings in Bohemia, and involved it in Western politics. John constantly resided in France, and, as the opponent of Louis of Bavaria and the friend of Philip of Valois, was led by his restless chivalry to take part in the war against England, which ended by his death at Crecy (1346). His son, Charles IV., was of a more practical temperament; and the same Diet at Metz which accepted the Golden Bull witnessed his attempted mediation between France and England. In time more intimate relations grew up on the marriage of Anne of Bohemia, his daughter, with Richard II. Under Wenzel, her brother, still more than under Charles, the Luxemburg house had become national Kings of Bohemia at the expense of the Imperial dignity, which degenerated into a mere title. Hence close dealings between Bohemia and England; and as Catholicism and the Papacy were associated with the hated German influence, the Bohemian national party greedily listened to the doctrines of Wiclif, which all the Bohemians at Richard's court had ample opportunities of learning. What in England was mere abstract dialectic, and at best the expression of inarticulate, discontent, was turned by Bohemian patriotism into the watchwords of a national party of religious Puritanism. Prague became a more popular Oxford. Jerome of Prague actually brought Wiclif's teaching from the Thames to the Moldau. The direction taken by Huss was entirely the result of English influence. In one library there are still five treatises of Wiclif copied out in his own hand, with copious notes. Henry V. had already become intimately allied to Sigismund, by their common efforts to restore the unity of Christendom. A fresh link of orthodox antagonism to heresy united the sovereigns if it separated the peoples. The Council of Constance marks the time of their closest approximation. With the suppression of the national movement, Bohemia sinks into insignificance or dependence. Ferdinand I. unites its crown with the Austrian house. Only on the last attempt at the assertion of Bohemian nationality, which in 1618 led to the endeavour to set aside Ferdinand of Styria for Frederick of the Palatinate, the son-in-law of James I., were direct relations between the two States renewed. But though the cause of the Protestant Pfalzgraf, was exceedingly popular in England, James refused to support him until it was too late. The battle on the Weissberg (1620) destroyed at once the fortunes of Frederick and Elizabeth, and the nationality and independence of the Czech kingdom.

Palacky, *Geschichte von Böhmen*, is perhaps the best general authority on Bohemian history.

Creighton's *History of the Papacy* (Bk. II., ch. iii. and iv.) brings out very clearly the connection between Huss and Wiclif. Cf. Milman, *Latin Christianity* (vol. viii.), and Lenz, *König Sigismund und Heinrich V.* For the history of the Pfalzgraf's relations with England, *see* S. R. Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng., 1603—1642.*

[T. F. T.]

Bohun, The Family of, was founded by a certain Humphrey de Bohun, said to have been a kinsman of William I. In 1199 Henry de Bohun was created Earl of Hereford by John (apparently inheriting the office of Constable from his father Humphrey, whose mother was the daughter of Miles, Earl of Hereford and Lord High Constable). He married the daughter of Geoffrey Fitz-Peter, Earl of Essex, and upon the death of his brother-in-law, the last Earl of Essex of the house of Mandeville, succeeded to his estates. His son Humphrey, second Earl of Hereford, was created Earl of Essex about 1236. William de Bohun—who fought at Crecy—fourth son of the fourth Earl of Hereford, was created Earl of Northampton 1337. His son succeeded to the earldoms of Hereford, Essex, and Northampton, and died 1372, leaving two daughters, Eleanor—who married Thomas of Woodstock, Duke of Gloucester—and Mary—who married Henry of Bolingbroke (afterwards Henry IV.), who thus gained the earldoms of Hereford, Essex, and Northampton.

Bois-le-Duc, The Battle of (Nov. 12, 1794), was fought during the campaign of the allies with the English contingent under the Duke of York, in Flanders. For some time past great preparations had been pushed forward by Moreau in obedience to the instructions of the Committee of Public Safety at Paris, who were resolved on subjugating Holland while the severity of the winter had neutralised the defensive advantages of the country. To carry out this project, the first step was to cross the Meuse, and, with this object in view, boats for a bridge had been collected at Fort Crèvecœur on that river. When all preparations had been completed, the passage was attempted at daybreak on the 12th. But the firm resistance of the allies, under the Duke of York, prevented all the attempts of the French, though Moreau omitted no pains or skill; and at length, seeing that it was impossible to carry the passage, that able engineer desisted from the attempt, and placed his troops in winter quarters between the Meuse and the Rhine.

Alison, *Hist. of Europe.*

Boleyn, Anne. [Anne Boleyn.]

Boleyn, Mary. An elder sister of Anne Boleyn, second queen of Henry VIII., and at one time herself an object of the king's passionate admiration. This, however, was one of Henry's earlier attachments, and took place at a period when his affection for Catherine of Arragon was still sufficiently strong to prevent his seriously entertaining any idea of a second marriage by means of a divorce. Mary Boleyn married, in July, 1521, Sir William Pavey, a descendant of the Beaufort family, and, disappearing for awhile from the vicinity of the court, was spared any renewal of the fickle king's dangerous attentions.

Boleyn, Sir Thomas. [Wiltshire, Earl of.]

Bolingbroke, Henry. [Henry IV.]

Bolingbroke, Henry St. John, Viscount (*b.* 1678, *d.* 1751), the son of Sir Henry St. John, was educated at Eton and Christ Church. In the year 1700 he married, and in the following year entered Parliament for Wootton Bassett, and attached himself to Harley and the Tories. When Harley was appointed Secretary of State in 1706, St. John was made Secretary for War. He retired with Harley in 1708, and returned, when the Tories came in again after the Sacheverell episode, in 1710, as one of the Secretaries of State. The position of that party was a doubtful and dangerous one. Peace was loudly called for by a section of the people, and was in itself a desirable enough object. But there is little to be urged in excuse of the steps by which it was brought about. Under St. John's conduct, England deserted her allies, and, in violation of all her agreements, proceeded to enter into private negotiations with France. [Utrecht, Treaty of.] At home the Tory leaders were engaged in a course of intrigues, with the object of counteracting the predominance the Whigs were sure to gain under the house of Hanover. The army and the civil service were being gradually filled with men who were really Jacobites, and the design seems to have been entertained of changing the succession. The struggle for power between Harley, now Earl of Oxford, and Bolingbroke (called to the Upper House as Viscount Bolingbroke in 1712) interfered with this project, and very greatly weakened the party. Through the influence of Lady Masham with the queen, Oxford was dismissed in July 2, 1714. But Bolingbroke's tenure of undivided power was very short. On the 30th of July the queen was seized with the attack of apoplexy which was to prove fatal to her. At the council which was summoned on the emergency, the Whig Dukes Argyle, Somerset, and Shrewsbury succeeded in carrying the resolution by which the last-named became Lord Treasurer. On the death of the queen (Aug. 1) Bolingbroke deliberated, and was lost. The Whig dukes seized the reins of government, proclaimed the Elector king, and sent special messengers summoning him to England. The new Parliament was violently Whig. Bolingbroke, knowing

that he would be impeached, fled to France (March 25, 1715). On the 10th of June he was impeached, and on the 16th of September his name was struck off the list of peers and sentence of banishment was passed upon him. He now entered the service of the Pretender, and was nominated by that prince his Secretary of State; but in 1716 he was dismissed from the prince's employment, and a breach took place between him and the extreme Jacobites. For some years he remained in France, devoting himself chiefly to study and to the society of the Marquise de Villette, a niece of Madame de Maintenon, whom he ultimately married. In 1723 he was permitted to return to England, and an Act of Parliament was passed allowing him to enjoy his property; but he was still excluded from the House of Lords. He joined the opposition against Walpole, and for many years carried on relentless hostilities with that minister by means of intrigue and political journalism. He contributed largely to the *Craftsman*, a periodical which had a large circulation, and a reputation very damaging to Walpole's cause. In 1735, however, he found it prudent once more to withdraw to France, where he remained till 1742. On the fall of Walpole, he found that his allies in opposition were not disposed to admit him to any share of power. He withdrew altogether from politics, and spent the remaining nine years of his life in philosophical retirement at Battersea. Bolingbroke's writings produced more effect on the thought of the eighteenth century than their intrinsic merits seem to warrant. His political and historical works, of which the chief are *Letters on the Study of History*, *Remarks on the History of England*, *A Dissertation upon Parties*, *The Idea of a Patriot King*, and *A Letter to Sir William Windham*, are evidently composed in great part to justify his own action in public life; but they contain a good deal of suggestive disquisition, and some fine passages of declamatory eloquence.

Bolingbroke's *Works* were published by Mallet in 1754 in 5 vols. His *Correspondence* appeared in 1798, edited by Gilbert Parke. *See* also the essay on Bolingbroke in Rémusat, *L'Angleterre au Dix-huitième Siècle*; G. W. Cooke, *Memoirs of Bolingbroke*, 1835; Macknight, *Life of Bolingbroke*, 1863; Harrop, *Bolingbroke*; Brosch, *Bolingbroke und die Whigs von seiner Zeit*, 1883; Coxe's *Walpole*; and the *Stuart Papers*. [S. J. L.]

Bolingbroke, Roger (*d.* 1441), a chaplain of Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, was executed for having conspired with Eleanor Cobham, Duchess of Gloucester, to destroy King Henry VI. by magical incantations.

Bolton Castle, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, was the scene of Mary Stuart's imprisonment, 1568. The intrigues of the Queen of Scots caused her to be removed in the following year to the "straiter custody" of the Earl of Shrewsbury at Tutbury.

Bombay. A presidency and governorship of British India. The town and island of Bombay were ceded to England in 1661, as part of the dowry of Catherine of Braganza on her marriage with Charles II. A few years afterwards it was handed over to the East India Company in return for a nominal annual payment. In 1687 Bombay was constituted a separate presidency; but in 1753 it was under the authority of the Calcutta government. The dominions of the presidency were very limited in extent until the wars with the Mahrattas, comprehending only the town and island of Bombay, with Salsette and Bassein; but by the end of the administration of the Marquis of Hastings it included Surat, Broach, Ahmednuggur, Belgaum, Sholapoor, and the whole dominions which had belonged to the Poonah state, with the exception of Sattara, which was annexed in 1848. In 1843, on the conquest of Scinde, that province was also placed under the Governor of Bombay.

Bond of Association (1584). [Association.]

Boniface of Savoy (*d.* 1270), Archbishop of Canterbury (1245—1270), was the son of Thomas, Count of Savoy, and consequently uncle to Eleanor of Provence, wife of Henry III. To this connection he owed his appointment to the archbishopric. He was one of the most unclerical and most unpopular of our archbishops; his sympathies were with the foreigners at Henry III.'s court, and his tastes were military. At times when his interests seemed to be opposed by the Poitevins he sided with the Barons, but his policy was a purely selfish one, and seen through by all parties. During the Barons' War he was absent from England, but returned after the battle of Evesham, and is said to have accompanied Prince Edward on his Crusade.

Boniface, Saint (*b.* 680, *d.* 755), born at Crediton, was a monk of the Exeter monastery. His original name was Winfrith. In 715 he set out for Rome, and received a commission to preach to the heathen nations of Germany. His earnest missionary labours met with the greatest success in Friesland, Thuringia, and Franconia, and immense numbers were converted. He laboured in Central Germany for more than thirty years, and established the bishoprics of Salzburg, Passau, Freisingen, Ratisbon, Wurzburg, and Erfurt, and a very large number of monasteries. His influence in civilising and evangelising the wilder parts of Germany was very great. Besides his labours as a missionary, and organiser of the newly converted districts, Boniface was equally great as the restorer of the older Churches on the Rhine

and Danube. He became Archbishop of Mainz, and his efforts made that see the Canterbury of Germany. He was assisted by numerous missionaries, whom he sent for from Britain, and was high in favour with the Carolingian princes. Pepin was crowned king by Boniface at Soissons. In 755 he made his last missionary journey into Friesland; but near Dokkeim he was attacked and slain by a band of the Pagans. His remains were buried in one of the most famous of his abbeys—that of Fulda.

The *Works* of St. Boniface were published by Dr. Giles (London, 1842). *See* also *Vita S. Bonifacii* in Mabillon, vol. iv.; Seiter, *Bonifacius*, 1845; Neander, *Church History*.

Bonlagh Common, in County Tipperary, was the place where, on July 29, 1848, Smith O'Brien appeared before the house of a widow named Cormac, which had been taken possession of by fifty constabulary, and took up a position in front of it with his followers. The constables fired, and, another party coming up at the same moment, under the command of Mr. Cox and of Mr. French, a magistrate, the rebels fled, leaving eighteen dead and many wounded behind them; none of the constabulary were wounded. This action, such as it was, put an end to the Irish "insurrection" of 1848.

Bonner, Edmund (*b.* 1496, *d.* 1569), successively Bishop of Hereford and of London, said to have been the natural son of a priest named Savage, studied at Broadgates Hall, Oxford, and became one of Wolsey's chaplains. He subsequently attached himself to Cromwell, and in 1533 was sent on a mission to the Pope about the Divorce question. According to Burnet, his demeanour greatly enraged Clement, "who talked of throwing him into a cauldron of melted lead, or of burning him alive." In 1538 he was made Bishop of Hereford, and in 1539 translated to London. During Henry VIII.'s reign Bonner was a leading member of the Anglican Conservative party led by Gardiner and Norfolk, but on the accession of Edward VI. he declined to follow the advanced Reformers, and protested against Cranmer's homilies and injunctions. For this Bonner was committed to the Fleet, but soon released; but in 1549 he was tried by a special commission, deprived of his bishopric, and imprisoned in the Marshalsea. He was restored by Queen Mary, and was one of the most active agents in carrying out her reactionary policy. He restored the Mass in St. Paul's even before the publication of the royal ordinance which commanded it, accepted the restoration of the papal authority, despite his former policy, and his diocese was distinguished by the number of persons burnt in it, and the vindictive energy with which the bishop pushed on the work of persecution. At the accession of Queen Elizabeth, when he appeared before the queen to tender his allegiance, she shrank from him with undisguised aversion. In May, 1559, refusing to take the oath of supremacy, he was deprived and indicted for *præmunire*. He was committed to the Marshalsea, where he passed the rest of his life.

Calendar of State Papers; Wood, *Athenæ Oxonienses*; *Biographia Britannica*; Burnet, *Hist. of the Reformation*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*

Book of Common Prayer. [Prayer Book.]

Book of Discipline. [Discipline, Book of.]

Book of Sports, &c. [Sports, Book of, &c.]

Booth, Lawrence (*d.* 1480), Archbishop of York (1476—1480), after holding several minor preferments, was in 1457 appointed Bishop of Durham. He sided with the Lancastrians, and his temporalities were seized by Edward IV., but he subsequently reconciled himself with the king, and in 1473 was made Lord Chancellor, and held the Great Seal for eighteen months. He was appointed to the archbishopric of York in 1476.

Borders, The. The English invasion established in the north-east of Britain the kingdom of Northumberland, which extended from the Humber to the Forth. West of this the Celtic kingdom of Strathclyde extended from the Dee to the Clyde. North were the Celtic kingdoms of the Picts and Scots. In 827 Northumberland submitted to the supremacy of Egbert, King of Wessex, and after the repulse of the Danes that supremacy was still further extended. In 924 the princes of Northumberland, Strathclyde, and Scotland submitted to Edward the Elder. In 945 the kingdom of Strathclyde was conquered, but Galloway and Cumberland were granted to the Scottish king. Similarly, Lothian was granted to the Scottish king, either by Edgar or Canute. In 1092 William II. took Cumberland, and from that time the boundaries between England and Scotland were the Solway, the Cheviot Hills, and the River Tweed. At the time of the Norman Conquest, Scotland became the refuge of many of the English, and Lothian remained the most purely English part of the two kingdoms. William I., finding it difficult to keep his hold on the northern part of England, resorted in 1069 to the savage measure of ravaging Northumberland. The northern counties were laid waste, and the subsequent inroads of the Scottish king completed the work of devastation. The northern counties are omitted in the Domesday Survey, probably because they were not considered worth the trouble of examining. The disputes between England and Scotland exposed the Borders to perpetual ravages. But attempts were made to

introduce order, and the thirteenth century saw Cumberland and Northumberland tolerably prosperous in agricultural pursuits. It is probable that the necessities of constant defence enabled the men of the Borders to retain many of the old English customs more definitely than was the case elsewhere. The township organisation was not superseded by the manor, and traces of its existence till recent times are frequent. In 1249 an attempt was made to promote peace on the Borders by the issue of Border laws, which were determined by an inquest of twelve English and twelve Scottish knights. They related to the trial of malefactors who fled across the Borders, and the redress of grievances amongst the Borderers themselves. They recognised courts to be held on the marches, at which English and Scots were to meet and try their respective criminals. Peace and prosperity were, however, destroyed by the Scottish wars of Edward I. From that time England and Scotland stood in avowed hostility, and a perpetual warfare was waged on the Borders of the two kingdoms. The land was divided into three marches, the Eastern, the Western, and the Middle, and over each was set a Warden to provide for its defence. The chief military road was along the east coast, from Newcastle through Berwick or Coldstream, and along this the chief battles between English and Scots were fought. But the passes by the valley which runs from the Cheviots were mostly used for the incessant plundering raids that marked Border life. Along the valleys of the Jed, the Teviot, the Coquet, the Tyne, and the Rede freebooters from both countries were perpetually ravaging. The state of life along the Borders is sufficiently seen in the aspect of the country. It is rich in ruined castles, vast fortified piles in strong positions, dating in their main parts from the fourteenth century. Besides these are ruins of monastic buildings (those along the Tweed being especially famous) which were the sole abodes of peace, yet even they bear traces of careful fortification, and were generally under the shelter of a neighbouring castle. The only other buildings of any antiquity are low square towers, called *peil towers*, which sufficed as shelter against a sudden raid of robbers. They probably stood in an enclosure, which contained the cattle hastily driven away. Some of the older churches have towers of the same kind, which were used for defence. The dwellings of the people were mere hovels, and their possessions were nothing but arms and cattle. Of Border frays, the battle of Otterburn (1388) is the most famous, and has passed into legend under the name of "Chevy Chase." The great families on the Borders grew to be important men. The Percies, Greys, Dacres, and Umphravilles are famous in English history; and the Douglases, Hepburns, Lindsays, and Durbans are no less famous in the history of Scotland. Moreover, families of freebooters formed themselves into powerful clans, and waged hereditary feuds amongst themselves—the Armstrongs, Elliots, Charltons, and the like. After the battle of Flodden Field (1513) Scotland was greatly weakened, and Henry VIII. made use of the robber warfare along the Borders as a means of still further reducing the Scottish power. The records of plunder and bloodshed which have been preserved show almost incredible barbarity. The result of this long-continued warfare was an entire lawlessness among the Borderers: they regarded plunder as their trade, and bloodshed as an episode in their life. When peace was made between England and Scotland in 1549, it became an object of importance for both countries to bring their borders into order. Regulations were made for that purpose; but they could not be enforced. A watch was set along the English borders; each hamlet sent its men to keep guard by night, and the news of a Scottish inroad was flashed by beacon light from place to place. The Wardens' Courts were regularly held, and the balance of bloodshed and rapine was adjusted between the two countries. But how difficult it was to keep the peace was shown in 1575, when, at a Wardens' Court held at Redeguise, some disagreement led to an appeal to arms, and the English Warden was carried away prisoner. This occurrence threatened to lead to a breach between the two countries, and gave rise to long negotiations. The carefulness of Elizabeth's government is nowhere seen more clearly than in the steady attempt to introduce order into the English Border. The union of the crowns of England and Scotland in the person of James I. increased the general desire to pacify the Border. There was no longer war between England and Scotland; but theft and murder had become hereditary. The dwellers of one valley were the immemorial foes of those in another. It was necessary to root out bloodfeuds and robbery by strict justice, and Lord William Howard, known as "Belted Will," did much to make the law respected. The rudiments of civilisation had to be introduced, and the bad habits of the past were slow in dying away. Redesdale, Tynedale, Liddesdale, and Teviotdale were wild and lawless places, and retained traces of their old characteristics up to the beginning of the nineteenth century. Now there are no more orderly people than those of the Borders, and nowhere is agricultural enterprise and prosperity more marked.

Bishop Nicholson, *Leges Marchiarum;* Redpath, *Border History;* Burn and Nicholson, *History of Cumberland;* Hodgson, *History of Northumberland;* Sir W. Scott, *Border Antiquities;* Raine, *History of North Durham.* [M. C.]

Borh. [FRANKPLEDGE.]

Born, Bertrand de (*d.* 1200), one of the most famous troubadours, played an important part in the quarrels between Henry II. and his sons. He took up the cause of Eleanor of Guienne, and subsequently joined the Poitevin rebellion against Richard, inciting by his verses the young Prince Henry against his father. Taken prisoner at Limoges, he was set at liberty by Henry II., and eventually ended his days in the monastery of Citeaux.

Boroughbridge, The Battle of (1322), during the barons' revolt in Edward II.'s reign, was fought between the royalists under the command of the king and Sir Andrew Harclay, and the baronial forces headed by the Earls of Lancaster and Hereford. The barons were totally routed, the Earl of Hereford slain, and the Earl of Lancaster taken prisoner and subsequently executed at Pontefract.

Borough-English was the name given in England to a not unusual custom in certain manors "that lands shall descend to the youngest son, or, in default of issue, to the younger brother of the owner." Certain analogous extensions of the custom which, for example, gives rights of succession to the youngest daughter or sister, though not strictly included in the recognised custom of borough-English, may be roughly grouped with it under such a term as "ultimogeniture" (suggested by the Real Property Commissioners), "junior-right," or "juniority" (Elton). The foreign "Droit de Maineté," "Juveignerie," and "Jüngsten Recht," are closely analogous to borough-English. Concerning its origin we can only guess. The theory of the old lawyers that the youngest was naturally the weakest and wanted most attention, is obviously inadequate to explain it. Neither does Sir Henry Maine's view—that it sprang from the "patria potestas," and the youngest son inherited because the least likely to have forfeited his rights by emancipation—wholly cover the ground. Mr. Elton, while admitting that the problem is difficult, perhaps insoluble, suggests the theory that the custom is a survival of very early times, perhaps pre-Aryan, certainly before Celt, Teuton, and Slav had branched off from their common parent stock. Just as primogeniture sprang from the Aryan domestic worship which it was the special function of the eldest to conduct, so "ultimogeniture" may be a survival of ancestor-worship in a race that saw no pre-eminence in the eldest. The widespread nature of the custom—and some more direct evidence—supports this view. We read of it in England so far back as Glanvil's time, and by its modern name in the Year-book of the First of Edward I. It occurs especially in the south-east of England, Kent, Surrey, and Sussex, and the environs of London, and less so in the eastern counties. It is also very common in Somerset, but rare in the Midlands, and unknown north of the Humber. A very early form of the custom appears in the Welsh laws of the tenth century, and also in Brittany and other Celtic districts. It was also very common in North France, Friesland, Westphalia, and, recently, in South Russia.

Elton, *Origins of English History*, chap. viii., with the authorities there quoted, especially Corner, *Borough-English in Sussex*; *Ancient Laws and Institutes of Wales* (Rolls Series), *Cod. Dim.*, ii. 23, and *Cod. Vanad.*, ii. 12, 16.

[T. F. T.]

Boroughs. [Towns.]

Boscawen, Edward (*b.* 1711, *d.* 1761), first distinguished himself at the attack on Porto Bello in 1740. He was appointed commander-in-chief of an expedition to the East Indies (1747). In 1755 Boscawen received the thanks of Parliament for the capture of two French ships, and became vice-admiral, and in the following year admiral. In that year he commanded the expedition to Cape Breton Island, and took the town of Louisburg. In the following year he defeated the French fleet in Lagos Bay, and received the thanks of Parliament. In 1760 he was sworn of the Privy Council. Boscawen's career was brief, but he was not the least remarkable of the naval heroes who won such triumphs on the sea during the closing period of George II.'s reign. His personal courage was brilliantly displayed in every engagement.

Boscobel, in Shropshire, the house of Mr. John Giffard, was the hiding-place of Charles II. after the battle of Worcester in 1651. The fugitive king was committed by Lord Derby to the charge of some woodcutters named Penderell. Here he remained in concealment for some days, and at one time it was even thought necessary that he should pass some time in an oak-tree in the Boscobel woods, so hot had the pursuit become. The king eventually effected his escape. From his hiding in the oak, the fashion of wearing oak-leaves on the day of the Restoration (May 29) originated.

Boston, in Lincolnshire, is said in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle to have been founded by St. Botolph. It rose to great importance in the twelfth century, and was one of the chief ports in the kingdom. Edward III. made it one of the wool staples, and its prosperity continued till the early part of the sixteenth century, from which time it gradually declined.

Boston, in Massachusetts, was settled in 1630 by John Winthrop, most of the earliest colonists coming from Lincolnshire. During the Great Rebellion the settlers sided with the Parliament, and even received two of the regicides with rejoicing in 1660. The town was on bad terms with the royal government all through the latter half of the seventeenth

century, and in 1689 a rebellion broke out, and the governor, Sir Edmund Andros, was compelled to quit the country. The Boston people warmly supported the revolution of 1688. The town increased greatly in wealth and consequence, and was noted for the stern Puritanism of its inhabitants, and their sturdy spirit of independence. Boston took the lead in resisting the attempt of the English government to apply its revenue system to the Colonies. On March 5th, 1770, the riot known as "the Boston Massacre" took place, and in Dec., 1773, the attack on the tea ships was made in Boston harbour. For a time the trade of the town was nearly ruined by the Boston Port Bill (q.v.), and a large number of English troops were sent to garrison the port. The town was surrounded (1775) by an American force, between whom and the British the battle of Bunker Hill was fought, June 17. The British abandoned the place in March, 1776. After the war Boston became one of the chief cities in the United States, and the centre of art, literature, and education. During the quarter of a century preceding 1860, Boston was the head-quarters of the movement for the abolition of negro slavery.

Boston Port Bill, The (1774), is important as being one of the immediate causes of the outbreak of the American War of Independence. In the year 1773, in order to find a market for the accumulated stores of the East India Company, Lord North withdrew the whole of the duty payable in England on any teas exported to America by the Company. The teas, however, were still subject to a colonial tax of threepence on the pound. On Dec. 16, 1773, the people of Boston, excited by the speeches of Samuel Adams and others, proceeded to the wharf where three tea ships lay, and threw their cargoes, valued at £18,000, into the water. Popular indignation was aroused throughout England by this act, and it was resolved to make an example of the little port. On March 14, 1774, Lord North brought in the Boston Port Bill. The preamble set forth that in the present condition of Boston, the commerce of his Majesty's subjects could not be safely carried on, nor the customs be duly collected there; and it was therefore proposed that from and after the 1st of June it should not be lawful for any person to lade or unlade, to ship or unship, any goods within the harbour. The king in Council was to have the power, when peace and order should be established at Boston, and full compensation paid for the teas destroyed, to restore the town to its former position. Some opposition was offered to the measure by Dowdeswell, Burke, and Charles Fox, but on the whole it was approved both by Parliament and the country. The Bill, accompanied as it was by the Massachusetts Government Bill, was received with great indignation in America. The 1st of June—the day appointed for the Boston Port Bill to come into force—was set apart as a solemn fast. On the meeting of the Massachusetts Assembly, General Gage found the spirit of resistance so unanimous among the delegates that he felt compelled to dissolve it immediately.

Parliamentary Hist., xvii.; *Chatham Correspondence*; Bancroft, *Hist. of America*; Mahon, *Hist. of Eng.*, vi. 51.

Bosworth Field, The Battle of (Aug. 21, 1485), was fought between Richard III. and Henry, Earl of Richmond, afterwards Henry VII. On August 1, Henry landed at Milford Haven and passed on without opposition to Shrewsbury, being joined by a large number of Welshmen. He then marched on to Tamworth, where he arrived on the 18th. On the 20th he was at Atherstone, where he was met by Lord Stanley and by Sir William Stanley, who both promised to desert Richard during the battle. Meanwhile Richard, having mustered his forces at Nottingham, marched to Leicester and encamped at Bosworth on the 21st. On the next morning the two armies met between Bosworth and Atherstone at a place known as Whitemoors, near the village of Sutton Cheneys. The battle was mainly a hand-to-hand encounter, the Stanleys for some time keeping aloof from the fight till, at a critical moment, they joined Richmond. Richard, perceiving that he was betrayed, and crying out, "Treason, treason!" endeavoured only to sell his life as dearly as possible, and refused to leave the field till, overpowered by numbers, he fell dead in the midst of his enemies. The crown was picked up on the field of battle and placed by Sir William Stanley on the head of Richmond, who was at once saluted king by the whole army. Among those that perished on Richard's side were the Duke of Norfolk, Lord Ferrers, Sir Richard Ratcliffe, and Sir Robert Brackenbury, while the only person of note in Henry's army who was slain was his standard-bearer, Sir William Brandon, who is said to have been killed by Richard himself.

Continuator of the Croyland Chron., 574; Hall, *Chronicle*, 418; J. Gairdner, *Richard III.*

Bót was a word which signified amends, reparation, either in the simple sense, as *burh bót* —*i.e.*, repair of fortresses—or more often in the sense of money compensation for wrongdoing. In the earlier laws of the various Teutonic tribes, most offences are regarded as involving a breach of the general peace, and as putting the offender in outlawry and at feud with the community, till at any rate he has come to terms with the injured party; some less grave offences regarded as merely wrongs to the individual have a fixed composition attached to them; while in some cases is seen the idea of crime as demanding punishment. It is indisputable that these

conceptions belong to very different stages of thought, and respectively succeed each other. Any offence, it is clear, originally put the offender at feud with all, and exposed him to his victim's vengeance. The right of vengeance then became limited by the growth of fixed compositions. And lastly, in the most developed codes, the idea of punishment has intruded upon the region of composition payments. In the code of Alfred, a discrimination is made, and in ordinary cases homicides paid for according to the wergild of the slain, while in extraordinary cases, such as wilful murder of a lord, the crime is to be punished by death. The bót, then, or money payment, represents the view of a misdeed which regards it as so much damage to the individual, reparable by payment at a fixed tariff. For less grave offences the amends must, by Anglo-Saxon law, be accepted. In graver offences only, if the amends be not paid or be unsatisfactory to the party injured, does he re-enter on his right of feud, under certain legal limitations. These two are the "bót-worthy" class of offences. And even in the "bót-less" offences, the king can at pleasure accept an amends in money for them; for instance, the perjurer is to have his hand cut off, but the king can allow him to redeem it at half his wergild. In case of treason against a lord, Alfred says "the king and his witan dare not grant mercy." The relation of the "bót" to the "wite" is very irregular, and indeed inexplicable. The amount of the bót itself is equally perplexing; 6s. is the amends for knocking out a front tooth, only 3s. for breaking a rib; 6s. for breaking the arm, but 11s. for destroying the little finger, and 20s. for cutting off the beard. On the whole it appears that the payment was on an estimate of the part affected, and its value or appearance, the degree of the affront, and the social position of the injured party, or even that of the offender. The chief peculiarities of this Anglo-Saxon system compared with that of other Teutonic tribes are—(i.) the strict maintenance of rights of private property by severe treatment of theft and stringent enactments to secure bail; (ii.) the great attention paid to the privileges of the Church and the enforcement of its precepts; (iii.) the rapid growth of the kingly power and its recognition as the source of justice. There are many minute variations between West-Saxon and Anglian law as to the ratios of the payments of bót.

Wilda, *Das Strafrecht der Germanen*; K. von Maurer, in *Kritische Ueberschau*, vol. iii. (the best modern treatise on the subject); Schmidt *Gesetze der Angelsachsen*; Thorpe, *Ancient Laws and Institutes*; Sharon Turner, *Hist. of the Anglo-Saxons*, vol. iii., Appendix T; Kemble, *Saxons; Essays in Anglo-Saxon Law*, Boston, 1876 (the best short account in English).

[A. L. S.]

Bothwell, Francis Stewart, 2nd Earl of, the son of John Stewart, Prior of Coldingham (an illegitimate son of James V.), and Lady Jane Hepburn, sister of the first Earl of Bothwell, was a favourite of James VI., by whom he was created Earl of Bothwell, 1587. His life was a series of rebellions against the king, whom he attempted to seize at Holyrood, 1592—an attempt which was frustrated by the citizens of Edinburgh. The same year he made another unsuccessful attack on the king at Falkland; and in 1593 suddenly appeared at Holyrood, at the head of an armed band, to ask pardon, as he said, for his treason. In 1594 he again attacked Edinburgh, being only beaten off by the citizens; but from this time his power was broken, and he was forced to quit the country.

Bothwell, James Hepburn, 4th Earl of (*b.* 1536, *d.* 1578), was Lord Warden of the Scotch Marches, as well as Lord High Admiral of Scotland, in which capacities he is said to have acted more as a marauder and a pirate than as an officer of state. In 1558 he was one of the Lords of the Articles; and in the following year distinguished himself as a partisan of the queen regent, and an opponent of Arran and the reforming lords. He was one of the nobles sent to Mary in France after the death of her husband; and in 1561 was made a member of the Privy Council. He was, however, in constant difficulties, owing to his turbulence and violence. In 1562 he was impeached for having plotted to carry off the queen, and outlawed; but in a few months he returned, and married Lady Jane Gordon, a sister of Lord Huntley, and about the same time began to find favour in the eyes of Queen Mary. From this time his life becomes closely associated with that of the queen. After Rizzio's murder, Mary fled to Dunbar Castle, of which Bothwell had the custody; and subsequently he returned with her to Edinburgh. In October, 1566, he received a visit from her when lying wounded in his castle of Hermitage; and after he had compassed the murder of Darnley, 1567, he was in constant attendance on Mary at Seton. An attempt on the part of Lennox to bring the murderer of his son to justice ended in Bothwell's acquittal, owing to the non-appearance of the accuser, and brought him fresh proofs of the queen's regard in the shape of large grants of land. In 1567 he carried off Mary as she was going from Stirling to Edinburgh, probably with her own connivance, and, having obtained a divorce from his wife, married the queen, May 15, 1567. Shortly afterwards a combination of the leading barons of Scotland forced Bothwell, who previous to his marriage had been made Duke of Orkney and Shetland, to fly to Borthwick Castle, and thence to Dunbar. On the queen's surrender to Kirkcaldy, after the conference at Carberry Hill, Bothwell had to escape as best he could

to the Orkneys. Pursued thither, and driven to sea, he was arrested by a Danish war-ship off the coast of Norway, on suspicion of piracy, and conveyed to Denmark. There he was imprisoned by Christian IX., first at Malmoë (1567—1573), then at Dragsholm (1573—1578); but the king refused the demands of the Scottish government for his extradition or execution. The so-called "Testament" he is said to have drawn up during this period, is probably a forgery. Bothwell was, as Randolph said of him, "despiteful out of measure, false and untrue as a devil;" and it is not the least extraordinary feature in Mary's career that she should have conceived any affection for this brutal, ferocious, and unscrupulous border chief.

F. E. Schiern, *Life of Bothwell*; trans. by D. Berry, 1880.

Bothwell Bridge, The Battle of (June 22, 1679), was fought between the Royalist troops, commanded by the Duke of Monmouth, and the forces of the revolted Conventiclers, or Covenanters. The insurgents occupied a strong position, with the Clyde between them and the enemy; but, as they attempted to defend instead of destroying a bridge, Monmouth cleared the passage of the river by his artillery. The insurgents were forced to retire to a hill near by, known as Hamilton Heath, where they were attacked by the Royal troops and completely routed. Bothwell Bridge is in Lanarkshire, near Hamilton.

Bottle Plot, The (1823). This name was given by Canning to a riot in a Dublin theatre, got up by the Orangemen, when a rattle and a bottle were thrown into the box of Lord Wellesley, the then Lord-Lieutenant, who was supposed to favour the Catholics. The grand jury threw out the bill for conspiracy with intent to murder which was brought in against those arrested.

Boulogne. I. Its capture by the English, the one important result of the combination of Henry VIII. and Charles V. for the subjugation of France in 1544, took place September 14, 1544, after a protracted siege of nearly two months. According to the original plan of the campaign, Charles was to strike across France by Champagne, Henry by Picardy, and neither was to stop till he reached Paris, where, in their united might, they were to dispose of the French monarchy. The first thing, however, that Henry did was to sit down with the bulk of his army before Boulogne; and when Charles reproached him for not adhering to the method of invasion determined upon between them, Henry retaliated by accusing Charles of a similar breach of their contract. The siege of Boulogne is principally memorable for the length of the resistance made by the garrison under the disadvantageous circumstances of weak fortifications, and besiegers strong in numbers and offensive engines. After the capitulation they were allowed to march out with their arms and property; whereupon, according to Hall's *Chronicle*, "the king's highness, having the sword borne naked before him by the Lord Marquis Dorset, like a noble and valiant conqueror, rode into the town, and all the trumpeters, standing on the walls of the town, sounded their trumpets at the time of his entering, to the great comfort of all the king's true subjects." The town was restored to the French on the conclusion of peace (1550). II. Boulogne was also the chief station of the force collected by Napoleon for the invasion of England in 1803. The Catamaran expedition (Oct. 1804) was an unsuccessful English attempt to burn his flotilla there by sending in fireships.

Boulter, Hugh (*b.* 1672, *d.* 1742), Archbishop of Armagh, studied at Merchant Taylors' School, and was elected a demy of Magdalen at the same time as Addison. He was subsequently chaplain to Sir Charles Hedges, and rector of St. Olave's, Southwark. In 1719 he was consecrated Bishop of Bristol, and in 1724 elevated to the archbishopric of Armagh and the Irish primacy. He took an active share in the political affairs of Ireland, was strongly opposed to Swift on the policy of diminishing the gold coin, though he concurred with him on the question of Wood's patent, and was one of the chief promoters of the system of Protestant Charter Schools. He founded many charities in Armagh, Drogheda, and elsewhere, and was no less than thirteen times appointed one of the Lords Justices of Ireland.

Biographia Britannica.

Bounty, Queen Anne's. [Queen Anne's Bounty.]

Bourchier, Family of. The founder of this family was Sir John de Bourchier, Justice of the King's Bench in the reign of Edward II. His son Robert became Lord Chancellor in 1340 (the first layman who held the office), was summoned to Parliament as a baron in 1342, and died 1349. The barony devolved on Henry Bourchier, Count of Eu, grandson of his younger son. He was created Earl of Essex 1461, and was succeeded by his grandson Henry, upon whose death the peerage became extinct.

Bourchier, Thomas (*d.* 1486), Archbishop of Canterbury (1454—1486), was the son of William Bourchier, Count of Eu, by Anne, daughter of Thomas of Woodstock, Duke of Gloucester. After holding minor preferments, he was elected Bishop of Worcester in 1435, and was translated to Ely in 1443. On the death of Archbishop Kempe,

the Council, at the request of the Commons prayed that the Pope would confer the primacy on Bourchier. Accordingly, he was appointed Archbishop of Canterbury in 1454. In 1455 he was made Chancellor, and held the Great Seal for eighteen months, both Yorkists and Lancastrians being anxious to conciliate a member of so powerful a family. Bourchier was at first inclined to act as a mediator between the contending factions, but subsequently became a distinct partisan of the Duke of York. He welcomed the return of the Yorkist leaders in 1460, and crowned Edward IV. in the next year. In 1464 he was made a cardinal. He crowned Richard III., and two years after performed the same office for Henry VII. He was a patron of learning, and instrumental in introducing printing into England, and left a reputation for personal generosity and kindness.

Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops.*

Bouvines, The Battle of (July, 1214), was fought at a small town between Lille and Tournay, between Philip Augustus of France and the forces of the Emperor Otto IV., with the Flemings and some English auxiliaries, under William, Earl of Salisbury. John had joined the alliance for the purpose of gaining the assistance of the Germans and Flanders in the war he was carrying on with Philip for the recovery of his French territories. The battle (in which the forces engaged on both sides would appear to have been very large) terminated in a signal victory for the French. The defeat consummated the separation of Normandy from England, and by depriving John of further hopes of being able to rely on his Continental dominions, as well as by the loss of prestige it occasioned him, had some effect in compelling him to submit to the demands of the barons. The battle is memorable as being one of the few occasions in which men of English, High-German, and Low-German race have fought side by side against the French and have been completely defeated.

Roger of Wendover, iii. 287 (Eng. Hist. Soc.). *See* Freeman, *Norm. Conq.*, v. 706, who speaks of it as "that day of darkness and gloom when three branches of the Teutonic race, the German, the Fleming, and the Englishman, sank before the arms of men of the hostile blood and speech." In Sismondi, *Hist. des Français*, vi. 424, a somewhat different view is taken.

Bowes, Sir Robert, was a distinguished soldier, diplomatist, and lawyer in the reigns of Henry VIII., Edward VI., and Mary. In the great Northern rebellion of 1536, he was among the prisoners captured at the surrender of Hull to the rebel forces. In 1542, whilst in command of a body of 3,000 cavalry, he was defeated and taken prisoner at Halydon-rigg by a Scottish force under the Earl of Huntley; and on the termination of hostilities between the two countries, became Warden of the East and Middle Marches. During the exercise of this office he compiled his *Informations* on the state of the Marches, and their laws and customs—a work full of curious and interesting details. In June, 1552, he was made Master of the Rolls, a position which just then was environed with dangers. As Master of the Rolls, Sir Robert Bowes was one of the witnesses to the will of King Edward VI., which fixed the succession to the crown on Lady Jane Grey. He retired from his office two months after Mary's accession to the throne, and during the remainder of his life he occupied himself with his old duties on the Scottish border. The precise year of his death is uncertain.

Boycotting was the name applied to the system of social and commercial ostracism which was extensively resorted to in Ireland during the land agitation of 1880 and 1881. Landlords who were disliked by their tenants, tenants who had paid rents to unpopular landlords, and other persons who incurred the hostility of the local branches of the Land League were rigidly isolated. No one could be got to work for them, or even to supply them with the necessaries of life. The name was derived from Captain Boycott, of Lough Mask House, a Mayo landlord and agent, one of the first against whom the process was put in force. Capt. Boycott was "relieved" by a number of Orangemen, escorted by a large military and police force, Nov. 11, 1880.

Boyle, Charles, 1st Lord (*b.* 1676, *d.* 1731), second son of Roger, Earl of Orrery, while an undergraduate at Oxford, took part in the controversy with Bentley on the letters of Phalaris. In 1700 he entered Parliament as member for Huntingdon, and in 1703 succeeded to the Irish peerage of Orrery. In 1709 he fought at Malplaquet, and in 1713 was Envoy Extraordinary to the States of Brabant and Flanders, and on his return received an English peerage. He was a favourite of George I., but in 1722 was committed to the Tower on a charge of being concerned in Layer's Plot, of which, however, he was acquitted. His later years were devoted to philosophical studies.

Boyne, The Battle of the (July 1, 1690), was fought between the troops of William III. and the Irish under James II. James, marching from Dublin, had taken up a position behind the river Boyne, and there waited for the invading army. His position was strong, and Schomberg endeavoured to dissuade William from the attack. Early in the morning, however, the English right, under young Schomberg, was sent to cross the river by the bridge of Slane, some miles higher up, and thus turn the Irish right. The bridge was captured. Four miles to the south of the Boyne the road to Dublin runs through the passage of Duleek. If Schomberg secured this pass the Irish retreat would be cut off. Lauzun, commander

of the French allies, marched to oppose him. Thus the Irish alone were left to withstand William. At the head of his left wing, consisting entirely of cavalry, he forced the passage of the river not far above Drogheda. The centre of his army was commanded by the elder Schomberg. The Irish infantry fled without a blow; the cavalry under Richard Hamilton fought bravely on. The gallant Schomberg fell while rallying his troops. But at this moment William came up with his left wing, and the battle was won. The Irish cavalry retreated slowly, fighting to the last; their leader, Hamilton, was taken prisoner. James fled early in the day towards Dublin. The fugitives poured through the passage of Duleek, where the French had steadily resisted Meinhart Schomberg's attack. Considering the great importance of the victory, the loss was slight. About 500 English had fallen, and 1,500 Irish.

A striking and detailed account of the battle is given in Macaulay's *History*.

Boy-Patriots was a name given by their enemies to a body of young and rising men who opposed Sir Robert Walpole's administration, but who coalesced neither with the Tories nor with the malcontent Whigs. The chief members of this party were Lyttelton, George Grenville, Lord Cobham, and, above all, William Pitt.

Bracton, Henry (*d.* 1268), the writer of a valuable commentary on the laws of England, was educated at Oxford, and devoted himself to the study of law. In 1245 he was appointed one of the judges errant, and later on was one of the king's clerks or secretaries. He is supposed to have become an ecclesiastic towards the close of his life, and to have been Archdeacon of Barnstaple. His work, entitled *De Legibus et Consuetudinibus Angliæ*, is our great authority for mediæval English law. An excellent edition is published in the Rolls Series (1878, &c.), with a Translation, Notes, References to Glanville, &c., and Introductions by Sir Travers Twiss. The editor suggests that "the immediate object which Bracton had in view in composing his work, was to draw up a manual of the common law of England for the use and instruction of the Justiciaries of the Eyre." The work is very largely influenced by Roman legal ideas.

See Sir Travers Twiss's Introductions; Reeves, *Hist. of Eng. Law*; Güterbock, *Henricus de Bracton und sein Verhältniss zum Römiselen Rechte*, 1862.

Braddock Down, situated between Liskeard and Bodmin, in Cornwall, was the scene of a battle during the Civil War. Here, on Jan. 19, 1643, the Royalist officers, Sir Ralph Hopton and Sir Bevil Grenville, coming from Bodmin, encountered and defeated the commander of the garrison of Plymouth, Ruthven, who, without waiting for the support of his superior officer, the Earl of Stamford, had crossed the Tamar and occupied Liskeard. The result of the battle was that the Cornishmen resumed the offensive, drove back Stamford and his forces, and carried by assault Saltash and Okehampton.

There is a full account of the battle in a letter of Sir Bevil Grenville, printed in Forster's *Life of Pym*. *See* also Clarendon's *Hist. of the Rebellion*, vi. 248.

Braddock, General. [Duquesne, Fort.]

Bradshaw, John (*b.* 1602, *d.* 1659), was a barrister, but was very little known, either as a lawyer or a politician, when, in 1648, he was made President of the High Court of Justice, instituted to try Charles I. The reason for his appointment seems to have been the refusal of all the leading lawyers to serve on the trial, and the necessity of having some one possessed of legal knowledge as the president. For his services he was given the house of the Dean of Westminster, the sum of £5,000, and large grants of land, and made Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster. He subsequently presided at the trials of the Duke of Hamilton and other Royalists, and was President of the Councils of State from 1649 to 1651. He was a member of the Parliament of 1654, and was probably one of those excluded for refusing to sign the engagement recognising Cromwell's authority. In 1659 he was made one of the Council of State, and shortly afterwards a commissioner of the Great Seal; but he died before the end of the year. He was one of those who were styled "stiff Republicans," or "Commonwealth's men," and was sincerely opposed to the government of one person, whether king or protector; but he does not appear to have been a man of any marked ability. After the Restoration his body was disinterred and hung in chains at Tyburn.

Bradwardine, Thomas (*b. circa* 1290, *d.* 1349), a native of Chichester, educated at Merton College, Oxford, was one of the most celebrated of the scholastic philosophers, and was known by the title of *Doctor Profundus*. He became Chancellor of the university, Professor of Divinity, and subsequently chaplain to Edward III. In 1349 he was appointed to the archbishopric of Canterbury, but within a few weeks of his consecration he was carried off by the Black Death.

Bradwardine's great work, *De Causa Dei*, was printed in 1618 (Lond., folio). His other works were chiefly mathematical.

Braemar Gathering, The (Aug. 26, 1715), was the name given to the great assembly of disaffected nobles and Highland chiefs which met ostensibly for the purpose of a hunting in the Earl of Mar's forest of Braemar, but in reality to organise measures for raising the standard of insurrection in favour of the Pretender, which was done soon afterwards (Sept. 6). Among those at

the Braemar gathering were the Earl of Mar, the Marquis of Tullibardine, Lords Southesk, Errol, Kilsyth, Kenmure, Strathallan, Seaforth, and Glengary.

Braintree Case, The. In 1837 the majority of the vestry of Braintree postponed a Church rate for twelve months; the churchwardens, however, proceeded to levy it on their own authority. A prohibition of the Court of Queen's Bench restrained them. It was suggested, however, that the churchwardens and the minority of the vestry might legally levy a rate, as it might be argued that the votes of the majority who refused to perform their duty were not valid. The churchwardens and the minority of the vestry voted a rate accordingly (July, 1841). On the matter being once more brought before the Court of Queen's Bench, that tribunal now declared the rate valid. The decision was affirmed by the Court of Exchequer Chamber, but upset on appeal by the House of Lords, which pronounced the rate invalid, and altogether denied the right of the minority of the parishioners to levy it. It was such cases as this that led to the Act 31 & 32 Vict., cap. 109, which abolished compulsory Church rates, because "the levying thereof has given rise to litigation and ill-feeling."

May, *Const. Hist.*, ii. 430. *See* the case of Gosling *v.* Veley in *Queen's Bench Rep.*, vii. 409; and *House of Lords Cases*, iv. 679.

Bramham Moor, The Battle of (1408), was fought between the Earl of Northumberland, and the other nobles who had revolted against Henry IV., and the royal troops, under Sir Thomas Rokeby. The latter were completely victorious, Northumberland being killed on the field, and his chief associate, Lord Bardolf, mortally wounded. Bramham Moor is in Yorkshire, between Leeds and Tadcaster.

Brandywine, The Battle of (Sept. 11, 1777), in the American War of Independence, was fought on the shores of Brandywine Creek, about fifty miles from Philadelphia, and ended in the defeat of the Americans, under Washington. General Howe had landed 18,000 men near the Brandywine. Washington had only 8,000 troops fit for action. For some days he baffled General Howe's attempts to drive him back. At length the two armies encountered one another. While Howe and Cornwallis made a flank movement with the greater part of their forces, Washington resolved on a bold attack on the British in his front. To render such an attack successful, the co-operation of Sullivan was necessary. But that general, using his own discretion instead of obeying orders, laid himself open to an attack while his troops were in confusion. The rout of Sullivan's troops threw the rest of the American army into confusion, and soon they were everywhere in retreat. The American loss was set down by Howe at 300 killed, 600 wounded, and 400 prisoners, as against 90 killed and 500 wounded and missing on the English side. Washington made good his retreat; but he had to abandon the idea of saving Philadelphia when he found that Cornwallis had forced his way between his camp and that town.

Bancroft, *Hist. of the United States*, v., chap. xxiii.

Brantingham Roll is the name given to the Issue Roll of the Exchequer for the forty-fourth year of Edward III., when Thomas of Brantingham, Bishop of Exeter, was Treasurer, containing an account of the various payments made during the year. It was discovered in the office of Pells, and published in 1835, with a general introduction on the character of the Exchequer Records by Mr. Frederick Devon.

Braose, William de (*d. circa* 1212), was one of the most powerful barons in England, and received from Henry II., in 1177, the grant of the whole kingdom of Limerick. He was one of the itinerant justices in Richard I.'s reign, but fell out of favour with John, who in 1210 stripped him of all his possessions, and, it is said, starved his wife and son to death in Windsor Castle. De Braose himself escaped to France, where he died shortly afterwards. His youngest son Reginald received back a great part of his father's possessions, but, dying without heirs in 1229, the family became extinct.

Foss, *Judges of Eng.*

Bray, Sir Reginald (*d.* 1503), was one of Henry VII.'s most trusted counsellors. Together with the Lord Treasurer he was the king's messenger in 1485 to the city of London to ask the citizens for a loan of 6,000 marks, obtaining, after much negotiation, the considerably smaller sum of £2,000. He was the object of special hatred to the Cornish rebels of 1497 as being the instrument of Henry's extortion.

Bread Riots (1816). The cessation of the great war, which caused many farms to be thrown out of cultivation, and the failure of the harvest, occasioned severe distress and riots in all parts of England, especially in the eastern counties. Declaring that the farmers had conspired to raise the price of bread, the mob set farm buildings on fire, demanded that wheat should be sold cheap, and in several places broke into the bakers' shops. The riots were suppressed by military force, and the rioters tried by a special commission. There were also occasional riots caused by famine during the Chartist movement. The most dangerous were those of 1842, in Yorkshire and Lancashire.

Spencer Walpole, *Hist. of Eng.*, i., chap. v.

Breauté, Falkes de, was a Norman of mean birth, who had served King John with unscrupulous fidelity as a mercenary captain, and was in 1208 rewarded by him with the sheriffdoms of Glamorgan and Oxfordshire, the castles of Chilham, Northampton, Cambridge, Oxford, and Bedford, and the hand of Margaret Redvers, widow of Baldwin, son of the Earl of Devon. On John's death, it was judged advisable to conciliate this soldier, who had taken Bedford Castle, burnt the suburbs of London, and terrorised over John's enemies in the neighbouring counties. In return for his aid to the royal cause against Louis and the rebel barons, he obtained the sheriffdoms of Rutland, Cambridge, Huntingdon, Buckingham, Bedford, Oxford, Northampton, for seven years. But from 1220 onwards the vigorous work of Hubert de Burgh was putting an end to the state of things in which such a man could move freely. Convicted at the Dunstable Assizes in 1224 of thirty-five acts of violence, he audaciously captured one of the justices, and imprisoned him in Bedford Castle, under the care of his brother, William de Breauté, who refused to surrender it, saying "he was no liegeman of the King of England." The siege took two months, "with great slaughter of the king's nobles;" and it required an elaborate siege-train. The castle was taken and the garrison at once hanged. Falkes, now under excommunication, had fled to North Wales, the prince of which district married his daughter Eva; but he soon returned and submitted himself to the king's mercy. The judgment of the barons was that he should surrender all his goods and abjure the realm. His wife, too, obtained a divorce on the ground of constraint; and on his first setting foot in Normandy, only his crusading vow protected him from being hanged by the French king. He prevailed with Honorius III. to send a strong letter of intercession to the king. While on his way back to England, however, he died in Normandy. Falkes de Breauté was a typical example of the unscrupulous foreign adventurers whom the early Angevin kings introduced into England as able tools of royal misgovernment.

Matthew Paris, *Chronica Majora*, sub anno 1224; *Annals of Waverley*, p. 300; *Royal Letters* of Henry III., i. 543 *seq.*; and especially Walter of Coventry, ii. 253, 272 *seq.* [A. L. S.]

Breda, The Declaration of (April 14, 1660), was the manifesto sent by Charles II. to both houses of the Convention Parliament. By this the king granted a free and general pardon to all "who within forty days after the publishing hereof shall lay hold upon this our grace and favour, and shall by any public act declare their doing so," except such as Parliament should except. It also granted amnesty for all political offences committed during the Civil War, and the subsequent interregnum; promised that the king would rely on the advice and assistance of a free parliament; and declared a liberty to tender consciences, so "that no man shall be disquieted or called in question for differences of opinion in matter of religion." The king also undertook that no inquiry should be made into the titles of lands acquired under the Commonwealth, and that the arrears of Monk's officers and soldiers should be paid.

Parliamentary Hist., iv. 17.

Breda, The Treaty of (July 31, 1667), was concluded between England on the one side, and France, Holland, and Denmark on the other. It was entered into after a naval war between England and Holland, in which the victories had been pretty evenly distributed. France had joined the Dutch, fearing that England would make herself supreme on the seas, but she had not taken much share in the war, her policy being to use the two great naval powers as checks one upon the other. The following were the terms of the Treaty of Breda:—1. The islands of St. Christopher, Antigua, and Montserrat were restored to England, and the province of Acadia (Nova Scotia) to France. 2. England and Holland made peace on the principle of *uti possidetis;* thus England retained New York and New Jersey, and Holland retained Surinam. 3. The Navigation Act was modified in favour of the Dutch. 4. Friendly relations were restored between England and Denmark.

Koch and Schoell, *Hist. des Traités*, i. 300.

Brehon, or, more correctly, Brethom, in Erse signifies a judge. From the earliest days of Irish history of which we have any trace, this class seems to have been a distinctly recognised one, and previous to the conversion of the Irish to Christianity we have proof that the office had become hereditary. In fact, there seems strong reason for connecting the Brehons with the ancient Celtic priesthood in Ireland, whether or no we choose to give to that priesthood the name of Druid. [Druids.] Some of the chief Brehons, whose names have been handed down to us, especially a very celebrated one, Dubhthach mac na Lugair, chief author of the *Senchus Mor*, is by later writers often called a Druid. Cæsar tells us that the Druids had acquired the office of judges in both civil and criminal cases, and that they were likewise bards who preserved the historical traditions of the people. The Brehons as they are known to history—that is to say, the Brehons of Christian time—seem to have united these two offices. "The Brehons and feast poets of the men of Erin," says an opening paragraph of the *Senchus Mor*. We can easily understand that when a change of religion came, and the priestly functions passed to the men ordained by Patrick and his successors, the more secular offices would be retained by the Brehons. The

preaching of St. Patrick began about the year 432, and was crowned with a rapid success. One of the most important among his early conversions was that of the Brehon Dubhthach above spoken of. We may suppose there were some mutual concessions between the two. Dubhthach, who was probably a Druid, renounced his magical and idolatrous practices, and Patrick in his turn "blessed his mouth" (as we are expressly told in the *Senchus Mor*) when he uttered secular judgments. It was probably with St. Patrick that the idea arose of writing down the Brehon laws, or, as we should say, of codifying them. We must remember that at this time Theodosius had just codified the Roman law, a precedent which would be present in the mind of St. Patrick. In fact, from this time forward we nearly always find that the conversion of any barbarous people to Christianity is immediately followed by some sort of codifying of their ancient traditional law. The first Saxon code is that of Ethelbert, King of Kent, which was undertaken by St. Augustine. Whatever of the traditional law is not inconsistent with the Christian doctrine or the crown law, is in all cases retained, but what is opposed to these is expunged. Thus, in the introduction to the first great code of Brehon laws, the *Senchus Mor* (A.D. 438—441), we find a distinction made between the "law of nature" and the "law of God." The latter refers to the laws which came with the revealed religion; the former term bears reference to the words of St. Paul where he speaks of the Gentiles "doing by nature the works of the law," and therefore means all in the ancient code which was not inconsistent with the revealed commandments. The *Senchus Mor* is said to have had nine authors, or co-operators, in its construction, who are spoken of as "the nine pillars of the Senchus Mor." Three were kings, viz., Laeghaire, Over-King of Ireland; Core, King of Cashel; and Dairi, King of Ulster. Three were bishops or saints, namely, Patrick, Benen (Benignus), and Cairnech: these we may suppose looked after the Christian portion of the code. Finally, we have three Brehons, who were, of course, the chief authors of the law, viz., Dubhthach before mentioned, assisted by Rossa and Ferghus. These last two are sometimes spoken of simply as "bards;" but as we have before said, it is not probable that there was any distinct line of demarcation between the Brehon and the bard.

See Ancient Laws of Ireland (Irish Rolls Series); E. O'Curry, *Manners of the Ancient Irish*; Sir H. S. Maine, *Early History of Institutions*. [C. F. K.]

Brember, Sir Nicolas (*d.* 1388), was Lord Mayor of London in 1377, and again from 1383 to 1385. He was the head of the royalist party in the city, and in 1387 was one of those who were appealed of treason by the Lords Appellant. In 1388 he was impeached by Parliament, sentenced to be beheaded, and shortly afterwards executed. [Appellant, Lords.]

Brenneville, The Battle of (Aug. 20, 1119), was a cavalry skirmish fought during the campaign in Normandy between Louis II. of France and Henry I., and arose out of the support given by the former to William Clito. The French were united, and shortly afterwards Louis made peace and abandoned William. There were only about 900 men engaged in this combat, and not more than three were killed. Both kings were present on the field.

Ordericus Vitalis, xii. 854; Sismondi, *Hist. des Français*, v. 145.

Brentford, Patrick Ruthven, Earl of (*d.* 1657), after having served in many foreign armies, joined the Royalist troops, and was at once made a field-marshal by Charles I. He had an important command at the battle of Edgehill, and on the death of the Earl of Lindesay was made Commander-in-chief of the Forces. He was created Earl of Forth, and subsequently Earl of Brentford, by the king, who had a high opinion of his military ability. He was severely wounded in the second battle of Newbury, and obliged to resign his command, being succeeded by Prince Rupert. Clarendon remarks that, "both by reason of his age and his extreme deafness he was not a man of counsel or words; hardly conceived what was proposed, and as confusedly and obscurely delivered his opinion."

Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion*, viii. 29, &c.

Brentford, The Battle of (Nov. 12, 1642), was fought between the Royalists under Prince Rupert and the Parliamentarians under Denzil Holles. After the battle of Edgehill Charles marched towards London, touching Reading and other places on the way. At Brentford Rupert encountered three regiments which were stationed there, and after a sharp skirmish forced the barricades they had erected, and occupied the town of Brentford, taking fifteen hundred prisoners and eleven cannons. The Parliamentary army being subsequently reinforced, the king was obliged to fall back from Brentford, and retired into winter quarters at Oxford.

Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion*, vi. 135.

Brest, The Expedition against (1694), was a disastrous failure. The English government had attempted to keep the destination of the expedition secret, but it had become well known to the French government. Information had been treacherously conveyed to them by various persons in England, among others by Marlborough, who wrote a letter to James II. on the subject. Thus forewarned, the French government sent Vauban to put the defences in order. On the 6th of June the fleet, under Berkeley,

with Talmash in command of the land forces, was off Cape Finisterre. It was proposed to land in Camaret Bay. The Marquis of Caermarthen, the eldest son of the Duke of Leeds, entered the basin to reconnoitre, and reported the defences formidable. But Berkeley and Talmash thought that he overrated the danger. Next day Caermarthen, with eight ships, was followed by Talmash with a hundred boats full of soldiers. A murderous fire from the batteries swept away the men. Talmash, however, imagining that he was confronted by peasants, refused to retire, and fell mortally wounded as he attempted to land. Ships and boats hastily retired from the bay, but not without the loss of four hundred sailors and seven hundred soldiers. The expedition returned ingloriously, after attempting to blow up the pier at Dunkirk, and bombarding Dieppe, Havre, and Calais.

London Gazette, 1694; Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*

Bretigny, The Treaty of (May 8, 1360), was concluded between England and France after the continued successes of Edward III., while the French king, John, who had been taken prisoner at Poitiers, remained in captivity in England. The protracted negotiations were brought to a close by a dreadful storm, recorded in history, which was interpreted to be a manifestation of Divine wrath at the continuance of hostilities. The English renounced their pretensions to the crown of France, as well as to Normandy, Touraine, Maine, and Anjou. France consented to cede Gascony, Guienne, Poitou, and their dependencies and outlying districts; and in northern France, Calais, Guisnes, and the county of Ponthieu. King John was to pay a ransom of 3,000,000 gold crowns. The question of Brittany was left open. The French were to break off their alliance with the Scots, and to abstain from assisting them against the English, and the English were to give no further aid to the Flemings. By a separate treaty, the Kings of France and Navarre were to be reconciled.

The articles are in Rymer, *Fœdera*, vi. 219, 232. *See* also Froissart, 209; Knyghton, 262—4; Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.*, iii. 180.

Bretwalda. A title of supremacy among the early Anglo-Saxon kings. Bede (*Hist. Eccles.*, ii. 5) gives a list of seven kings who had ruled over the English south of the Humber. The first four—Ella of Sussex, Ceawlin of Wessex, Redwald of East Anglia, and Ethelbert of Kent — could have had no power over the Northumbrians, even if they all really possessed the influence Bede assigns to them. But the last three—Edwin, Oswald, and Oswy — were Northumbrian kings, and therefore their "imperium" or "ducatus," according to Bede, must have extended over all South Britain. Oswald is, in fact, called by Adamnan (*Vit. S. Columbæ*), "Totius Britanniæ Imperator ordinatus a Deo," and history proves the reality of their power. The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle (*s. a.* 827), when enlarging on the exploits of Egbert, quotes Bede's list, and adds to them Egbert, saying, "And he was the eighth king that was *Bretwalda*." West-Saxon prejudice probably caused the chronicler to pass over the great Mercians of the eighth century, of whom Ethelbald claimed to be "King of the South English," and Offa "Rex Anglorum" (*Cod. Dip.*, i. 96, 162, &c.), while Charles the Great called the latter the "greatest of the kings of the West." Besides this passage, the remarkable word Bretwalda occurs elsewhere only in a bilingual charter of Athelstan in 934 (*Cod. Dip.*, v. 218), which describes him as "King of the Anglo-Saxons and *Brytaenwalda* of all the island"—in Latin, "Anglo-Saxonum nec non totius Britanniæ Rex." In seeking the meaning of this rare title we must first distinguish between the name Bretwalda and the fact of overlordship. Every one admits the successive hegemony of Northumbria, Mercia, and Wessex over English and British alike. But the nature of this supremacy, and the relation of the Bretwaldadom to it, have been much debated. Rapin started a theory of an elective sovereignty, which Turner and Lingard at least tacitly accept, and which Palgrave worked out to new consequences in his *English Commonwealth*. Palgrave connects the title with the imperial position of the kings, as inheritors of the remains of Roman Imperialism that still survived the withdrawal of the legions. The Bretwalda was the successor of Carausius, the predecessor of Edgar. He illustrates the continuity of Roman and British influence after the English Conquest, and the all-pervading fascination of Rome. "Heptarchic" England was a federal monarchy under an elective Bretwalda, the "wielder of Britain." Out of this office grew the later English kingship. Athelstan, the last Bretwalda, the first "King of the English," marks the contact of the two titles. Against this brilliant but unsupported theory Kemble (*Saxons in England*) does his best to minimise both fact and title. The word is not "ruler of Britain," but "wide ruler" (from *bryten*, broad; cf. *brytencyning*). The idea of election among the "kites and crows," of continuity between rival races, of a meeting of Welsh princes to transfer to Ella the "Empire of Britain," is quite untenable. How could the feeble princes of the south-east make their influence felt up to the Humber? Hallam (*Middle Ages*, ii. 352—9, and *Archæologia*, vol. xxxii.) inclines, though with more moderation, to a similar view. Mr. Freeman (*Norm. Conq.*, vol. i., note B) leans to "an intermediate position between Kemble and Palgrave." He accepts the title as significant of a substantial hegemony, but

rejects Palgrave's doctrine of Roman influence and continuity. The Bretwaldadom is of "purely English growth." Dr. Stubbs (*Const. Hist.*, i. 162) seems to agree with Mr. Freeman in a view that certainly best accounts for the facts. If we could get rid of Ella and the earlier Bretwaldas, there would be some reason for connecting the triumph of the Northumbrians over Cadwallon, and the final catastrophe of the Britons, with Edwin's assumption of imperial style and emblems. (*See* Rhŷs' *Celtic Britain*, p. 134, for an ingenious recent development of Palgrave's theory.) But there is no evidence for a consistent theory, and there is always the danger of making too much of a name that occurs only twice in the authorities.

Besides the authorities referred to in the text, see Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, i. 542, note B, where there is an exhaustive statement of all that can be said on both sides of the question, and a complete list of the various imperial titles assumed by early English kings. [T. F. T.]

Brewer, John S. (*See* Appendix.)

Brewer, William (*d.* 1226), was employed as a minister, a judge, and an ambassador by Henry II., Richard I., John, and Henry III. He was a strong supporter of the royal prerogative under the two latter monarchs, and received valuable rewards for his services. His generosity and piety are celebrated by most of the chroniclers of these reigns.

See Matthew Paris, *Hist. Anglor.*, ii. 123, iii. 253, &c.; Hoveden, *Chron.*, iii. 16, 264, &c.

Brian Boru (or Boroimhe) is said to have been the son of Kennedy, King of Munster. His first warlike exploits were performed under the banner of his brother, the King of Cashel. After his brother's assassination, he became King of Munster, and as such compelled the Danes of Dublin to pay tribute. He was engaged in a long and finally successful war against Malachy, the King of Tara, and his nominal overlord. In the end he was acknowledged as lord even by the O'Neils, and Malachy, their chief, followed in his train as an under-king. The whole island had now submitted to him, but the Danes made an effort to re-establish their supremacy. Leinster joined the Ostmen, but they were overthrown by Brian in twenty-five battles and finally at Clontarf (1014). Brian, who is said to have been eighty-three years of age, did not command in person, but remained in his tent, where, after the victory had been won, he was killed. Tradition makes Armagh his burial-place. Brian Boru must be regarded as the popular hero of early Irish history, and the stories told about his reign led to its being regarded as a sort of golden age. The O'Briens and many other distinguished Irish families claim him as their ancestor.

Annals of Inisfall; Niala Saga; O'Conuor *Rer. Hibern. Script. Vet.*

Bribery. (1) Indirect Bribery, by the bestowal of titles and offices and the like, has at some periods of our history been frequently employed by the crown and by its ministers. The practice became very common under the later Stuarts, and under William III. the abuse had become so great that by the Act of Settlement, 1701, it was enacted that no person holding an office under, or receiving a pension from, the crown, should be eligible for election as a member of Parliament. This Act was speedily repealed in favour of one which rendered the holders of any new office created after Oct. the 25th, 1705, incapable of sitting in the House, as well as persons who were in receipt of a pension from the crown during pleasure, and which further obliged members to vacate their seats on accepting any of the existing offices, though they might be immediately re-elected. In 1742 another Act was passed against placemen; and in 1782 government contractors were prohibited from sitting in the House. After the beginning of Mr. Pitt's administration, the practice of bestowing places as a bribe to members gradually became much less common, and almost ceased after the Reform Bill; though a certain amount of this indirect form of bribery is perhaps a necessary accompaniment of our parliamentary system, which places offices at the disposal of the leaders of the successful party. [Pensions.]

(2) Direct Bribery by sums of money may be divided into three classes:—

(i.) *Bribery of Members of Parliament by the Crown or its Ministers* was largely employed during the age of Charles II., when the king himself took the money of France, and partly employed it in bribing members. Instances had, however, occurred under James I., and we are told that Richard II. occasionally used "gifts" to secure the passing of unpopular measures through the House of Commons. William III. found it necessary to have recourse to the same means of propitiating obstinate members; and under George II. (especially during the administration of Sir Robert Walpole) bribery was "reduced to an organised system." Under George III., Lord Bute frequently bribed those whose votes he wished to secure. In regard to the peace of 1762, Horace Walpole says: "A shop was publicly opened at the Pay Office, whither the members flocked, and received the wages of their venality in bank-bills, even to so low a sum as £200 for their votes on the treaty, £25,000, as Martin, Secretary to the Treasury, afterwards owned, were issued in one morning, and in a single fortnight a vast majority was purchased to approve the peace." In 1763 Lord Saye and Sele returned Mr. Grenville a bribe of £300, saying that "a free horse wanted no spur." The practice continued under Lord North, but gradually died out under the powerful and popular administration of Mr. Pitt. The union with England in

1800 was, however, passed through the Irish Parliament by the systematic bribery of the Opposition members, carried out on an enormous scale.

(ii.) *Bribery of Judges and Ministers* was, even in early times, of very frequent occurrence; and it was no uncommon thing to find one or more of the judges corrupt. In 1401 a statute was passed, to the effect that all judges, officers, and ministers of the king convicted of bribery shall forfeit treble the bribe, be punished at the king's will, and be discharged from the king's service, whilst the person who offered the bribe was held guilty of a misdemeanour. Under the Tudors and Stuarts judicial bribery was common, the best-known instance being that of Lord Chancellor Bacon, who, in 1621, was found guilty on his own confession of having received extensive bribes, and was heavily fined, sent to the Tower, and degraded. There are, however, many other instances of judges being removed for corruption. Judicial and ministerial bribery has, however, been practically unknown since the Revolution of 1688.

(iii.) *Bribery connected with Elections.* The first instance of a penalty inflicted for bribery in elections was in 1571, when a fine was imposed on the borough of Westbury for receiving a bribe of four pounds for the election of Thomas Long as their member, "being a very simple man, and of small capacity to serve in that place," though Long himself was not expelled from the House. Under the Stuarts the practice of purchasing votes continued, and had become quite common by the reign of Charles II. In 1696 an attempt was made to pass a statute, which subsequently became law in the reign of Anne, to impose a property qualification of £600 a year from land on county members, and £300 a year on borough members, in order to check the system by which men who had made money in trade or otherwise, used to buy seats in places with which they had absolutely no connection. Ten years before this, however, the first Bribery Act had been passed, though bribery had even then been recognised as an offence by the common law, and had been condemned by resolutions of the House of Commons. The increase of corruption under George II. led to an Act in 1729 inflicting severe penalties on persons receiving bribes; but it seems to have had little effect, and in 1762 another Act was passed inflicting pecuniary penalties for bribery. There were two methods by which candidates might purchase a seat: they could either buy the borough outright from the corporation or proprietor, or, if the electors happened to be independent, they could buy individual votes. Examples of the first method are by no means uncommon. In 1767 the mayor and corporation of Oxford offered to return their sitting members, Sir Thomas Stapylton and Mr. Lee, at the next election for £567. The offer was refused, and some of the aldermen were sent to Newgate, but subsequently discharged, after having been reprimanded on their knees by the Speaker. The borough of Ludgershall was sold for £9,000; and, says Sir Erskine May, "it was notorious at the time that agents, or 'borough-brokers,' were commissioned by some of the smaller boroughs to offer them to the highest bidder." Bribery of individual electors also prevailed to a large extent, prices generally ranging from twenty guineas to one guinea a vote; though it is said that the electors of Grampound on one occasion received £300 a-piece. In 1768, 1782, and 1786 attempts were ineffectually made to secure the acceptance of bills to restrain corruption; and it was not until 1809 that a Bill was brought in by Mr. Curwen to prevent the obtaining of seats by bribery, and actually passed. Heavy penalties were imposed by it on corrupt agreements for the return of members; and in the case of persons returned by bribery or corruption, it enjoined the forfeiture of their seats, but does not seem to have been very effectual. The Reform Act of 1832 made no distinct provision for the restraint of bribery, which continued to be practised more or less openly, in many cases leading to the disfranchisement of boroughs. In 1841 a new Bribery Act was passed extending the powers of election committees. In 1852 an Act provided for the appointment of royal commissioners to inquire into cases of corruption; and two years later the offer or acceptance of a bribe was rendered a misdemeanour, which might be punished by fine, imprisonment, and forfeiture of franchise; by this Act also the accounts of election expenses were to be published. In 1858 another Act permitted the conveyance of voters to the poll, though no money was to be given to the voters themselves for the purpose. In 1883 an Act, called the Corrupt and Illegal Practices Act, was passed to prevent bribery, and limit the expenses of elections. Stringent penalties against corruption are enacted in it. A candidate found guilty of bribery is incapacitated for sitting in the House of Commons, or voting at an election for seven years. Persons convicted of bribery, or "undue influence," are liable to imprisonment for a year, and a fine of £200. The use of hired vehicles for conveying voters to the poll is illegal. Since 1868, when the House of Commons resigned its privilege of exclusive jurisdiction in cases of controverted elections, the mode of questioning the validity of an election is to present a petition against it. This petition is tried before one of the judges of the superior courts of common law. The judge certifies the result of the trial to the Speaker, and at the same time reports any violations of the law relating to corrupt practices which have been proved before him. The House thereupon takes the requisite

action on his certificate and report. [Elections.]

Broom, *Const. Law*; Sir T. E. May, *Const. Hist.*; Walpole, *Memoirs*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Mahon, *Hist. of Eng.*; Molesworth, *Hist. of the Reform Bill.* [F. S. P.]

Bridgeman, Sir Orlando (*b.* 1609, *d.* 1674), was the son of a Bishop of Chester, and was returned as member for Wigan to the Long Parliament in 1650. He took part with the king, and in 1644 was one of the members of the Oxford Parliament. In 1645 he was one of the king's commissioners at the Treaty of Uxbridge. During the Commonwealth he lived in retirement, and devoted himself to conveyancing. Bridgeman and Sir Geoffrey Palmer are credited with the invention of an important legal expedient during this period. "This was the notable contrivance of 'trustees to preserve contingent remainders,' of which it is enough to say that it protected the interests of tenants in tail against the risk of being defeated by the wrongful act of preceding life tenants. From this epoch must be dated the modern type of settlement." On the Restoration he was appointed Chief Baron of the Exchequer, and very shortly afterwards Chief Justice of the Common Pleas. He presided at the trial of the regicides. In 1667 he was made Lord Keeper of the Great Seal, and held it till 1672. His eldest son, Sir Henry, was created Lord Bradford.

Brodrick, *English Land*, p. 58.

Bridge of Dee, The Affair of (1639), is the name given to the forcing of the bridge over the Dee by Montrose and the Covenanters. The bridge was gained by its defenders being drawn off by a stratagem, and access was thus obtained to the city of Aberdeen. In Sept., 1644, Montrose, this time on the Royalist side, again fought a successful engagement at the bridge of Dee.

Bridge Street Gang (1820). A nickname bestowed on the "Constitutional Association" formed for the suppression of seditious, libellous, and blasphemous literature, which made itself very unpopular by its activity in instituting prosecutions against newspapers and other publications.

Bridgewater. An ancient town in Somersetshire on the River Parret, and said to derive its name (Burgh-Walter) from a Walter of Douay, to whom the manor was granted at the Conquest. A fine castle was built here in Henry II.'s reign by William de Briwere. The town was taken by the Royalists in 1643, but in July, 1645, it was captured by Fairfax. By this capture the Parliamentarians secured a line of forts extending from sea to sea which blocked up and practically isolated Devonshire and Cornwall. Bridgewater was one of the places that declared for Monmouth, and it was within a few miles of this town that he met with his overthrow at Sedgemoor. The borough of Bridgewater was disfranchised in 1870.

Bridlington, John of (*d.* 1379), a regular canon living in the diocese of York, was the author of a curious poetical retrospect of the reign of Edward III., "compiled," says Mr. Wright, "in a form which is by no means unknown in modern literature—namely, that of a supposed old text, and of a recent commentary." It has been printed in vol. i. of Mr. Wright's *Political Poems and Songs* (Rolls Series, 1859).

Bridport, Alexander Hood, 1st Viscount (*b.* 1727, *d.* 1814), entered the navy, became a lieutenant in 1746, and post-captain in 1756. In 1758 he served under Admiral Saunders in the Mediterranean, and under Sir Edward Hawke in the Channel. In 1766 he was appointed Treasurer of Greenwich Hospital. In 1778, he took an active share in the engagement off Ushant. In Sept., 1780, he was appointed Rear-Admiral of the White, and in 1782 commanded the centre squadron of the fleet sent out under Lord Howe to relieve Gibraltar. On Feb. 1, 1793, he became Vice-Admiral of the Red; and on the very next day France declared war. On the 1st of June, 1794, the division of the Channel fleet commanded by Lord Howe attacked and utterly defeated the French fleet off the Hyères Islands. In this action Hood played a conspicuous part, and in the following August he was created Baron Bridport, in the Irish Peerage. In the following June, having succeeded Lord Howe in the command of the Channel fleet, he sailed with fourteen ships from Spithead to cruise off the French coast, and chased a French fleet into Port L'Orient. During his tenure of command in the Channel occurred the mutiny of the fleet, which cannot, however, be in any way attributed to his conduct. On the contrary, the men disavowed all intention of giving personal offence to the admiral, and called him their father and friend. At length, through the combined efforts of Lord Bridport and Lord Howe, and the tact and prudence displayed by both, the men were brought back to their allegiance, and again sailed, in 1799, under Lord Bridport in pursuit of the French fleet, which this time eluded them and escaped to the Mediterranean. On resigning his command he became general of marines, and in 1801 was raised to the rank of viscount. He lived on for thirteen years, chiefly in retirement.

Allen, *Naval Battles*; James, *Naval Hist.*; Lodge, *Portraits.*

Briefs, Church, were letters addressed by the sovereign to the archbishops, bishops, and clergy, empowering them to raise voluntary contributions for building churches, and for charitable purposes generally. They do not appear to have been issued before the

Reformation, and may possibly be derived from the briefs given by the papal court to mendicant friars, empowering them to collect contributions. The granting of briefs appears to have led to great abuses. It was regulated by Anne, cap. 14, and practically abolished by 9 Geo. IV., cap. 42, though briefs have been issued for special purposes since the date of the latter statute.

Briefs, Papal. [Bulls; Papacy.]

Brigantes, The, were a powerful tribe, or confederacy of tribes, of ancient Britain. They occupied the whole of the northern and north-western part of Southern Britain, as far as the Firth of Forth and Clyde, and appear to have been driven northward from their original southern possessions by later colonists. According to the view of some authorities, they were descendants of the earlier [non-Celtic] inhabitants of the island. They were, at any rate, among the rudest and fiercest of the British tribes. Cartismandua, the queen of one of the Brigantian tribes, was an ally of the Romans, and delivered Caractacus to them when he sought refuge in her kingdom. But the nation was weakened by a civil war, which broke out between Cartismandua and her husband, Venusius; and after being defeated by Cerealis in 69, was subdued, after some difficult campaigns, by Agricola. There was a tribe of Brigantes (possibly a colony from Britain) which occupied the present county of Wexford, in Ireland.

Tacitus, *Agricola*, 22, &c.; Elton, *Origins of Eng. Hist.*; Skene, *Celtic Scotland*, i. 71; Wright, *Celt, Roman, and Saxon*.

Brigham, The Conference of (July, 1290), was a meeting held by the Scotch estates, near Berwick, to decide about the marriage of the Maid of Norway and Prince Edward of England. A treaty was made, and accepted by Edward, providing that the rights and liberties of Scotland should continue unviolated; that the kingdom of Scotland should remain separate from England, divided by its proper boundaries; and that no parliament was to be held beyond the frontiers of Scotland to discuss matters respecting that kingdom, and other points favourable to Scotland. On Baliol obtaining the crown of Scotland from Edward, the English king required as a condition of its bestowal the renunciation of the Treaty of Brigham.

Rymer, *Fœdera*, i. 735—6.

Bright, John (*b.* 1811, *d.* 1889), son of Jacob Bright, of Greenbank, Rochdale, took an active part in the Reform agitation of 1831—2, and became, in 1839, one of the earliest members of the Anti-Corn Law League. In April, 1843, he unsuccessfully contested the city of Durham, for which, however, he was returned in July following; and he continued to sit for Durham till 1847, when he was returned for Manchester. He made his maiden speech in Parliament on Mr. Ewart's motion for extending the principles of Free Trade, Aug 7, 1843. During the interval between his election for Manchester and the accession of the first Derby ministry to power, Mr. Bright's activity in Parliament and on the platform was varied and continuous. In the House of Commons he proposed to apply the remedy of Free Trade in land to the state of things which produced the Irish famine. He appealed unsuccessfully for the despatch of a royal commission to investigate the state of India; and in 1849 he was appointed one of the members of the celebrated select committee of the House of Commons on official salaries. In the Legislature and in the provinces, especially at Manchester, he co-operated earnestly with Mr. Cobden in his attempts to obtain financial reform, with a view to the reduction of the naval and military establishments. He also denounced the Russian War with great energy, and at the general election that ensued, he was rejected by Manchester, but in a few months was invited to fill a vacancy at Birmingham. In 1868 he accepted office under Mr. Gladstone, as President of the Board of Trade, but was compelled by ill-health to retire from office in Dec., 1870. On his recovery, he became Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, which office he continued to hold till the downfall of the Liberal Government in 1874. On the return of the Liberals to power, under Mr. Gladstone, in 1880, Mr. Bright became Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster. He resigned on July 17, 1882, owing to a difference with his colleagues as to their Egyptian policy. In 1886 he opposed the Home Rule Bill.

J. Morley, *Life of Cobden*, 1881; W. Robertson, *Life and Times of John Bright*, 1883.

Brihtwald (*b. circa* 650, *d.* 731), Archbishop of Canterbury (692—731), belonged to the royal house of Mercia. During his archbishopric, the much-vexed question of the celebration of Easter was settled by almost all the British bishops adopting the Roman practice. This period also saw the beginning of missionary enterprise abroad, and the English engaged in preaching the Gospel to their heathen kinsmen in Germany.

Bede, *Hist. Eccles.*; Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops*.

Brihuega, The Battle of (1710), was a great defeat sustained by the English arms during the War of the Succession in Spain. General Stanhope, with Staremberg, his Austrian colleague, had occupied Madrid, but it was found impossible to hold the city. They therefore retreated into Catalonia, marching in two parallel armies. The French commander, the Duke of Vendôme, pursued with remarkable rapidity. Stanhope was

surprised and surrounded at Brihuega. The walls of the town were battered with cannon, and a mine sprung under one of the gates. The English kept up a deadly fire until their powder was consumed, and then fought on with the bayonet against terrible odds. At length the British general saw that further resistance could produce only a useless slaughter of his troops. He concluded a capitulation by which the remnant of his army, 500 in number, surrendered themselves as prisoners of war. Scarcely was it signed when Staremberg appeared. His slowness had ruined his cause; but the battle that ensued, called that of Villa Viciosa, was admirably contested, when night put an end to it. Staremberg remained master of the field, but all the fruits of the battle remained with Vendôme. The Austrian general spiked his cannon, and, with a sorry remnant of his army, consisting of 7,000, took refuge in Barcelona.

Stanhope, *Hist. of Reign of Queen Anne*, 454.

Brisbane, the capital of Queensland, was founded as a penal settlement in 1825, and named after Sir Thomas Brisbane, Governor of New South Wales, 1822--26. It formed part of New South Wales till 1859. The penal establishment was abolished in 1842.

Bristol has from an early period ranked as one of the most important of English towns. Until the rise of Liverpool and the manufacturing towns of the North, it was the second city in the kingdom. The castle was granted by the Conqueror to Robert Fitzhamon, from whom it passed by marriage to Robert of Gloucester, natural son of Henry I. Robert of Normandy was for a time imprisoned here. In Bristol Castle Stephen was imprisoned by the partisans of Matilda in 1141, and sixty years later the ill-fated Eleanor of Brittany was incarcerated at Bristol by her uncle John, who was afraid that her claims to the throne might be put forward by his opponents. In 1399 Henry of Lancaster took the town, and put to death many of the adherents of Richard II. Sebastian Cabot was born at Bristol, and sailed from that port on his famous voyage, and in 1609 a colony of settlers from Bristol were the first to establish themselves in Newfoundland. Bristol was made the seat of one of Henry VIII.'s new bishoprics. The town played a very prominent part in the civil war of the seventeenth century. At the beginning of the Great Rebellion Bristol declared for the Parliament, and received a garrison under the command of Nathaniel Fiennes. In July, 1643, the Royalist successes in the west made the possession of Bristol still more important, as commanding the valley of the Severn, and Prince Rupert was sent to besiege it. After a very brief attack, Fiennes determined to capitulate, and Rupert offered such good terms that a large number of the Parliamentary troops took service in his army. Bristol remained in the possession of the Royalists till September, 1645, when Rupert, who was in command of the town, surrendered it in almost as unaccountable a manner as Fiennes had done two years before. In 1656 Bristol Castle was destroyed by the government. In 1685 it was the one town in Somerset that refused to receive Monmouth. In 1715 serious riots broke out here on the occasion of the accession of George I. Violent riots also occurred in 1793 in opposition to an unpopular bridge-toll, and many persons lost their lives before they were suppressed; and great rioting took place in 1831 [Bristol Riots] in connection with the Reform Bill. The church of St. Mary Redcliffe, one of the finest in England, was in great part built by William Cannynge, a wealthy merchant of Bristol, in the later part of the fourteenth century.

Seyer, *Memoirs of Bristol*, 1821; Evans, *Chronological Hist. of Bristol*, 1824; *Historic Towns* series.

Bristol, John Digby, 1st Earl of (*b.* 1580, *d.* 1654). He was born at Coleshill, in Warwickshire, was the youngest son of Sir George Digby, knight, and of Abigail, daughter of Sir A. Hevengham of Norfolk. In March, 1606, he was knighted by James I. In 1611, and again in 1614, he went as ambassador to Spain. In 1616 James conferred on him the manor of Sherborne, in Dorset. In 1617 Digby went for the third time to Madrid with the special mission of reviving negotiations, commenced during his former embassies, for a marriage between Prince Charles and the Infanta Maria. On his return in 1618 he was made a peer with the title of Baron Digby of Sherborne. In 1621 Digby went first to Brussels and afterwards to Vienna, in order to prevail on the Emperor Ferdinand to restore the Palatinate to James's son-in-law, Frederic. Digby strove to negotiate peace on the basis that the Emperor should restore the Palatinate, and that Frederic in return should renounce the title of King of Bohemia and abandon the right of private war within the Empire. But his efforts were unavailing. If Digby's policy was to succeed, it was necessary that James should be able, in case of need, to draw the sword. James, by his angry dissolution of Parliament in 1621, shattered the policy of his ambassador. In 1622 Digby again went to Spain in order to conclude the marriage treaty and obtain the restoration of the Palatinate through the influence of Philip IV. He thought that, in return for some modification in the treatment of English Catholics, Spain would support a compromise in Germany. But in this he was mistaken, since the Spaniards were aiming at no less than the conversion of the English nation to the Catholic faith. In 1622 he was created Earl of Bristol. The visit of Charles

and Buckingham to Spain in 1623 resulted in the breaking off of the negotiation and the recall of Bristol. On his return Bristol was ordered to remain in confinement at his own house, because he refused to admit that he had been at fault and to make apologies to Buckingham. In 1626 he appealed to the House of Lords and brought accusations against the Duke of Buckingham. Charles, to defend his favourite, retaliated by accusing Bristol of high treason. In 1628 Bristol opposed the king's first answer to the Petition of Right. When Strafford was impeached, Bristol sought to save his life while incapacitating him from holding office. On the breaking out of the civil war, he took the king's side. At its close he went to Paris, where he died Jan. 16, 1653.

A few of Bristol's Despatches are printed in the Appendix to the *Clarendon State Papers*, vol. i. For his defence of his conduct in Spain, see the *Camden Miscellany*, vol. vi.; for his own impeachment, and the charges that he made against Buckingham, *Parliamentary History*, vol. vii.; for a general account of his political career, S. R. Gardiner, *Hist. of England, 1603—1642*. [B. M. G.]

Bristol, George Digby, 2nd Earl of (*b.* 1612, *d.* 1677), was the eldest son of the preceding. He was educated at Oxford, and sat for Dorsetshire both in the Short and the Long Parliaments. He at first joined the Opposition, and was one of the managers of Strafford's impeachment, but soon went over to the king, and voted against the Bill of Attainder which the Parliamentary leaders had brought in against Strafford. He received a writ of summons to the House of Lords as Baron Digby, and became one of the king's confidential advisers. He was one of the chief promoters of the scheme for the arrest of the Five Members, after the failure of which he was impeached by the Commons and fled to Holland. On his return he was captured and imprisoned at Hull, under the care of Sir John Hotham, who connived at his escape. He joined the king, and took part in most of the important battles of the Civil War, till, quarrelling with Prince Rupert, he threw up his command. At the conclusion of the war he fled to France, where he distinguished himself in the war of the Fronde; but, having formed a foolish idea of supplanting Mazarin and becoming Prime Minister of France, he was obliged to escape to the Netherlands. On the Restoration he returned to England, but his flighty and untrustworthy character prevented his being appointed to any office. In 1663 he brought a charge of high treason against Clarendon, which was, however, rejected by the House of Lords, and after that he took no part in public affairs. He was a man of undoubted ability, and one of the foremost orators of his time, but unstable and headstrong to the last degree.

Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion*, and *Life*; Lodge, *Portraits*.

Bristol, Frederick Augustus Hervey, Earl of (*d.* 1803), and Bishop of Derry, was an eccentric nobleman who affected to adopt the character of a prelate of the Middle Ages. He raised three regiments of Volunteers, which were commanded by his nephew. At the second Dungannon Convention he was one of the leaders. In 1784 he entered Dublin in almost royal state, and expected to be chosen president of the Convention there, but he had identified himself too much with the more extreme party, and was disappointed. When the Convention dispersed, he went to Ulster and made inflammatory speeches, so that at one time his arrest was contemplated. The earl was in favour of Catholic Emancipation, Reform, and separation from England.

Bristol Riots (Oct. 29, 1831) were a series of outbreaks produced by the popular indignation which resulted from the rejection of the Reform Bill by the House of Lords. On the occasion of the public entry into Bristol of the recorder, Sir Charles Wetherell, a bitter opponent of the Bill, a mob which seems never to have greatly exceeded a few hundred persons, took possession of the principal streets, broke into the town-hall, and set fire to several houses. For two days, the weakness of the magistrates allowed the disorders to continue unchecked; at length they instructed the military to re-establish order, which was done without much difficulty, though with some loss of life. The blame for the long continuance of the riots was laid on Colonel Brereton, the commander of the military, who might have used the discretion with which the magistrates had armed him (probably in order to avoid the responsibility themselves) to suppress the disturbances at an earlier period. He was tried by court-martial, and, unable to face the consequences, committed suicide. Four of the ringleaders were hanged, and the town was compelled to pay £68,000 damages.

Britain. [Britannia; Romans in Britain; Britons; and Great Britain.]

Britain, Count of (Comes Britanniæ), was a Roman officer who in Constantine's scheme of governing the Empire, was the supreme general of the military forces in Britain. His jurisdiction was, however, subject to that of the Masters of the Cavalry and Infantry in the West. His power was not localised within Britain, but under him were the *Dux Britanniarum*, who seems to have commanded the forces massed along the northern wall, and the *Comes Litoris Saxonici*, who was in command of the coast-line between the Wash and Wight, which was most exposed to piratical Saxon assaults. The "Gwledig" is thought by some to have inherited the power of the *Dux Britanniarum*.

Rhŷs, *Celtic Britain*, pp. 98, 99; Skene, *Ancient Books of Wales*, i. *seq.*; Hübner in *Corpus Inscrip. Lat.*, vii. 5.

Britannia, or **Brittania** (the latter very rare form is the "theoretically correct" spelling), a name constructed by the Romans from the tribe-name Brittones, known to them as Britanni, and used by them to denote the larger of the "British Islands," originally styled Albion. After Cæsar's time this is the general usage, but in an earlier form "*αἱ βρεταυικαὶ νῆσοι*" are said to have included Ierne (Ireland) as well as Albion. [Britons.]

Rhŷs, *Celtic Britain*, pp. 203—211.

Britannia, The Roman Divisions of. Originally only one Province of Britain was constituted, but it is possible that Severus divided it into Upper and Lower Britain; though whether this statement rests on a misconception of Dio Cassius, a merely popular use of the words, or a regular legal subdivision of the province, it is hard to determine. In Diocletian and Constantine's reorganisation of the Empire, the "diocese" of Britain was divided into four "provinces," Britannia Prima, Britannia Secunda, Flavia Cæsariensis, and Maxima Cæsariensis. To these Valentia was added in 369. It consisted of the district between the two walls of Hadrian and Antoninus. The situation of the rest is absolutely unknown, for it is now acknowledged that the chronicle of "Richard of Cirencester," from which the ordinary identification comes, is an eighteenth-century forgery.

Hübner, Preface to vol. vii. of *Corpus Inscrip. Lat.*, gives a well-digested summary of all that is known on this subject. *Cf.* Rhŷs, *Celtic Britain*, and Elton, *Origins of Eng. History*.

Britanny, Relations with. There is no sufficient evidence to warrant the belief that Britanny received its present population from Britons who fled from the Saxon invaders. Individual cases of emigration, settlements from the days of the soldiers of Maximus downwards, there may well have been. Intimate relations certainly existed between Welshmen and Britons in the earliest times. Similarity of language, place-names, institutions, and traditions point to the racial unity of Gaul and Briton. In their western sea-girt highlands, each alike struggled against the ever-flowing tide of Roman and Teutonic influences, yet preserved unimpaired their tongue and nationality. But the colonisation theory is rather a popular attempt to explain these phenomena than a proved fact. If the Britons did conquer Armorica, whom did they expel, and how did fugitives, disorganised by defeat, manage to win so large and fair a territory? The popular legends, moreover, speak as much of migrations from Armorica to Britain (*e.g.*, the legend of St. Padarn in Rees' *Welsh Saints*) as from Britain to Armorica. With the establishment of the English monarchy over Britain, the early relations of Wales and Britanny became fewer. But even in England Alfred sends gifts to Breton Abbeys, and Athelstan gives a shelter to Alan when the Breton revolt against William Longsword of Normandy had been put down. The superiority which Rolf had previously established over Britanny thus continues, and accounts for the number of Bretons in the Conqueror's army, and their large grants of land in the west of England. Alan of Britanny received that Honour of Richmond which so long remained a link between England and Britanny. It was from Britanny that Walter Map brought the old Welsh Book of Legends of Arthur that is professedly the basis of Geoffry of Monmouth's history, and Rhys Ap Tewdwr's return from his exile in Armorica marks a new era in Welsh literature. Like the Welsh, the Bretons were constantly harassed by war and faction; and, in 1148, when the Count of Porhoet defeated Hoel VI., the defeated party invoked the aid of Henry of Anjou as Rolf's successor. Henry granted the duchy to his brother Geoffry, whose death was succeeded by the triumph of the native prince, Conon IV. But Henry, since 1154 King of England, compels Conon to abdicate and marry his daughter Constance to his son Geoffry. Thus Henry II. practically adds Britanny to the Angevin Dominions. Geoffry died in 1186, and the rivalry of John and Philip Augustus for his territory ultimately led to his son Arthur's murder, the French triumph, and a new line of Breton princes sprung from Geoffry's daughter. In 1342 Edward III. found another opportunity of intervention in favour of John of Montfort, the native claimant, against Charles of Blois, the friend of Philip VI. For many years the Breton succession war was an episode in the great hundred years' struggle of France and England. Left unsettled at the Treaty of Bretigny, the question was at last decided, at the battle of Auray, in favour of the house of Montfort. In the early stages of England's second struggle for France, Britanny, though less energetically than Burgundy, sided with the English. But Arthur of Richmond, brother of the duke, and inheritor of the old Honour of Alan, broke with the English, and became the great supporter of Charles VII. In 1488 the death of Francis II. produced a European contest for the hand of his daughter Anne which, despite the exertions of Henry VII., resulted in her marriage with Charles VIII., and the ultimate annexation of Britanny to France. Thus the old ally of England became a province of her hereditary enemy.

Bede, Nennius, the *Anglo-Saxon Chron.* and the *Brut y Tywysogion*, contain the earliest references to the colonisation. *Cf.* Elton, *Origins of Eng. Hist.*, p. 365, note, which refers to the *Histories of Britanny*, by Halléguen and De Courson. Freeman's *Norman Conquest* (vol. i. 199, 206; vol. iii. 313; vol. iv. 172, 296) gives an account of later dealings. For Henry II.'s relations, see Lyttelton, *History of Henry II.*

[T., F. T.]

British Central Africa. [NYASALAND PROTECTORATE.]

British Legion, THE. On the outbreak of the war between Isabella of Spain and Don Carlos, in 1835, an Order in Council was issued authorising "any person to engage during the next two years in the military and naval service of her Majesty Isabella II." De Lacy Evans, a colonel in the British army, was selected for the command. Recruits to the number of 10,000 were enlisted, and despatched to the Peninsula. In 1837 Evans returned to England; and in 1838 the Ministry withdrew the Order in Council, and the corps was dissolved.

Briton, THE NORTH. [WILKES.]

Britons. The general name given by the Romans to the inhabitants of South Britain. Its etymology has generally been traced to the Welsh *brith* (spotted or tattooed), but it is more probably kindred with *brethyn*, the Welsh for cloth. Thus, the Britons were the clothed people, as opposed to the pre-Celtic occupants, who probably wore but little clothing. The classical form "Britanni" passed away with the Romans, and was superseded by the more correct form, "Brittones." Modern inquirers have sought a remedy for the vague use of the word Briton by limiting it (in its Welsh form, Brython) to that branch of the Celtic stock otherwise called the Cymric; and it has been pointed out that large Gaelic survivals prevented South Britain from being exclusively the property of either group of tribes. [CELTS.] But as these vestiges of the Gael had almost passed away before regular history begins, we cannot do much harm in treating of the Britons in the more general sense of the ancient writers. But, politically and socially, we have not sufficient information to draw a clear line between Brython and Goidel (Gael); especially if, with Mr. Elton, we reject the accounts in Bede and his school. The absence of heroic kingship, the nearer approximation (especially in the South-East) to the higher culture and civilisation of Gaul, the predominance of Druidism [DRUIDS] over the ordinary Aryan polytheism are, perhaps, the chief marks of the "Brythonic" tribes. Linguistically, they are distinguished from the Gael by the use of "p" instead of the older "qu" or "qv." The tribes of the south were, from their neighbourhood or their affinity to the Gauls, the most advanced in culture, and the Cantii were, according to Cæsar, the most civilised nation. Besides these, the chief tribes of the Britons were the Belgæ, Atrebatii, the Regni, the Durotriges, and the Dumnonii (Goidelic) of the South; the Dobuni, Catuvellauni, Coritavi, and Cornarii of Middle England; the Iceni, Cenimagni, and Trinobantes of the Eastern Counties; the Silures. Demetæ and Ordovices of South-Eastern, South-Western, and Northern Wales; the Brigantes, and some less important tribes—such as the Parisi, Segantii, Otadini, Selgovæ, and Damnonii—of the district between the Humber and the Northern Wall. Beyond this latter the Britons, in any precise sense, hardly extended.

Elton, *Origins of English History* (especially chap. ix.), with Rhŷs's later *Celtic Britain*; Skene, *Celtic Scotland*, gives a rather different view; Camden, *Britannia*, has the fullest local and archæological details.

For the ethnology and general characteristics of the Britons, *see* CELTS. The chief tribes are mentioned under their various names. For the political history of Britain, *see* ROMANS IN BRITAIN. [T. F. T.]

Britton is the title of an early summary or abstract ("Summa de legibus Angliæ quæ vocatur Bretone") of English law purporting to have been written by command of Edward I. Nothing is known with certainty as to the authorship of the work. The theory that it was the work of John le Breton, Bishop of Hereford, is untenable, because there are allusions in the work to events which occurred after the death of that prelate in 1275. Selden and others have thought that the book was written by Henry de Bracton, and is an abridgment of his great work. [BRACTON.] Britton is a very useful guide to the English legal system of the thirteenth century. It has been printed, in 1640, by Edward Wingate, and by Mr. F. M. Nichols, with an English translation, Oxford, 1865.

Broad Bottom Administration, THE (1744—1754), was a cant name given to the ministry formed by the Pelhams, after they had contrived to rid themselves of Carteret by threatening to resign, because its supposed policy was to admit to office the heads of Opposition, both Whig and Tory, except Carteret and Bath. Chesterfield and Pitt were persuaded to relinquish their opposition (the former becoming Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland), the Privy Seal was given to the Tory Lord Gower, and Sir John Hinde Cotton, an undoubted Jacobite, was given a place about the court; while other posts were given to the Dukes of Devonshire and Bedford, Lords Cobham and Hobart, and Bubb Dodington. In 1746 the Pelhams, finding themselves in danger of being once more supplanted by Granville (Carteret), demanded the admission of Pitt to office, and on the king's refusal resigned; but on Granville's failure to form a ministry they returned to office.

Coxe, *Pelham*; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*

Broken Men was the name applied by the Scottish government, in the fifteenth century and subsequently, to such persons in the Highlands as had no chief to be responsible for them. The government had so far recognised the tribal institutions that, by an

Act of Council of the reign of James IV., the chiefs were held responsible for the execution of writs against their followers.

Bromley, Sir Thomas (*b.* 1530, *d.* 1587), was in 1566 made Recorder of London, and in 1570 Solicitor-General, in which capacity he took a leading part in the trial of the Duke of Norfolk, 1572; he was subsequently employed in the attempt to extort concessions from the Queen of Scots; and, on the death of Sir Nicholas Bacon, was made Lord Chancellor, 1579. In 1586 he took an active part in the prosecution of the conspirators in Babington's plot, and was President of the Commission for the trial of Mary Stuart, whilst he shared with Burleigh and Davison the responsibility of despatching the warrant. He died shortly afterwards, having never got over the anxiety of the presidency.

Brompton, John, Abbot of Jervaulx, compiled a chronicle about the middle of the fifteenth century, consisting of selections carefully made from older chroniclers. This work, which embraces the period from 597 to 1199, possesses little authority, but curiously enough is constantly quoted by historians. It was printed by Twysden in his *Scriptores Decem*, 1652.

Brooke, Sir James (*b.* 1803, *d.* 1868), after serving with credit in the Bengal army, visited Borneo in his yacht in 1838, and assisted the Sultan against the revolted Dyak tribe. In return he received a grant of the district of Sarawak from the Sultan of Borneo with the title of Rajah. He did much to ameliorate the condition of the natives, to develop the resources of the island, and to suppress piracy, and earned on several occasions the thanks of the British government, to whom he more than once offered to surrender Sarawak. The island of Labuan having been acquired by the British, Brooke was appointed its governor, 1847; but in 1851 serious charges of cruelty towards the Dyaks were brought against him by Joseph Hume. A Royal Commission investigated the matter, but came to no definite conclusion. Sir James Brooke was, however, deprived of the governorship of Labuan. His later years were spent in England; but he frequently visited Sarawak.

Parl. Debates (3rd ser.), vol. 118, p. 439, *seq.* A collection of Sir J. Brooke's *Letters* was issued in 1853.

Brougham and Vaux, Henry, Lord (*b.* 1778, *d.* 1868), the eldest son of Henry Brougham, of Brougham Hall, Westmoreland, educated at the High School and University of Edinburgh, was admitted to the Scottish bar in 1800. When the *Edinburgh Review* was established in 1802, Mr. Brougham became one of its most active contributors, and exhibited an extraordinary variety and extent of knowledge. In 1807 he resolved to qualify himself for the English bar, and in 1808 he began to practise in the Court of King's Bench, and on the northern circuit. In 1809 he was returned to Parliament for the borough of Camelford. His powers of debate were soon recognised, and he became the rival of George Canning, and his most formidable opponent. In the election of 1811, Mr. Brougham was beaten at Liverpool by Mr. Canning, and was excluded from Parliament till 1816, when he was returned for Winchelsea. In 1820 he undertook, with Denman, the defence of Queen Caroline. During the whole of the trial his popularity was as unbounded as the queen's. On Feb. 11, 1822, he moved a resolution in the House of Commons for the consideration of the public burdens, particularly those pressing on the agricultural interest. This motion was, however, negatived. In the same year he moved a resolution condemnatory of the unconstitutional influence of the crown in the government, which was also lost. In 1823 he delivered a powerful speech exposing the designs of the Holy Alliance. On April 17th of the same year, he exchanged abuse of such an insulting nature with Canning, that the Speaker was compelled to order both into the custody of the Sergeant-at-Arms, and they only escaped this by retractations. In the same year he was engaged with Mr. Birkbeck in founding the first Mechanics' Institute. In 1825 he took a large share in the foundation of the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, and also of the London University. In 1828 he delivered his famous six hours' speech on Law Reform. In 1830 he came prominently forward as the champion of Parliamentary Reform, and the House of Commons had no sooner met than he announced his intention to bring in a Bill embracing a comprehensive measure of reform. A ministerial crisis, however, supervened. The Duke of Wellington, having been defeated on a government measure, resigned; and the formation of a new government under Earl Grey, including Brougham, who with some difficulty was induced to accept the Chancellorship, placed in the hands of the ministry the great question of Parliamentary Reform. But though no longer a representative of the people, and personally relieved from the charge of the Reform Bill, his best powers were called forth in support of it; and his speech on the 7th Oct., 1831, when the Bill was read a second time in the House of Lords, was a display of eloquence of the highest order. As Lord Chancellor, Brougham's success was not very great. He was unacquainted with the details of English equity, jurisprudence, and with the practice of his court, and his manners gave great offence to the distinguished advocates who practised before him. His extraordinary energy, however, atoned for many defects, and he had the distinction of getting through the arrears

in his court with unexampled rapidity. In 1834 Brougham resigned with the Whig government. In 1835 they returned to power under Lord Melbourne, but Lord Brougham, who had never acted cordially with the leaders of his party, did not return with them, and Cottenham, greatly to Brougham's anger and chagrin, was made Lord Chancellor. Released from party ties he now acted independently, and even showed a disposition to court the Tories, and especially the Duke of Wellington. But for the remainder of his long life the part he played in politics was unimportant, though his restless vanity still kept him before the public eye. As a law reformer, and a member of the Privy Council, he continued to do useful work; and many of his judgments in House of Lords appeals are of great importance. Lord Brougham's powers of mind, his remarkable activity, his ardent love of liberty and justice, his versatility and his eloquence, made him one of the most conspicuous figures in English politics for many years; and had these great qualities not been neutralised by defects almost as striking—an unbounded recklessness, an extraordinary want of self-control, and an eccentricity which sometimes bordered on insanity—he could hardly have failed to rank among the most illustrious of English statesmen.

Lord Brougham's *Autobiography*, which was written during the closing years of his life when his memory was failing, is often untrustworthy. The same must be said of Lord Campbell's *Life* of Brougham, the work of a not too generous rival. Lord Brougham wrote largely on a great variety of topics, but his writings are now little read. The best of his historical works are the *History of England under the House of Lancaster*, and *Sketches of the Statesmen of the Time of George III.* His *Speeches* were collected in four volumes, 1838. [S. J. L.]

Broughton, John Cam Hobhouse, Lord (*b.* 1786, *d.* 1869), the eldest son of Sir Benjamin Hobhouse, was educated at Westminster School and at Trinity College, Cambridge. He was the intimate friend of Lord Byron, accompanied him on his travels in 1809, and was with him during his first visit to Turkey and Greece. He adopted advanced Liberal views in politics, and was a zealous advocate of Parliamentary Reform. In 1816 he wrote a work called *Letters written by an English Gentleman resident at Paris*, which gave great offence to the English government. In December, 1819, in consequence of one of these letters, which contained some severe remarks on certain members of the House of Commons, and which was therefore declared a breach of privilege by that assembly, he was arrested and imprisoned in Newgate, but was liberated a few weeks after, when Parliament was dissolved by the death of George IV., in 1820. The same year he was elected with Sir F. Burdett member for Westminster. In 1832 he joined Earl Grey's government as Secretary for War. In 1833 he was appointed Chief Secretary for Ireland; and in 1834 Chief Commissioner of Woods and Forests. He was President of the Board of Control from 1835 to 1841; and again from 1846 to 1852. He succeeded to the baronetcy in 1831; and was raised to the peerage as Baron Broughton in 1851.

Brownists, The, were a religious sect founded in the reign of Queen Elizabeth by Robert Brown, a clergyman of the Church of England, who began to preach his doctrines about 1580. They were ultra-Puritans, regarded the Church of England as impure, and, assuming the character of Separatists, refused to hold any communication with her. They were strong opposers of episcopacy, and, in consequence, suffered much persecution at the hands of the bishops. In 1593 a statute was passed enacting the penalty of imprisonment against any person above the age of sixteen who should forbear, for the space of a month, to repair to some church until he should make such open submission and declaration of conformity as the Act appointed. In consequence of the rigorous enforcement of this Act, a large proportion of the Brownists sought an asylum in Holland, whence subsequently, in 1670, many of them sailed from Amsterdam to found a new home in America. The members of the sect who remained in England endured considerable persecution, until the principle of Toleration was recognised. During the Civil Wars of Charles I.'s reign they became merged in the sect of the Independents. The Brownists objected alike to Episcopacy and to the Presbyterian form of Church government, and favoured a purely congregational system, without convocation or synod, and without any separate order of priests. [Barrowists; Independents.]

Fuller, *Church Hist.*; Neal, *Hist. of the Puritans*; Mosheim, *Eccles. Hist.*; Masson, *Life of Milton*, vol. ii.

Bruce, The Family of (or de Brus), was of Norman descent. The founder of the English branch came over with William the Conqueror and obtained large grants of land in Northumberland, where the family quickly assumed a powerful baronial position, being frequently involved in border warfare with the Scotch. David I. of Scotland made over to the house of Bruce the lands of Annandale about 1130, and thus it obtained its recognition as a power in the south of Scotland. Isabella, second daughter of David, Earl of Huntingdon, the brother of Malcolm IV., married Robert de Brus, Lord of Annandale, and their son became a competitor for the crown of Scotland, 1291. Their grandson was the great Robert Bruce, King of Scotland 1306—1329.

Bruce, Edward (*d.* 1318), was the brother of Robert Bruce. He commanded the reserve at Bannockburn, and dispersed the English archers. His restless spirit gave much trouble to his brother, who gladly let him go to Ireland, to assist the native rebels against

England. On May 25th, 1315, he landed from a fleet of 300 sail at Lorne, on the coast of Antrim. With some 600 men he took Dundalk, and was joined by a large native force. The O'Neil resigning his claims, he was crowned king. At the River Boyne he defeated the O'Connors and the Red Earl of Ulster, and proceeded to besiege Carrickfergus. In Meath the Lord Justice Mortimer succumbed to him, and the flight of another English force before him led to a rising in Munster and Leinster. In 1316, however, want of provisions compelled the Scots to retire into Ulster and leave the Wicklow septs to their fate. The De Burghs and Geraldines also agreed to a truce in face of a common foe. But Robert's arrival counteracted all this, and was at once followed by the capture of Carrickfergus, though the English victory at Athenry restored the balance somewhat. The Bruces, however, followed by 20,000 men, now marched straight on Dublin, and the De Lacys openly joined them. Dublin was not taken, but the country was wasted as far as Limerick; and so completely was this done that the Scots themselves suffered severely, on their retreat, from want, and it was only the supineness of the English which enabled them to regain their old position. In 1317, Robert Bruce's good sense induced him to give up the contest and leave Ireland; all his forces, however, remained with his brother. The Anglo-Irish, still fighting among themselves, were unable to gain any advantage. In 1318, however, Edward Bruce and the De Lacys, joining their forces, marched to Dundalk, but were met near that place, on Oct. 5th, by the now united English, were routed, and Bruce himself killed. His body was quartered, and the head sent to Edward II.

Walsingham, *Hist. Anglic.*; Moore, *Hist. of Ireland.*

Bruce, Robert, King of Scotland (*b.* 1274, *s.* 1306, *d.* 1329), was the grandson of Robert de Bruce, the rival of John Baliol. In 1297 he fought for Edward I. against Wallace, then joined the Scottish army, and, in the same year, returned to his allegiance to the English king until 1298, when he again joined the national party in Scotland, and was chosen one of the guardians of that kingdom. In 1304 he entered into an alliance of mutual support with Lamberton, Bishop of St. Andrews, and about the same time became reconciled to Edward, at whose court he resided until Feb., 1306, when—hearing that the king, owing to some information that he had obtained from Comyn, intended to put him to death—he fled to Scotland. Having stabbed Comyn at Dumfries in a quarrel, he determined to assert his right to reign over Scotland as the representative of David of Huntingdon. He was accordingly crowned at Scone (March 27th, 1306) by the Countess of Buchan, of the house of Macduff. Edward I. at once procured from the Pope the excommunication of Bruce, and was on his way to revenge the death of Comyn when he died at Burgh-on-the-Sands, in 1307. Before this, however, Bruce had been twice defeated (at Methven and Dulay), though he had somewhat retrieved his fortunes at Loudoun Hill. It is to this period of his life that the marvellous stories told by the chroniclers about him mainly refer. There is no doubt that Bruce had to conceal himself in the fastnesses of the mountains, and to support himself as best he could. In 1308 he routed his old enemy, the Earl of Buchan, at Inverury, harried Lorne, and received additional support by a declaration of allegiance on the part of the clergy. A feeble incursion into Scotland, undertaken by Edward II., 1310, was revenged by Bruce in the two following years, when he invaded England and laid Durham waste. In 1313 Bruce ravaged Cumberland, and laid violent siege to the castle of Stirling, the attempted relief of which by the English led to the Scotch victory of Bannockburn in 1314, a battle in which Bruce displayed as much generalship and valour as he afterwards did moderation in the use he made of his victory. His attempts to bring about peace were, however, unsuccessful. In 1316, when he left Scotland for a time to aid his brother Edward in Ireland, his absence was made the occasion of many unsuccessful inroads by the English. An attempt at mediation on the part of the Pope (John XXII.) having failed, Bruce, in 1318, took Berwick, and harried Northumberland and Yorkshire. The next year Edward II. tried unsuccessfully to recover Berwick, only drawing down on his kingdom retaliatory raids on the part of Bruce, who, in 1322, entered into negotiations with the rebel Earl of Carlisle. At length, on March 30th, 1323, a truce was concluded at Thorpe, in Yorkshire, for thirteen years, and was ratified by Robert Bruce at Berwick. The peace was, however, soon broken, and in 1326 Bruce again ravaged the north of England, evading the English army, which he reduced to great straits by destroying all their provisions. In 1328, another treaty very favourable to Scotland was made at Northampton, by which Robert's son David married Joanna, daughter of Edward II. "The good King Robert" died at Cardross, June 7, 1324, and by his patriotism, wisdom, and courage left behind him the character of a goodman. He married, first, Isabella, daughter of the Earl of Mar, and, secondly, Elizabeth de Burgh, daughter of the Earl of Ulster.

Fordun, *Scotichronicon*; Barbour's great poem, *The Bruce*, which is the fullest account of Bruce's exploits, and is valuable as being the work of a nearly contemporaneous writer; Walsingham, *Hist. Anglic.*; Burton, *Hist of Scotland.*

Bruce, Robert de (*d.* 1295), and Lord of Annandale, was of Norman origin, and the son of Robert de Bruce and Isabella, daughter of David of Huntingdon. He was one of the Scotch Commissioners who went to Salisbury to confer about the marriage of Prince Edward and the Maid of Norway (1286). On the dispute for the succession to the Scotch crown, after the death of the Maid of Norway (1290), Bruce put in a claim as the descendant, in the nearest degree, of David of Huntingdon. He also declared that in 1240 Alexander II. had, in an Assembly of the Estates, recognised him as his heir in the event of his dying childless (since that time, however. other male descendants had been born). The only competitor whom Bruce had need to fear was John Baliol, in whose favour Edward finally decided (Nov., 1292). On the resignation of Baliol in 1295, Bruce tried ineffectually to persuade Edward to bestow the kingdom on him. He died shortly afterwards.

Brude, Son of Marlin, was a powerful Pictish monarch (*b.* 556, *d.* 583) who had his capital at Inverness. In 560 he defeated the Scots of Dalriada, slaying their king, Gabran, and driving them back to Kintyre. This defeat was important, as it led to the mission of St. Columba, by whom Brude was baptised in 563. [Picts.],

Brunanburh, The Battle of (937), was fought by Athelstan against the combined forces of Anlaf the Dane, who came over from Ireland, Constantine of Scotland, and Owen of Cumberland. This powerful combination was thoroughly routed by Athelstan, and in commemoration of the great Saxon victory over this great Danish and Celtic league a noble war-song was composed, which is preserved in the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*. The site of the battle is very doubtful; it has been placed in the Lothians, in Northumberland, in Yorkshire, and it has been identified, with some plausibility, with Brumby, in Lincolnshire.

Ang.-Sax. Chron., i. 290 (Rolls ed.); Freeman, *Norman Conq.*, i. 61. For a spirited translation of the "Song of the Fight at Brunanburh," see Mr. Freeman's *Old-English History*, p. 155.

Brutus (or Brute) was the name assigned to the fabulous hero who was supposed to have given his name to the island of Britain. According to the account given by Geoffrey of Monmouth, and universally believed in the Middle Ages, Brutus was the great-grandson of Æneas. Having been banished from Italy, he retired to Greece, where he became the champion of the oppressed Trojans. After many difficulties, he succeeded in reaching Albion, which at that time was inhabited by giants. Having destroyed these monsters, the Trojans occupied the country, which, in honour of their leader, they called Britain. Brutus died in the twenty-fourth year after his arrival in the island.

Brut y Tywysogion, or The Chronicle of the Princes of Wales, is the name of a most important Welsh chronicle which extends from the abdication of Cadwal at Rome in the year 681 to the conquest of Wales in 1282. It is printed with an English translation in the Rolls Series (1860).

Buccaneers (the name is derived from a word used by the Caribbean Indians denoting dried or cured meat) were associations of piratical adventurers which flourished in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The buccaneers were chiefly English and French, and owed their origin to the attempts made by other European nations, in the early part of the sixteenth century, to acquire a share in the rich American trade which the Spaniards attempted to engross. The buccaneers, though in later times they carried on general piracy, directed their chief efforts against the Spaniards, whom they regarded as their natural enemies. In 1625 they took St. Christopher, and in 1630 Tortuga, which they made their head-quarters. In 1670, under Henry Morgan, they captured Panama with immense booty; and in 1683 and 1684 made the expeditions to the South Seas which are described in Dampier's famous *Voyages*. In 1670 a treaty, called "The Treaty of America," was concluded between England and Spain for the suppression of the buccaneer associations, but it was quite ineffectual. The wars between England and France, by making the English and French buccaneers enemies, did much to weaken them, and after the Treaty of Ryswick they gradually disappeared. The most noted buccaneer chiefs were Lewis Scot, François Lolanois, Mansvelt, and especially Henry Morgan, who was knighted by Charles II., and made deputy-governor of Jamaica.

J. Burney, *Hist. of the Buccaneers*, 1816.

Buch, Jean de Grailly, Captal de (*d.* 1377), was one of the most famous of the English commanders in the French wars of Edward III.'s reign. He was a native of Aquitaine, and attached himself to the Black Prince, with whom he fought at Poitiers and Navarrete. In 1372 he was taken prisoner by the French, and died in captivity five years later.

Buchan, John Comyn, Earl of, was a staunch adherent of Edward I. He was defeated by Bruce at Inverury, and had his territory harried by the victorious troops. His wife, Isabella Macduff, sister of the Earl of Fife, was a supporter of Robert Bruce, and crowned that king at Scone, March 27, 1306. For this, she was imprisoned by Edward I. in a cage at Berwick, as a warning to those who dared to support Bruce.

Buchan, John Stewart, Earl of (*d.* 1424), the second son of Robert, Duke of Albany, led a Scotch army of about 6,000 men to France, to aid Charles V. against the English. After winning the battle of Beaugé, he was created Constable of France and Count of Aubigny, and was slain at Verneuil, 1424.

Buchanan, George (*b.* 1506, *d.* 1582), studied at Paris and at St. Andrews, and became tutor to the Earl of Cassilis in 1532, and subsequently to a son of James V. He bitterly assailed the friars in his *Franciscanus*, which subjected him to much persecution from Cardinal Beaton. He found it unsafe to reside in Scotland, and retired to Bordeaux. In 1544 he went to Paris and taught at the College of Bourbon. Three years later he went to Coimbra in Portugal. Here he was seized as a heretic, and imprisoned in a monastery, where he began his version of the Psalms. On his release he remained for some years in France, and in 1560 came to Scotland as Latin tutor to Queen Mary. He received a pension from the queen, and in 1567 was made Moderator of the General Assembly. He accompanied the Regent Murray to England, and took a considerable share in political affairs, being among the most violent opponents of the Queen of Scots. He was present at the Commission of Inquiry at York in 1568 as the representative of the Scottish lords, and has been charged with the forgery of the "Casket Letters" (q.v.). In 1571 he printed his tract *De Maria Scotorum Regina*, a very bitter attack on Mary. Meanwhile, in 1570 he had become tutor to the young prince James, and soon afterwards was made Director of the Chancery and Lord Privy Seal, and sat in Parliament for some years. He was a voluminous writer of Latin verse, and is among the first, if not the very first, of non-classical poets. He was the author of two important prose works. The famous treatise, *De Jure Regni apud Scotos*, published in 1579, is a political dialogue on the source and origin of kingly power. It is filled with the principles of liberal and constitutional monarchy, and its author has been not inaptly styled "the first Whig." The *Rerum Scoticarum Historia*, published in 1582, is an authoritative record of Scotch affairs in the sixteenth century.

Buchanan's *Works*, 2 vols., 1725 (ed. Burman); Irving, *Memoir of Buchanan*.

Buckingham was an ancient borough at the time of the Domesday Survey. It had been fortified by Edward the Elder in the early part of the tenth century, and captured by the Danes in 1016. It was a place of considerable trade in the Middle Ages, and Edward III. fixed one of the wool staples there. It received a charter from Mary in 1554, which was surrendered and restored in 1684. The borough formerly returned two members to Parliament; but it was deprived of one of its representatives in 1868.

Buckingham, Peerage of. (i.) William Giffard is said to have received the earldom of Buckingham from William I. His son died without issue, 1164. (ii.) Thomas of Woodstock, youngest son of Edward III., was created Earl of Buckingham 1377, died 1397. His son Humphrey died without issue, 1399. (iii.) Humphrey, Earl of Stafford, who inherited the earldom of Buckingham from his mother, sister of the last earl, was created Duke of Buckingham, 1444. His great-grandson, third duke, was beheaded, 1521, and his honours forfeited. (iv.) George Villiers, created Earl of Buckingham 1616, marquis 1618 (his mother, being later in the year created Countess of Buckingham for life, died 1632), and duke 1623. George Villiers, second duke of this line, died without issue, 1687. (v.) John Sheffield, Marquis of Normanby, created Duke of Buckinghamshire, 1703. His son Edmund, second duke, died without issue, 1735. (vi.) George Grenville, Earl Temple (son of George Grenville, Premier 1763—65, and brother of Lord Grenville, Premier 1806—7), created Marquis of the town of Buckingham, county Bucks, 1784. His son was created duke in 1822.

Buckingham, Henry Stafford, Duke of (*d.* 1483), was the eldest son of Humphrey, Duke of Buckingham, by Margaret Beaufort, daughter and heiress of Edmund, Duke of Somerset. He was doubly connected with the royal family, and his marriage with Catherine Woodville, daughter of Earl Rivers, made him brother-in-law to Edward IV. He was one of Richard III.'s great supporters, and was the chief agent in obtaining the crown for him. But before Richard had been on the throne many months Buckingham became alienated from him, the chief reason being apparently Richard's refusal to give him any portion of the inheritance of the Bohuns, to which Buckingham had a claim. Influenced by Morton, Bishop of Ely, he entered into a project for calling over Henry, Earl of Richmond. This scheme was supported by the Woodville party, and Buckingham arranged that he should head a rising in the west of England, while Richmond was to land in the south. But the insurrection ended in failure. Buckingham had raised a small force in Wales, but all the bridges over the Severn were broken down, while unusually heavy rains had so swelled the rivers as to make them impassable. Being unable to get provisions, most of his men deserted, and Buckingham himself took refuge in Shropshire, but was betrayed by one of his retainers, taken to Salisbury, and executed there.

Buckingham, Edward Stafford, Duke of (*d.* 1521), the eldest son of Henry, Duke of Buckingham, was restored by Henry VII. to all his father's dignities and possessions. In 1521 he was tried and executed

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Photo: Emery Walker.

GEORGE VILLIERS, FIRST DUKE OF BUCKINGHAM.

From the picture by G. Honthorst in the National Portrait Gallery.

for high treason, the chief evidence for the charge being that he had unguardedly let fall some expressions to the effect that he would be entitled to succeed to the throne should the king chance to die without issue. No doubt his connection with the royal line was his real offence in the eyes of the king. The office of Constable, which the Duke of Buckingham inherited from the Bohuns, Earls of Hereford, was forfeited by his presumed offence, and was never afterwards revived in England.

Buckingham, George Villiers, Duke of, born Aug. 20, 1592, was a younger son of Sir George Villiers of Brooksley. In 1614 he was first brought before the notice of James I., and, being an active, handsome, and intelligent youth, his companionship served to amuse the leisure hours of the king. In 1615, after the fall of the former favourite, Carr, Earl of Somerset, Villiers was left without a rival in the king's favour. In 1616, he was created Viscount Villiers; in 1617 he became Earl; in 1618, Marquis of Buckingham. By the royal bounty he was made one of the richest noblemen in England, and all the patronage of the court was placed in his hands. Few men could endure such rapid and unmerited advancement without detriment to their character. Buckingham was a vain and arrogant man, not ready to take advice, and not content that any should hold office who did not owe their promotion to his good-will. Charges of malversation were brought against various officials, and several noblemen of high birth deprived of their offices. But although some reforms were effected in the public service, and although Buckingham was not personally avaricious, the atmosphere of the court remained venal. Those who sought promotion, if they had not directly to purchase office, were expected to requite the service in one form or another, to win the favour of Buckingham's dependants, or possibly marry one of his needy relations. Over the direction of James's foreign policy Buckingham, during the first part of his career, exercised no appreciable influence. In 1619 the Protestants of Bohemia had risen in rebellion against their king, the Emperor Ferdinand, and had bestowed the crown on James's Protestant son-in-law, the Elector Palatine. The Palatinate had been in consequence invaded by a Spanish army. James hoped to get it restored to the Elector by negotiating a treaty of marriage between Prince Charles and the Spanish Infanta. Buckingham, as personal motives prompted him, joined those who approved of a Spanish alliance or those who desired to render assistance to the Protestant party in Germany. In 1620 he had married a Catholic, Lady Catherine Manners, and in 1622 his attitude became more decided. He entered into a close friendship with the Spanish ambassador, Gondomar, and the following year prevailed on James to let him and the prince go to Spain, under the belief that once there they could readily prevail on Philip IV. to restore his lands to the Elector. Arrived at Madrid Buckingham soon discovered his delusion. The Spaniards wanted toleration for the English Catholics, but refused in return to bind themselves in any way about the Palatinate. During his absence James conferred on Buckingham the title of duke. The new duke and Charles both returned home, irate with the Spaniards and eager to declare war. A Parliament was summoned and its support asked (1624). For a time the duke was immensely popular, but his popularity was short-lived. He had many schemes in his head for the recovery of the Palatinate, but he had not the qualities of a statesman, and did not understand the first conditions of success. A treaty was agreed on for the marriage of Charles with Henrietta Maria, the sister of Louis XIII., in which concessions were made in favour of the English Catholics, although a distinct promise had been given to the Parliament that nothing of the sort should be done. James and Buckingham expected that in return Louis would aid them to recover the Palatinate, but they were soon undeceived. Dire misery and misfortune befell an isolated body of 12,000 men sent to pass through Holland and fight their way into the heart of Germany. In March, 1625, James died, and Charles, who was deeply attached to the duke, came to the throne. A Parliament was summoned from which Charles parted in displeasure because it expressed distrust of the duke's capacity. A fleet despatched to Cadiz to seize Spanish treasure-ships returned without effecting its object. Want of money led to the summoning of a second Parliament, which impeached the duke and was angrily dissolved by the king (1626). Buckingham, always buoyant and sanguine, believed that if he could achieve success he should recover popularity. Anger against the French king led to a declaration of war with France, and Buckingham sailed in command of a fleet to succour the Protestant town of La Rochelle, which had rebelled against Louis (1627). He effected a landing on the Isle of Rhé, but was subsequently driven off by the French with heavy loss. The king summoned a third Parliament, which passed the Petition of Right and afterwards drew up a Remonstrance asking that Buckingham should be removed from office (1628). In consequence, the Parliament was dissolved, and popular feeling became more excited than ever against the duke. He was at Portsmouth, preparing a second expedition for the relief of Rochelle, when as he left the room where he had breakfasted he was stabbed to the heart by a discontented officer, John Felton, who had served under him, and

who thought with one blow to avenge his private wrongs and rid his country of a public enemy (Aug. 22, 1628).

The fullest account of Buckingham is to be found in John Forster's *Life of Eliot*, and S. R. Gardiner, *Hist. of England, 1603–1642.*

[B. M. G.]

Buckingham, George Villiers, 2nd Duke of (*b.* 1628, *d.* 1687), was the son of the first duke. He served in the Royalist army, and was present at the battle of Worcester, after which he retired to the Continent. He returned to England in 1657, and married the daughter of Lord Fairfax, through whose influence he was able to recover a portion of his large estates. At the Restoration he was made Master of the Horse and a Privy Councillor. In 1666 he took part with the Opposition in Parliament, and on a charge of having endeavoured to excite a mutiny in the fleet he was committed to the Tower, but in less than a year he was pardoned. On the formation of the Cabal ministry in 1668, he became one of its chief members, and when it fell in 1673 he, like Shaftesbury, joined the Opposition. But his health was so bad that he took little further part in public affairs, and spent the rest of his life at his seat in Yorkshire. In his private character he ranks as the most profligate member of the most profligate court England has ever seen. He was strongly suspected of having hired Colonel Blood to assassinate the Duke of Ormond, while his seduction of the Countess of Shrewsbury and the death of the earl in a duel with Buckingham created a fearful sensation even in those days. He is thus described by Dryden, under the name of Zimri, in some famous lines of "Absalom and Achitophel"—

"A man so various that he seemed to be,
Not one, but all mankind's epitome;
Stiff in opinions, always in the wrong,
Was everything by starts, and nothing long . . .
Railing and praising were his usual themes;
And both, to show his judgment, in extremes . .
He laughed himself from court; then sought relief,
By forming parties, but could ne'er be chief."

"Buckingham," says Ranke, "is a forecast of the Regent [Orleans] and Dubois. In natures of this kind everything works together, amusement and labour, distraction and exertion, good and bad; the most refined culture can go with intolerable insolence; for such men have every kind of ambition, they must be first in everything and remain first. Social considerations and sympathies caused by hatred of predecessors determine their political action or inaction." Macaulay describes him as "a sated man of pleasure, who turned to ambition as to a pastime."

Carte, *Life of Ormonde*; Burnet, *Hist. of His Own Time*; Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.* Buckingham's miscellaneous *Works* were printed in one vol., 8vo, 1704.

Buckinghamshire, John Sheffield, Duke of (*b.* 1648, *d.* 1721), was the son of Edmund, Lord Mulgrave. On his father's death (1658), he became Earl of Mulgrave. In 1666 he served against the Dutch and returned home to take command of a troop of horse. Again, in 1672, he was appointed captain of a ship of eighty-four guns, and as soon as he came back from sea was made colonel of a regiment of foot. Subsequently he passed over to France to learn the art of war under Turenne. On his return Mulgrave engaged in a professional quarrel with the Duke of Monmouth, and bitterly offended the royal family by entertaining hopes of the hand of Princess, afterwards Queen, Anne. In 1680 he was sent to destroy Moorish pirates who were attacking Tangiers. On the accession of James II. he was created Privy Councillor and Lord Chamberlain. After the Revolution Mulgrave readily took the oath of allegiance to William and Mary. William created him Marquis of Normanby, and named him a Cabinet Councillor. In 1703 he was created Duke of Normanby, and soon afterwards Duke of Buckinghamshire, and in this year built Buckingham House. He was compelled to resign office for caballing with Nottingham and Rochester against Godolphin and Marlborough. Forthwith he became a violent member of the Opposition, and was struck off the list of the Privy Council (1707). In 1710, however, when the Tories were restored to power, he was made Steward of the Household, and on the death of Rochester, Lord President. He entered eagerly into the plots for the restoration of the Stuarts, and is said by Swift to have been the only man he knew who was sincere in his intentions. The death of Anne destroyed his hopes. The remainder of his life was spent in political disgrace. Buckingham wrote some poems, the best known of which are the *Essay on Satire* and the *Essay on Poetry*.

Johnson, *Lives of the Poets*; Burnet, *Hist. of His Own Time.*

Buenos Ayres, Expeditions against (1806—1807). In the spring of 1806, Sir Home Popham, who was in command of the naval forces at the Cape of Good Hope, without any authority from the home government sailed from the Cape, taking with him all the naval force, and 1,500 troops. The armament arrived off Buenos Ayres on the 24th June. No time was wasted, and on the 28th the land forces surprised and captured Buenos Ayres, while a feint was made by the fleet against Monte Video. But the inhabitants secretly organised an insurrection which broke out on August 4th, and was assisted from without by the militia of the surrounding districts. The British garrison, after a stout resistance, was overpowered; and the survivors were made prisoners of war, though Sir Home Popham escaped with the squadron, and anchored for a while at the mouth of the river. A fresh force of 3,000 troops

was despatched, under Sir Samuel Auchmuty, who, on the 2nd February, 1807, assaulted Monte Video, and carried it by storm after a most stubborn conflict, in which the British loss was 600. In June, Auchmuty was joined by General Craufurd with reinforcements, which brought up the total of the British forces to 9,000 men; and General Whitelocke was sent out to take command of the whole force. On the 5th July, an attack was made, without due preparation or design, on Buenos Ayres. The town had no regular fortifications, and the inhabitants trusted solely to their advantageous position on the roofs and towers. From these points of vantage the attacking troops were met by a destructive fire. On the right, Auchmuty seized the Plaza de Toros, with its large stores of all sorts; but this advantage was more than counterbalanced by the defeat of the English at all other quarters. Next morning the Spanish general offered to restore all British prisoners on condition of the evacuation of Monte Video, and all the rest of the region of the La Plata; and Whitelocke agreed. On returning to England he was tried by Court Martial, and dismissed the service.

Alison, *Hist. of Europe.*

Bulls, Papal, are the letters issued by the Popes in their official capacity, addressed to individuals or communities, usually on matters of doctrine. Papal letters may be either Briefs or Bulls. The latter are considered the more authoritative and important. They are invariably written in Latin on thick parchment, in angular archaic characters, and sealed with the *bulla* or globular seal of lead attached to the document by threads of silk or hemp. The brief is written in cursive characters, on paper or thin parchment, and sealed in wax with the seal of the Fisherman (*sub annulo Piscatoris*). It generally refers to matters of discipline. By an ordinance of the Conqueror, ecclesiastics in England were forbidden to receive letters from the Pope, unless they had previously obtained the royal permission. Royal letters, forbidding the introduction of papal bulls without licence, were issued by Edward II. in 1307, and by Edward III. in 1327 and 1376. To procure or publish them was declared high treason by 13 Eliz., cap. 2. [For the various bulls of importance, see under their titles, *e.g.*, Clericis Laicos; and for the whole subject see Papacy.]

For the various bulls relating to England, as well as to other countries, *see* the *Bullarium Magnum Romanum*, Luxemburg, 1727, &c.

Bulwer, Edward Lytton. [Lytton, Lord.]

Bulwer, Sir Henry. [Dalling, Lord.]

Bundelkhund. The name of the district between Oude, Malwa, Berar, and Bengal. It was conquered by Rajput tribes in the fourteenth century, and, though exposed to frequent attacks from the Mohammedans, it always managed to resist them successfully. In the middle of the eighteenth century, however, large portions passed into the possession of the Peishwa, and towards the end of the century the whole province was in Mahratta hands. The Treaty of Bassein ceded a portion of the territory to England, and soon afterwards the Rajah Bahadur was induced to part with his large territories in Bundelkhund, receiving compensation elsewhere. On the extinction of the Peishwa's independence in 1818, all his sovereign rights in Bundelkhund were finally ceded to the British.

Bunker Hill, The Battle of (June 17, 1775), is noticeable as the first important battle of the War of American Independence. Boston is separated by a narrow channel or arm of the sea from the suburb of Charlestown. On June 12th General Gage had declared martial law, and was in possession of Charlestown and Boston. To secure his position in the former, it was necessary for him to occupy two hills which commanded it—Breed Hill and Bunker Hill. The latter was farther from Charlestown, but was the higher of the two, and dominated Breed Hill and Charlestown. On the night of the 16th a body of American militia were sent to seize it. When on the next morning they were descried on the top of Breed Hill, which they had occupied by mistake, Gage determined to attack them. Three thousand regulars, under Howe and Pigot, assaulted the position in front, unsupported by any movement from the rear. Twice they were driven back, but in the third attempt they were joined by Clinton, and succeeded in dislodging the defenders, who, however, made good their retreat to Prospect Hill, where they encamped. The loss of the assailants in so fierce an assault was 226 killed and 828 wounded and missing. In the course of the assault, Charleston had been set on fire by the British troops under Howe, and the exasperation caused by this act far more than counterbalanced any gain resulting to them from the battle, especially as they remained idly watching Washington, who was in the greatest difficulties, and quite unable to offer any serious resistance to vigorous measures.

Bancroft, *Hist. of America;* Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*

Burdett, Sir Francis (*b.* 1770, *d.* 1844), the son of Sir Robert Burdett, entered Parliament in 1796 as member for Boroughbridge In 1797 he brought forward a motion for Parliamentary Reform, and in the following year vigorously protested against the attempts of the government to gag the press. Two years later he devoted all his energies to prevent the suspension of the Habeas Corpus

Act, and to secure better provision being made for political prisoners. In 1802 he was elected for Middlesex, and was re-elected at the head of the poll on the former election being declared void. At the election of 1806 he issued a celebrated address to the Middlesex electors, and on being re-elected gave a warm support to the administration of Fox and Lord Grenville. On the resignation of that government he stood for Westminster, and was easily elected. In 1810 he was convicted by the House of Commons of having committed a breach of privilege in a certain letter addressed to his constituents. Burdett refused to surrender to the Speaker's warrant, and the people defended his house. The result was a series of riots, in which the people were fired upon, and some of them killed. Burdett proceeded to bring actions against the Speaker, and nearly every one who had had a hand in his commitment to the Tower, but was unsuccessful. His imprisonment terminated with the prorogation of Parliament, and he resumed his place at the beginning of the session of 1811, when he chiefly occupied himself in opposing the Regency Bill. In 1819, after in vain attempting to induce the House to consider the conduct of the Manchester magistrates at Peterloo, he vented his feelings in a letter to his constituents, for which he was sentenced to three months' imprisonment, with a fine of £2,000. In 1822 he supported Lord John Russell's proposed Reform Bill, and continued one of its warmest advocates till it was carried. After this Sir Francis gradually fell away from the Liberals. He denounced the alliance, which took place shortly afterwards, between the ministry and O'Connell, retired from Brookes's Club, and openly joined the Tories. In 1837 he was returned as Conservative member for North Wilts. Till his death in 1844 he continued to represent that constituency.

Lord Holland's *Memoirs; Life and Opinions of Earl Grey;* Peel's *Memoirs;* Walpole, *Hist. of Eng. from 1815;* Roebuck, *Reform Parliament.*

Burford, The Battle of (752), between the West Saxons, under Cuthred, and the Mercians, under Ethelbald, resulted in the victory of the former and the maintenance of the independence of Wessex.

Burgess, A, is, properly speaking, the inhabitant of a borough or town exercising a trade there, and enjoying the rights of freedom or citizenship. In the early days of the boroughs, the burgesses were "the owners of land; the owners of houses, shops, or gardens; the burgage tenants, from whose burgages the firma burgi, or rent, was originally due. In a trading town they would be the members of the gild, and in the judicial work of the town they were the class who furnished the judices and curatores." They were also the electors of the municipal magistrates in cases where the corporations had not become close, and were in most cases the holders of the parliamentary franchise. The privileges of the burgesses were in former times very considerable—*e.g.*, participation in the income of the corporation, exclusive right of trading within the borough, and the like. These privileges have, however, been swept away by the Municipal Corporations Act of 1835, and the burgesses are now simply the constituency which elects the borough council. The term burgess, too, is often applied to the representatives of a borough in Parliament. By a law of Edward II., the burgesses returned for any town were entitled to two shillings a day for expenses, and the practice of paying members of Parliament was occasionally resorted to up to the reign of Charles II. By an Act of Henry V. it was decreed that a burgess of Parliament must be resident in the borough which returned him; but this, however, was not enforced for long. [Towns; Elections.]

Mereweather and Stephens, *Hist. of Boroughs;* Grant, *On Corporations;* Madox, *Firma Burgi;* Brady, *On Boroughs;* Stephen, *Commentaries;* Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, especially chaps. xi. and xxi.; Gneist, *Self-Government.*

Burgh, Hubert de (*d.* 1243), first appears in history as one of Richard I.'s ministers. In 1199 John made him his Chamberlain. On the capture of Prince Arthur, in 1202, he was entrusted with the charge of the imprisoned prince at Rouen, and continued a faithful and active servant of John during the remainder of that king's reign. In 1215 he was appointed Justiciar, and in the next year bravely defended Dover Castle against the French, who were compelled to raise the siege, and shortly afterwards defeated by De Burgh in a naval engagement in the Channel. On the death of William Marshall he became Regent of the kingdom, the custody of the king's person being entrusted to Peter des Roches. Between these two there was constant rivalry, De Burgh representing the English, Des Roches the foreign interest. In 1224 the reckless turbulence of Falkes de Breauté gave De Burgh an opportunity of getting rid of the foreigners. De Breauté was banished, and, on the king attaining his majority in 1227, De Burgh attained supreme power by the exile of his great rival, Des Roches. In this year also he was raised to the earldom of Kent; and, in 1228, he was appointed Justiciar for life. From this date till 1232 England was entirely in his hands, and was, on the whole, well governed. In 1232 the intrigues of Des Roches, who had been permitted to return, and the king's weariness of restraint, occasioned his fall. He was accused of connivance with Twenge in his attacks on the Italian clergy, and the emptiness of the treasury was attributed to the mismanage-

ment of the minister. He was driven from office, and for the next two years suffered the cruellest persecution at the hands of the monarch for whom he had done so much. The disgrace of Des Roches in 1234 restored him to favour, but he did not resume his office, and the remainder of his life was spent in retirement, broken only by occasional appearances in the political arena, as in 1238, when he supported the king against the powerful baronial confederacy headed by Richard of Cornwall. Hubert's policy was a thoroughly national one. He resisted the encroachments of the Pope and the rapacity of the foreigners, as well as the arbitrariness of the king and the turbulence of the barons. His aim was, however, limited to a restoration of the administrative system and policy of Henry II. It is said that an Essex blacksmith, when ordered to put chains on Hubert, replied, "Do what you will with me: rather would I die than put fetters on him. Is not he that faithful and magnanimous Hubert, who hath so often snatched England from the ravages of foreigners and restored England to England?"

Roger of Wendover; Matthew Paris, *Chronica Majora*; Foss, *Judges of Eng.* [F. S. P.]

Burgh, Walter Hussey (*b.* 1742, *d.* 1783), was a celebrated Irish barrister and politician. He made a most successful practice at the bar, and was appointed Prime Sergeant in 1779. As a member of the Irish Parliament he belonged to the national party of Flood and Grattan, he approved of the Volunteers, and for a brilliant speech on a free trade motion of Grattan's, in which he described the condition of Ireland as one of "smothered war," he thought it necessary to resign office. Towards the end of his life he cooled towards the Volunteer movement, fearing that it would embroil England and Ireland, but supported the cause of Irish independence at the risk of all chances of preferment. Just before his death he was appointed Chief Baron of the Exchequer. Hussey Burgh is described as the best every-day speaker of the Irish Parliament, though his manner was that of a lawyer. He was a vain and ostentatious man, and died heavily in debt, but his liabilities were paid by a Parliamentary grant proposed by Grattan on account of his integrity and patriotism.

Lecky, *Leaders of Public Opinion in Ireland*; Grattan, *Life and Times of Grattan.*

Burghhead, The Battle of (1040), was fought between Thorfinn, Earl of Orkney and Caithness, and King Duncan, who was attempting to seize the territories of the Earls of Orkney on the mainland. It resulted in a victory for Thorfinn.

Burghersh, Henry de (*b. circa* 1290, *d.* 1340), was a nephew of Lord Badlesmere, through whose influence he was made Bishop of Lincoln in 1320. He was suspected of complicity with his uncle in 1322, and was deprived of his bishopric, though he seems to have been restored before the end of the reign. He sided with the queen and Mortimer against Edward II., and for his support he was made Treasurer, and, in 1328, Chancellor, which office he held till the fall of Mortimer. He was frequently employed by Edward III., and died at Ghent, whither he had gone on diplomatic business.

Burgoyne, John, Lieut.-Gen. (*b.* 1722, *d.* 1792), a natural son of Lord Bingley, in 1762 acted as brigadier-general under Lord Tyrawley in Portugal, where he greatly distinguished himself by a most daring and successful raid upon a strong body of troops who were guarding the magazines at Valentia. In 1775 he was appointed to a command in America. The next year he was summoned home to advise the king on colonial questions, but returned to his command in 1777, when he at once issued an invitation to the natives to join the English flag. He then organised an expedition in order to join Clinton, who was advancing from the south. Before they could meet, however, Burgoyne had encountered such difficulties that he was compelled to surrender on the 17th Oct. at Saratoga. He was allowed to come home on parole; and no sooner had he arrived than the Opposition made overtures to him to lay the blame of the disaster on the government. He thus became odious to the ministry, whom he charged with mismanagement in not supplying him with proper resources; and the king meanwhile refused to see him, or to allow him a court-martial, which he demanded. This the ministry also strenuously opposed, knowing that the corruption of the War Department would come out if any inquiry were held. In 1779 Burgoyne refused to go back to America, on the ground that his honour did not compel him to do so; and the ministry seized the opportunity to dismiss him from the army. On the Rockingham ministry coming in in 1782, he was reinstated, and appointed Commander-in-chief in Ireland. Burgoyne's previous services lead us to infer that the disaster of Saratoga was not entirely due to himself; and this idea is confirmed by the steady refusal of the government to allow any inquiry. In the absence of that inquiry, it is difficult to form a just estimate of Burgoyne's merits.

Russell, *Fox; Letters of Junius;* Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*

Burgoyne, Sir John (*b.* 1782, *d.* 1871), the son of General Burgoyne, was educated at Eton and Woolwich, and, in 1793, received a commission in the Royal Engineers. In 1800 he sailed for the Mediterranean with Sir Ralph Abercromby, and saw active service throughout the French wars in Sicily, Egypt, Sweden, Portugal, and Spain. He was with Sir John Moore at the retreat to Corunna; and

in most of the great battles and sieges of the Peninsular War, he was first or second in command of the Engineers. In 1812 he was sent to New Orleans as commanding Engineer under Sir Edward Pakenham, and, in consequence, was not present at Waterloo, though he returned in time to form one of the army of occupation at Paris in the middle of July, 1815. During the long peace he held some important civil appointments. When the Russian War was on the verge of breaking out he was sent to Constantinople to report on the measures necessary for the defence of the Ottoman Empire, and, on his return, was appointed Lieut.-General on the staff of the army of the East. It was Sir John Burgoyne who was most strenuous in dissuading Lord Raglan from attacking Sebastopol on the north, and supported with equal warmth the flank march and attack on the south side. From the first he pointed out the Malakoff as the key of the entire position; and conducted the siege operations before Sebastopol up to the middle or end of March, 1855, when he was recalled to England, leaving Sir Harry Jones to complete the work. Soon after he was created a baronet, and subsequently received a field-marshal's *bâton*, and the appointment of Constable of the Tower.

Burgundy, Relations with. Of the ten Burgundies that history knows, England had important dealings only with the French fief, the duchy of Burgundy, under its last line of Valois dukes. The imperial free county of Burgundy (Franche Comté) also belonged to them. They began with Philip the Bold (le Hardi), whose valour at Poitiers was rewarded by his father John with the grant of the vacant duchy on his taking the hand of its heiress (1363). The acquisition of Flanders, so closely bound to England by economical and political ties, hostility to Louis of Orleans, whose championship of Richard II. and absolutism involved his hostility to the Lancastrian monarchs, first brought the house into intimate relations with England. The Burgundians and Armagnacs fought for supremacy under the mad Charles VI., and their feuds gave ample opportunity to English intervention. Both united to withstand Henry V., and met a common defeat at Agincourt (1415). But the murder of John the Fearless (1407—1419) on the bridge of Montereau, at the instance of the Dauphin and the Armagnacs, led to Burgundy throwing its whole weight on the English side. Paris, the centre of Burgundian influence, welcomed the entry of Henry V. and the new duke, Philip the Good (1419—1467). Up to 1435, this close alliance enabled the English to retain their hold of North France. But the nationalist revival stirred even Philip, the death of the Duke of Bedford broke his close family tie to the English house, and the mad attempt of Humphrey of Gloucester on Holland and Hainault completed the alienation which led to the Peace of Arras (1435) between Burgundy and France, and even an attack on Calais from our old ally. In the Wars of the Roses, Philip and his son Charles generally sympathised with the Lancastrians. Charles the Bold (1467—1477) regarded his descent from John of Gaunt through his Spanish mother as making him a member of the Lancastrian house; and he showed the greatest sympathy with the exiles whom Edward IV.'s accession had driven to the Netherlands. But he could not afford to quarrel with Edward, and as Louis XI. definitely supported Warwick, and reconciled him with Margaret of Anjou, Charles very unwillingly joined the Yorkist cause, and married Edward's sister Margaret. When in 1469 Edward was driven from England by Margaret and Warwick, he found refuge in the Netherlands, but a personal interview only produced personal hostility between him and Charles. Despite Charles's inadequate support, Edward won back his crown; and fear of France caused the renewal of the political alliance. In 1474 a common expedition against France was determined upon, but Charles lingered at Neuss, and came at last without an army; so Edward, in the Treaty of Pecquigny (1475), abandoned Burgundy for France. The marriage of Mary, Charles's daughter, with Maximilian I., brought Flanders and England into new relations that passed on to the Austro-Spanish Alliance. But the conquest of Burgundy by Louis on Charles's death (1477) put an end to the independent existence of the House of Burgundy.

Comines, *Mémoires*; Barante, *Histoire des Ducs de Bourgogne*; Kirke, *Charles the Bold*; J. Gairdner, Prefaces to *The Paston Letters*.

[T. F. T.]

Burke, The Family of, was founded in Ireland by William Fitzaldelm de Burgh, a descendant of Robert Mortain, and first cousin of the great Justiciar, Hubert de Burgh. He was the seneschal of Henry I., and was made Viceroy of Ireland in 1176. In 1225 Henry III. bestowed the province of Connaught on Richard de Burgh, son of Fitzaldelm, who, after a violent struggle with the O'Connors, succeeded in establishing himself there. His son Walter became Earl of Ulster in right of his wife Maude, daughter of Hugh de Lacy, and at this point the De Burghs split up into two families—those of *Ulster* and *Connaught*. Of the Ulster line, Richard de Burgh, known as the Red Earl, taking advantage of the weakness of the Fitzgeralds, raised the De Burghs to the position of the most powerful family in Ireland. The Ulster earldom expired with his grandson William, murdered in 1333 by the English of Ulster. His daughter Elizabeth afterwards married Lionel, Duke of Clarence, son of Edward III., whereby the earldom of Ulster became

eventually attached to the royal family in the person of Edward IV. The De Burghs of Connaught, scorning to hold their lands of a woman, and fearing that their possessions might pass by marriage into other hands, declared themselves independent of English law, and renounced English customs. They assumed the name of Burke, and divided Connaught between them, Sir William, ancestor of the Clanricardes, taking Galway with the title of MacWilliam Oughter (the Upper), and Sir Edmund, ancestor of the Mayos, taking Mayo with the title of MacWilliam Eighter (the Lower). The first Earl of Clanricarde, created in 1543, was William, or Ulick, "of the heads," so-called from his victories over the Geraldines. In 1576 the Burkes, fearing that Connaught was to be colonised as Ulster had been, broke out into open rebellion. Thereupon their territories were utterly laid waste, and the race was nearly extinguished. In 1635, Wentworth's commission of inquiry into defective titles declared the lands of the Burkes to have lapsed to the crown. Ulick, however, the fifth earl, and second Earl of St. Albans, was created Marquis of Clanricarde for his services in subduing the rebellion of 1641, and he is the direct ancestor of the present marquis.

Burke, Edmund (*b.* 1729, *d.* 1797), born in Dublin, was educated at Trinity College, and came to London to study at the Middle Temple in 1750. The study of law was not congenial to him; and he soon deserted it for literature. His first attempts in this field were made in 1756, and consisted of *A Vindication of Natural Society*, which was intended as a satire on Bolingbroke's theory of the origin of society, and *A Philosophical Inquiry into the Origin of our Ideas on the Sublime and Beautiful*, which was warmly praised by such judges as Lessing and Kant. In 1759 the first volume of the *Annual Register* was published, and contained a survey by Burke of the chief events of the year. In 1761 he accompanied "Single-speech" Hamilton, who was private secretary to Lord Halifax, to Ireland. The connection lasted four years, at the end of which time Burke threw up a pension which Hamilton had procured for him, and returned to England. In the same year Rockingham came into office and appointed Burke his secretary. In Dec., 1765, through the influence of Lord Verney, Burke was returned to Parliament for Wendover, and lost no time in making himself known to the House by a speech on the American colonies, which won for him a compliment from Pitt. In 1769 he wrote his remarkable pamphlet, *Observations on the Present State of the Nation.* Burke was always on the side of constitutional order and liberty on such questions as the right of a constituency to choose its own representative, the freedom of the press, the legality of general warrants issued by Parliament, and the relations of a colony to the mother country. In 1770 he published *Thoughts on the Present Discontents*, which, though unsuccessful as a pamphlet, placed its author in the front rank of political philosophers. In 1772 he was offered the direction of a commission, which was to examine the details of every department in India; but loyalty to his party made him decline the offer. In April, 1774, he made one of the most celebrated of all his great speeches—that on American taxation. In November, 1774, he was invited to stand for Bristol, and represented that city for six years. In March, 1775, he moved his resolutions in favour of conciliation with America; he urged the government to recognise the old constitutional maxim that taxation without representation is illegal, to return to the old custom of accepting what grants the general assemblies of the colonies should freely contribute, and above all things not to enter upon civil war. Two years later Burke addressed a letter to the Sheriffs of Bristol, in which, in the clearest and most independent way, he explained to his constituents the principles which had guided him in his policy towards the colonies. In Feb., 1780, he brought in his resolutions for the amendment of the administration. His first project was directed against the corruption of Parliament and the sources of that corruption, and was contained in a plan for the better security of the independence of Parliament, and the economical reformation of the civil and other establishments. In the same year Burke retired from the representation of Bristol, finding that his independence was distasteful to the electors. Lord Rockingham's influence, however, obtained for him the seat of Malton in Yorkshire; and on that nobleman succeeding Lord North in 1782, he accepted the Paymastership of the Forces. On the death of Lord Rockingham in July, his ministry became divided against itself; Lord Shelburne succeeded to the Premiership; and Burke, Fox, and Sheridan resigned. The combination against him proved too strong for Shelburne, and in April, 1783, he made way for a coalition ministry under the nominal lead of the Duke of Portland. Burke returned to the Pay Office, and immediately committed a grave indiscretion in restoring two clerks who had been suspended for malversation. The most important act of this administration was the introduction of Fox's India Bill, which seems to have been devised and drawn by Burke. Burke and Fox advocated the measure with all their energy and power; but the king saw his opportunity of getting rid of a ministry which he disliked, and successfully used his influence to have the Bill thrown out by the Peers. This success he followed up by dismissing the ministry and sending for Pitt, who, in Jan., 1784, became Prime Minister. The India Bill,

which Pitt introduced, was a compromise, of much narrower scope than Fox's Bill, and seems to have escaped any violent attack from Burke. He, however, vigorously attacked Pitt's Irish policy, as well as the commercial treaty with France. A more glorious field for the exercise of his powers was now opened for Burke in the prosecution of Warren Hastings. In April, 1786, Burke, in answer to a challenge from Hastings's friends, laid before Parliament his charges. The first charge was thrown out: the second and third were supported by Pitt and carried by so large a majority that in May, 1787, Burke brought forward a resolution to impeach Hastings. The management of the prosecution was entrusted by the Commons to Burke, Fox, Sheridan, Windham, and Grey. The trial began in Feb., 1788, and was opened by Burke in a speech peculiarly impassioned and persuasive. Seven years went by before the Lords brought in their verdict of acquittal. In the same year which saw the impeachment of Warren Hastings, politics were thrown into confusion by the illness of the king. Pitt's Regency Bill was vehemently attacked by the Opposition, and by no member of it more bitterly than by Burke. The king's unexpected recovery, however, rendered all the preparations of the Opposition unnecessary, and gave Pitt a further lease of office. In the following year the outbreak of the French Revolution was the beginning of the last act in Burke's career. For the remainder of his life his thoughts continued to be centred on France. His passionate love of order and reverence for the past prevented him from ever sharing in the generous enthusiasm which the earlier efforts of the French people awakened in Fox, Wordsworth, and Coleridge. He distrusted the Parisians, and foresaw too surely that the popular outbreak would end in something very different from liberty. It was not, however, till Feb., 1790, that Burke, in the House of Commons, openly avowed his horror of the principles that were being worked out in Paris. His avowal was couched in such terms that it occasioned a breach of his long-standing friendship with Fox. In the next month the breach had so far widened that Burke deserted Fox on a motion for the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts which he himself had suggested. At length, in November, appeared the *Reflections on the French Revolution*. Its success was wonderful, and it did much to alienate the majority of Englishmen from all sympathy with the Revolution. In the course of the next year Burke finally renounced his connection with Fox. In August he published his *Appeal from the New to the Old Whigs*. He continued in Parliament to storm against the murderous atheists in France, and their advocates on this side of the Channel. In 1794 he lost his brother and his only son, and he never recovered from the blow. In the same year he retired from Parliament, but he still watched France with the same unmitigated apprehension. He found time, nevertheless, to give to the world his sound views on the corn trade in his *Thoughts and Details on Scarcity*. In 1796 he wrote his *Letter to a Noble Lord*—a scathing answer to some objections raised by the Duke of Bedford to the pension which Pitt had generously bestowed. In the same year appeared the first two *Letters on a Regicide Peace*, brilliant specimens of Burke's most gorgeous rhetoric, in which he protested against any peace with the national government of France. His work, however, was ended, and he died at Beaconsfield on the 9th of July, 1797. It is impossible within our limits to give any adequate estimate of Burke's character and genius. We may perhaps be permitted to quote the words of a competent critic (Mr. John Morley): "There have been more important statesmen, for he was never tried by a position of supreme responsibility. There have been many more effective orators, for lack of imaginative suppleness prevented him from penetrating to the inner mind of his hearers. . . . There have been many subtler, more original, and more systematic thinkers about the conditions of the social union. But no one that ever lived used the general ideas of the thinker more successfully to judge the particular problems of the statesman. No one has ever come so close to the details of practical politics, and at the same time remembered that these can only be understood and only dealt with by the aid of the broad conceptions of political philosophy."

The best edition of Burke's *Works* is that by Rogers, 1834. The standard biography is Sir J. Prior's *Life*; and there are more recent memoirs by McKnight, Bisset, and McCormick. *See* also John Morley, *Edmund Burke: an Historical Study*; and the article in the *Encyclopædia Britannica* (ninth ed.), by the same writer. Also, Hazlitt, *Political Essays* and *Eloquence of the Brit. Senate*; Robertson, *Lectures on Burke*; E. J. Payne, *Select Works of Burke* with excellent introductory essays; *Rockingham Memoirs*; *Bedford Papers*; Jesse, *George III.*; Stanhope, *Life of Pitt*, and *Hist. of Eng.*

[W. R. S.]

Burleigh, or **Burghley,** WILLIAM CECIL, LORD (*b.* 1520, *d.* 1598), born at Bourne in Lincolnshire, was the son of Robert Cecil, Master of the Robes to Henry VIII., who educated him for the law. Having married the sister of Sir John Cheke, he became intimate with the Protector Somerset, his friendship being increased by his second marriage with the daughter of Sir Anthony Cooke, the tutor of Edward VI. In 1547 he accompanied the Protector on his expedition to Scotland, and in the following year became Secretary of State. On the fall of the Protector, he was imprisoned for a short time, but speedily restored to favour, and throughout the reign of Edward VI. continued to perform the

duties of Secretary of State. Though no favourer of Northumberland's scheme for altering the succession, he was at length induced to sign "the device" as a witness; and at this most critical period of his career managed to avoid the displeasure of Mary; he conformed to the Catholic religion, and became very friendly with Pole. Before Mary's death, Cecil entered into correspondence with the Princess Elizabeth, on whose accession he found himself at once in high favour at court; he was immediately appointed Secretary of State, and for forty years enjoyed the entire confidence of the queen, to whom he was "the oracle she consulted on every emergency, and whose answers she generally obeyed." During almost the whole of Elizabeth's reign, Sir William Cecil may be said to have practically directed the affairs of the nation; though on one or two occasions, disgusted at the treatment he received from his bitter enemies, the courtiers, chief of whom was Leicester, he was on the point of retiring altogether from public life. In 1560 he went to Scotland, as Commissioner, to end the war, and on his return counteracted the progress which the Spanish ambassador, De Quadra, had made in his absence, by strongly advocating an alliance with the Huguenot leaders. In spite of his anti-Spanish policy, Cecil was no favourite with the people; and the court party, headed by Leicester, whose marriage with the queen he strenuously opposed, strove hard to work his ruin. The perfection to which he brought his system of espionage, by which every plot against the queen was known to her ministers almost as soon as it was hatched, undoubtedly, on more than one occasion, saved Elizabeth from assassination and the country from an internal war, though it provoked against Cecil the wrath of men like Arundel and Norfolk, whose aims he thwarted. His great scheme was the formation of a Protestant confederacy, to consist of England, Sweden, Denmark, the German princes, the Scotch Protestants, and the Calvinists in France and Flanders, against the Catholic powers; his great stumbling-block was the Queen of Scots, whose execution he did not cease to advise as absolutely necessary for the safety of the queen and of the realm. More than once was the assassin's dagger directed against Cecil himself, and in 1572 the plot of Berney and Mather might have been successful but for the minister's spies. The great blot on his character and on his administration is the persecution of the Catholics for practising the rites and ceremonies of their religion, to which Cecil, and even Elizabeth herself, had not scrupled to conform in the time of their need. To his economical spirit, too, may be ascribed that unprepared state of the arsenals and the navy which so materially increased the danger to be apprehended from the Armada. The history of Cecil, who in 1571 had been created Lord Burleigh, from the accession of Elizabeth to his death, August 4, 1598, is the history of England, so closely is his name identified with the whole current of the foreign and domestic policy of the reign. He can hardly, perhaps, claim to be called a great man; but he was an adroit, skilful, and sensible statesman, of tried judgment, untiring perseverance and application, and boundless industry in mastering details.

The *Burghley Papers*, ed. by Murdin, 1759; *Memoirs*, &c., by Dr. E. Nares (3 vols., 4to, 1828—31). For very different estimates of Burleigh see Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.*; and Macaulay's well-known *Essay*. For general authorities see ELIZABETH.

[F. S. P.]

Burmese Wars. (1) FIRST BURMESE WAR (1824—1826). At the time Clive laid the foundation of the English Empire in India, Alonipra had established a great dominion on the other side of the Ganges. He united under his sway the kingdoms of Siam, Pegu, Ava, and Aracan. Both nations extended their dominions until they became conterminous; and the Burmese became so confident in their own success that they demanded of Lord Hastings that he should surrender Chittagong, Dacca, and some other places, which they claimed as original dependencies of Aracan. His refusal, and the encroachments of the Burmese in seizing Cachar, a district of Bengal, and a little island on the coast of Chittagong, produced war. In March, 1824, the English attacked and occupied Rangoon at the mouth of the Irawaddi. From then to December the Burmese again and again assaulted Rangoon, which had become the stronghold of the English. Stockade fighting continued till March, and then Sir Archibald Campbell found it possible to advance up the Irawaddi to Prome, and found it deserted. The English remained there during the rainy season. In November hostilities were renewed, and the English gradually forced their way up to within forty-five miles of Ava, the capital. There at length, in February, 1826, the Treaty of Yandaboo was concluded, by which the Burmese ceded Assam, Aracan, and the coast south of Martaban, and gave up their claims to the lower provinces.

(2) SECOND BURMESE WAR (1852). After the Peace of Yandaboo, however, and especially after a change of dynasty, which occurred in 1837, the English continued to be treated with great insolence, and even outrage, by the court of Burmah. The successive residents were insulted, and the traders were subject to perpetual extortion. In 1851 Commodore Lambert, in the *Fox*, appeared, and to him the English residents in Rangoon complained. Communications were opened with the court of Ava, but without success, and thereupon Commodore Lambert proceeded to blockade the port of Rangoon. The matter was referred to the government, and, after three

applications had been made in vain for redress, Lord Dalhousie (12th February, 1852) determined on war. Two expeditions were sent from Bengal and Madras, and the Bengal column landed in the Rangoon River on the 2nd April. After some stockade fighting the town of Martaban was captured, and on the 11th April the siege of Rangoon commenced. On the 14th the place was carried by storm. On the 17th May, Bassein was captured. In September the army moved on Prome, which was captured 9th October. On the 20th December a proclamation was issued, with the consent of the Directors, annexing Pegu. A treaty of peace was drafted, but the commissioners could not come to terms. The war therefore ended without any treaty being concluded. In 1867 a treaty was concluded by which British vessels were allowed to navigate Burmese waters. In the autumn of 1885 the oppressive conduct of King Theebaw towards British merchants and traders led to a war. A force of nearly 15,000 men under General Prendergast was sent up the Irrawaddy, and entered Mandalay on November 28. Theebaw was deposed, and on Jan. 1, 1886, the whole of Upper Burmah was annexed to the British Empire. The dacoit bands were gradually exterminated, and the country has since been steadily quieting down. In the summer of 1886 a convention was signed with China, by which the transfer of the country to Great Britain was recognised.

Mill, *Hist. of India*; Snodgrass, *Burmese War*, 1827; Yule, *Narrative of the Mission to Ava*, 1858; McMahon, *The Karens*, 1876; Coloquhoun, *Across Chryse*, 1883.

Burned Candlemas was a name bestowed by the Scots on the spring of 1355—6, at which time Edward III. completely ravaged East Lothian.

Burnell, Robert (*d.* 1292), was one of Edward I.'s great ministers. In 1265 he was Secretary to Prince Edward, and soon after the accession of that king was raised to the Chancellorship. He was a great lawyer, and assisted the king in his legal and constitutional reforms. From 1274 to his death he was practically Prime Minister, and it was at his manor-house at Acton Burnell, in Shropshire, that the important statute *De Mercatoribus* was passed. He was an ecclesiastic, and in 1275 was made Bishop of Bath and Wells. "As a statesman and a legislator," says Lord Campbell, "he is worthy of the highest commendation."

Campbell, *Lives of the Lord Chancellors.*

Burnes, Sir Alexander (*b.* 1803, *d.* 1841), when a young officer in the Bombay army, was selected by Sir John Malcolm, in 1830, to take charge of a mission to Runjeet Singh, which was to proceed up the Indus, and at the same time make an attempt to establish friendly relations with the chiefs on its banks. He was badly received in Scinde, and it was only the energetic remonstrances of Colonel Pottinger, Resident at Cutch, which procured him means of transporting his convoy up the Indus. He was well received by Runjeet, and proceeded to Simla and submitted a report. He was directed to return to Bombay, through Afghanistan, Balkh, and Bokhara, and to explore and report. In 1837 Capt. Burnes made his appearance at Cabul, where he unsuccessfully attempted to conclude an alliance with Dost Mohammed. In 1839 he accompanied the Afghan Expedition, and was entrusted with the important task of concluding an alliance with Mehrab Khan, ruler of Beloochistan, which he accomplished. In 1840 he was created a baronet, and was left in Cabul to succeed Sir W. Macnaghten as envoy. In 1841 he was murdered in the Cabul massacre. [Afghan Wars.]

Kaye, *Indian Officers.*

Burnet, Gilbert (*b.* 1643, *d.* 1715), Bishop of Salisbury, was born at Edinburgh. He studied at Aberdeen, and visited England, France, and Holland. In 1665 he was ordained and presented to the living of Saltoun by the father of the celebrated Fletcher of Saltoun, who himself became Burnet's pupil. In 1668 he was appointed Professor of Divinity at Glasgow, and became known to the Duke of Hamilton, a relation of whom he married. He incurred the resentment of Lauderdale, by whom he was accused of instigating the opposition to the government, and thought it advisable to leave Scotland and to settle in London. In 1675 he was appointed preacher at the Rolls Chapel. He became very popular as a preacher, and was well known at court. During the Popish Plot he made great efforts to save the victims of that delusion. In 1681 he published the first volume of his *History of the Reformation*, and received the thanks of the zealously Protestant Commons for it. In 1683 he accompanied Russell to the scaffold, and was examined by the Commons on the charge of having written his dying speech. On the accession of James, he withdrew to the Continent, and after travelling for a year arrived at the Hague, where he soon gained the confidence of William of Orange, and succeeded in bringing about a reconciliation between the prince and his wife. He wrote numerous tracts directed against James, whose bitter enmity he excited. He accompanied William to England as his chaplain, and after the Revolution, was rewarded with the bishopric of Salisbury. He was a zealous advocate of the claims of Mary to a share of the throne. In religious politics he took the unpopular latitudinarian side. While most vigorously opposed to granting any rights to Catholics, he was in favour of toleration for Dissenters. Accordingly, he attempted, with his friend Tillotson, to draw up a scheme

of reconciliation with the Presbyterians, and he supported Nottingham's Comprehension Bill. In politics he was a thoroughgoing Whig. He proposed to insert the name of the Princess Sophia as secured in the Bill of Rights, but the clause was rejected by the Commons. He was therefore regarded by the adherents of the house of Brunswick as the chief supporter of their cause. He also claims to have inserted in the Bill of Rights the clause which forbids the sovereign to marry a Papist. In 1693 it was resolved by the Commons that a pastoral letter of his, in which he had spoken of England as being conquered by William, should be burnt by the hangman. On the death of Mary he wrote a warm eulogy on her character. In 1698 he was appointed tutor to the young Duke of Gloucester, the heir to the throne, whose education he carefully superintended. In 1701 his *Exposition of the Thirty-nine Articles* was censured in Convocation; and the same year an ineffectual attempt was made in the House of Commons to get him removed from his post about the young prince. He violently attacked the Occasional Conformity Bill in 1704. He was a staunch supporter of the Union with Scotland, and was chairman of the Committee for considering the Articles in the Lords. His care for the welfare of the Church was shown by his scheme for the augmentation of small livings, which ultimately ripened into Queen Anne's Bounty. In the Sacheverell episode he enunciated the doctrines of the Whigs in a speech against passive obedience. He upbraided Queen Anne with her supposed design of settling the crown on the Pretender, and towards the close of his life vehemently opposed the Tory Peace of Utrecht.

The *History of the Reformation of the Church of England* is a valuable piece of historical composition, despite its character of partizanship. Burnet's other important work is the *History of His Own Time* (1660—1713), published posthumously by his son in 1724—34. From fear of giving offence the editor had suppressed many passages in the original manuscript; but the suppressed passages are restored in the edition published by Routh in 1823. The History is the work of a violent Whig, distorted and discoloured by the author's prejudices and partialities; and it is written with singular want of discretion and self-command. Still it is highly valuable as a copious contemporary record of events as they appeared to one who had borne a prominent share in them. Burnet also wrote numerous polemical pamphlets, and several other historical and literary works, including *The Life and Death of John, Earl of Rochester*, 1680; *The Life of Sir Matthew Hale*, 1682; *Memoirs of the Dukes of Hamilton*, 1677; and a translation of More's *Utopia*, 1685.

The best edition of the *Hist. of the Reformation* is that in 7 vols. by N. Pocock, 1865; and of the *Hist. of His Own Time*, that of Oxford in 6 vols., 1833. For an able criticism of the latter work see Guizot, *Notice sur Burnet*; see also Oldmixon, *Critical Hist. of Eng.*, 1724; and P. Nicéron, *Mémoires*. For Burnet's life and character see the *Life* by Sir Thos. Burnet prefixed to the first vol. of the *Hist. of His Own Time* in the edition of 1724; and Birch, *Tillotson*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; *Biographia Britannica*; Wyon, *Reign of Queen Anne*. [S. J. L.]

Burn's Hill, The Battle of (1847), was fought in Kaffirland between a British force which was endeavouring to seize Sandilli, the Kaffir chief, and the Kaffirs; the British were defeated.

Burrard, Sir Harry (*b.* 1755, *d.* 1813), entered the army early in life, and first saw active service in the American War, being present at Camden, and under Lord Rawdon in South Carolina in 1781. In 1798 he distinguished himself in the unfortunate expedition to Ostend. At Alkmaar he was posted on the left in command of the brigade of Guards, and rendered good service in supporting Abercromby's attack. In 1807, he went as second in command of the expedition to Copenhagen; and on his return he was made a baronet. In the following year he was sent out with reinforcements to Portugal. He arrived just in time to find that Wellesley had defeated Junot at Vimiero and was arranging everything for a hot pursuit. Burrard at once forbade any further advance, and recalled the troops to their positions. The results of this prohibition were disastrous, since they prevented Wellesley from totally destroying Junot's army, and rendered the Convention of Cintra necessary. A court of inquiry was held, in which Sir Harry was exonerated from all blame; but popular indignation prevented him from ever being employed again. Napier, a not too gentle critic, says that "it is absurd to blame Sir H. Burrard for not adopting one of those prompt and daring conceptions that distinguish great generals only." Wellesley himself acknowledged that Sir Harry Burrard had acted on fair military grounds.

Napier, *Pen. War*; Rose, *Biog. Dict.*

Burrowes, Peter (*b.* 1753, *d.* 1841), was an Irish politician. He began life as tutor to one of the Beresfords, and was offered a seat in the Irish Parliament, but declined to become a mere placeman and to vote against his convictions. He preferred to go to the bar, and soon became famous. In 1783 he was a delegate to the great Volunteer Convention. He entered the Irish Parliament shortly before the Union, and was one of the many barristers who declined to be bought over by Lord Castlereagh, his friend Charles Bushe, afterwards Solicitor-General, being another. When Lord Cornwallis was sent to Ireland as Lord-Lieutenant, Burrowes proposed to his friends that an appeal should be made to the Yeomanry to defeat the Union, but he was dissuaded from the step, much to his subsequent regret. His speeches were among the best that were made on the anti-Union side. In 1811 he appeared as counsel for the arrested delegates of the Catholic

Convention, and won his case. He was a particularly earnest man, and thoroughly incorruptible.

Lecky, *Leaders of Public Opinion in Ireland*; Grattan, *Life and Times of Grattan*.

Burton, Henry (*b.* 1578, *d.* 1648), was Clerk of the Closet to Prince Charles, but after Charles's accession to the throne he was removed, and for accusing Laud of Popery was forbidden the court. In 1637 he was accused before the Star Chamber of writing schismatical and libellous books against the hierarchy of the Church, and to the scandal of the government. For this he was sentenced to stand in the pillory, lose his ears, be fined £5,000, and imprisoned for life. The first part of the sentence was carried out, and he remained in prison till 1640, when he was released by the Long Parliament, the proceedings against him annulled, and £5,000 compensation given him.

Burton, John Hill (*b.* 1809, *d.* 1881), born at Aberdeen, studied at Marischal College, and became an advocate at the Scotch bar, 1831, but devoted himself chiefly to literature. He became Secretary to the Prison Board of Scotland in 1854, Historiographer Royal in 1867, and a Commissioner of Prisons in 1877. He wrote *Lives of Simon Lord Lovat and Duncan Forbes of Culloden*, 1847; *Narratives from Criminal Trials in Scotland*, 1852; several works on legal and general subjects; *A History of Scotland to 1688*, 1867; *A History of Scotland from the Revolution to 1745*, 1853; and *A History of the Reign of Queen Anne*, 1880. Mr. Burton's *History of Scotland* (issued in 8 vols., 1873) is a very able, careful, and accurate work, and is one of the best general Scottish histories which have appeared in recent times.

A memoir of Mr. Burton is prefixed to his work, *The Bookhunter* (new ed., 1882).

Bury St. Edmunds, in Suffolk, was probably a Roman settlement of some importance. Previous to the ninth century it was known as Beodric's-worthe. It derived its modern name from St. Edmund, King of the East Angles, who was taken prisoner here by the Danes in 870, bound to a tree, and shot to death with arrows. In his honour an abbey was founded here which became famous in monastic history, and is now a ruin of great interest. It was one of the most celebrated Benedictine foundations in England, and at the Dissolution was found to be possessed of enormous wealth. In 1214 a great meeting of the barons took place at Bury, when they swore solemnly to compel King John to grant a charter. It was one of the centres of the Peasants' revolt of 1381. Frequent Parliaments were held here, the most famous in 1446, at which Duke Humphrey of Gloucester was arrested.

R. Yates, *History of St. Edmundsbury*, 1805.

Busaco, The Battle of (Sept. 27, 1810), secured Wellington's retreat to the lines which he had prepared on Torres Vedras. He had taken up a strong position on the Busaco range of hills, with a very steep front. On the 29th, in the early dawn, Massena ordered the English position to be assaulted in the centre, where the ascent was easiest. Picton was in command; and here the French assault was so rapid and determined that after driving back the skirmishers they gained the crest of the hill, and threw the third division into confusion. At that moment General Leith, who was on Picton's right, seeing the danger, moved up a brigade to his assistance; and the French were driven over the hillside. Meantime Ney, on the French right, had led his men over more difficult ground, but with equal gallantry attacked Craufurd, who commanded on the extreme left of the allied line. When the French were on the point of carrying the position, Craufurd launched against them a reserve of 1,800 men, whose onslaught it was impossible to withstand, and the second assault of the French failed. It was clearly impossible to take this strong post by assault; and Massena, in the evening, hastily began to execute a flanking march round the hills on the left of the allied forces. Wellington perceived the movement only just in time, and ordered a retreat to meet it. The allied troops were in great danger on several occasions; but the disorder and confusion of the French army rendered its movements slow, and saved the allies from defeat. As it was, they were worsted in several skirmishes with French scouting parties, and the negligence of Craufurd at the last moment imperilled the safety of the allied army; but at length Wellington had the satisfaction of having all his forces ensconced behind the lines of Torres Vedras.

Napier, *Peninsular War*, book xi., chaps. 7 and 8.

Bussy-Castelnau, Charles Joseph, Marquis of (*b.* 1718, *d.* 1785), a distinguished French officer, was Dupleix's able lieutenant, and was mainly instrumental in maintaining French influence in the Deccan and Carnatic. In 1748 (Oct. 17) he caused the English to raise the siege of Pondicherry. On the arrival of Lally in India, Bussy found himself subordinate to that officer, who rendered his plans ineffectual. Bussy was taken prisoner at Wandewash and conveyed to England, but at the trial of Lally he was released on parole and allowed to return to France to clear himself. He wrote a *Mémoire contre M. de Lally*, Paris, 1766.

See the *Procès de Lally* in Voltaire's Works.

Bute, John Stuart, 3rd Earl of (*b.* 1713, *d.* 1792), son of James, second earl, married, in 1736, Mary, daughter of the celebrated Lady Mary Wortley Montague, in whose right he inherited a large fortune. In early

life he became by accident acquainted with Frederic, Prince of Wales, and soon acquired great influence over him, though it is difficult to see what were the charms which endeared him to the prince, since he is described as "cold and unconciliating in his manners, proud and sensitive in his nature, solemn and sententious in his discourse." During the later years of George II. he had remained attached to the court of the widowed Princess of Wales; and scandal attributed to their relations a character which there is no real evidence to show that they possessed. But no sooner was George III. seated on the throne than Bute took advantage of his ascendency over the young king to come to the front in politics. After the dissolution of Parliament early in 1761, he became one of the Secretaries of State as the colleague of Pitt, to whom he was warmly opposed on the question of the Continental war. Pitt resigned in October, leaving Bute supreme. The discovery of the Family Compact between France and Spain, which Pitt had suspected, led to a necessary rupture with Spain; but Bute was none the less resolved to come to terms with France and to desert Germany, and to reverse the policy of his predecessors. On Nov. 3, 1762, the preliminaries were signed at Fontainebleau, and peace was definitely concluded in the following February. But the ministry was unpopular; and this unpopularity gradually developed into a fierce hatred, which amused itself in burning the Prime Minister in effigy in almost every public place. This extreme feeling can scarcely be said to have been justified by Bute's public measures; and two, at any rate, of his chief sins in the popular view are well set forth by a contemporary writer, who says that he was utterly "unfit to be Prime Minister of England, because he was (1) a Scotchman, (2) the king's friend, (3) an honest man." In April, 1763, he had to yield to the storm of indignation which he had aroused; and he never afterwards filled any prominent office in the State. But he retained his influence over the king, and was all-powerful in the Closet, until George Grenville, after the failure of Bute's attempted intrigues with Pitt, insisted on his complete dismissal from the court as a condition of his own return to power. From this time forward, there is little evidence that Bute had any hand in the politics of the day, though his withdrawal could not remove the suspicion of his secret influence at the back of the throne. During the last twenty-five years of his life he lived in almost complete retirement at Christchurch, in Hampshire, in the midst of his family.

Walpole, *Memoirs of the Reign of George III.*; Albemarle, *Rockingham and His Contemporaries*; Jesse, *George Selwyn and His Contemporaries*, and *George III.*; *Letters of Junius*; Macaulay's second Essay on *Chatham*.

[W. R. S.]

Butler, The Family of, was founded in Ireland by Theobald Gualtier or Walter (a brother of Hubert Walter, Archbishop of Canterbury and Chancellor of England), who received grants of land in Leinster from Henry II., together with the hereditary office of Pincerna, or Butler, to the Kings of England. The Butler family did not play a very prominent part in Irish history until the beginning of the fourteenth century, when Edmond le Boteler was created Earl of Carrick for his exertions against Edward Bruce and the Scots. From him sprang two lines, those of the Earls of Ormonde and the Earls of Carrick. The earldom of Ormonde was created in 1328, and James, the second earl, who married Eleanor, daughter of Humphrey Bohun, Earl of Essex and first cousin of Edward II., raised the family to a position of equality with the Burkes and the Fitzgeralds. The Butlers were powerful chiefly in the Pale, and though they adopted some Irish customs, yet, on the whole, they were faithful to their English origin. They almost alone, in opposition to the Fitzgeralds, supported the house of Lancaster and the English connection. Kilkenny and part of Tipperary formed their Palatinate, and they stood next in power to the Fitzgeralds. The title of Ossory was created in 1527, when Pierce Butler consented to resign the title of Ormonde to Thomas Boleyn, Viscount Rochfort, but the latter honour was restored to him after the execution of Rochfort. The Butlers joined the Desmonds in the Munster insurrection of 1569. They played an important part in English history during the seventeenth century; they were now Protestants, and, though Irish in sympathy, thoroughly Royalist in their views, and anxious to keep up the English connection. James, Duke of Ormonde, who was created marquis in 1642 and duke in 1661, commanded the Royalist troops for the suppression of the Irish rebellion, and after the Restoration was governor of the country. His son Ossory died in the service of William of Orange. James, the second duke, was one of the staunchest supporters of the old Pretender; in consequence of his intrigues during the last years of the reign of Queen Anne, his honours were extinguished and his immense estates forfeited (1716). His brother and heir, Charles, was created Baron Butler of Weston, Hunts.

Butler, Samuel (*b.* 1612, *d.* 1680), is the author of one of the greatest political satires in the English language. The early years of his life are obscure, but he is said to have been at one time employed by Selden as an amanuensis, and to have been recommended by him to the Countess of Kent. He subsequently entered the service of Sir Samuel Luke, a rigid Presbyterian, where he had the opportunity of observing the various traits of bigotry and absurdity which he subsequently

wove into *Hudibras*. This work was published in three parts: the first in 1663, the second in 1664, and the third in 1678. The work is a satire on the Independents and Presbyterians, and is of considerable historical interest as giving a striking picture of many of their peculiarities. Its abounding wit, and the extraordinary copiousness and variety of diction displayed in the dialogues, as well as the genuine humour of some of the comic situations, have made it one of the most popular of political satires. Butler was the author of a satire on the Royal Society, *The Elephant in the Moon;* a collection of *Characters*, and some other works. He seems to have gained little or no solid reward from the court, and is said to have died in the extremest poverty in London. In 1721 a cenotaph was erected to his memory in Westminster Abbey which provoked from Samuel Wesley a well-known epigram.

An edition of *Hudibras* with copious and useful explanations of allusions, &c., is that of Grey, Lond., 1744.

Butt, Isaac (*b.* 1813, *d.* 1879), the son of an Irish Protestant clergyman, educated at Trinity College, Dublin, in 1835, was made Professor of Political Economy the following year. In 1838 he was called to the Irish bar and began to take an active part in politics on the Conservative side. He was a strenuous opponent of O'Connell. In 1844 he was made a Queen's Counsel, and in 1848 defended Smith O'Brien. From 1852 to 1865 he sat in Parliament as member for Youghal, but did not distinguish himself. In 1871 he was elected as Home Rule member for Limerick, and assumed the leadership of the new party, and in 1872 founded the Home Rule League. But he was opposed by the more extreme and violent section of his party, and by the end of his life he had little authority left in the Home Rule ranks.

Buxar, The Battle of (Oct. 23, 1764), was fought between the English, commanded by Major Munro, and the army of the Vizier of Oude. The latter was completely routed, and obliged to abandon his camp, with all its stores and 130 pieces of cannon. This victory was scarcely less important than that of Plassey. It demolished the power of the Vizier Sujah-Dowlah, the only chief of importance in the north, and made the English masters of the valley of the Ganges.

Buxton, Sir Thomas Fowell (*b.* 1786, *d.* 1845), a member of the brewing firm of Truman, Hanbury, and Co., in 1816 established a well-organised system of relief for the poor in Spitalfields, and soon after examined the state of the prisons, in which he was aided by his sister-in-law, Mrs. Fry. He wrote a pamphlet exposing the horrors of the prison system, which excited great attention. He now stood for Weymouth, and was triumphantly returned. He continued to represent this borough till 1837, when he was defeated by Mr. Villiers. In Parliament he proved himself an important ally of Mackintosh on the question of the Amelioration of the Criminal Code. In 1823 he brought forward a resolution "that slavery, being repugnant to the Christian Religion and the British Constitution, ought to be abolished at the earliest period compatible with the safety of all concerned." It was not, however, till 1831 that the principle of emancipation was conceded, chiefly owing to Mr. Buxton's efforts, and in 1833 government introduced a measure of emancipation. Mr. Buxton did not, however, relax his efforts, but laboured to effect the abolition of the system of apprenticeship which was still sanctioned by the law. In 1837, on his defeat at Weymouth, he quitted Parliamentary life; and in 1839 he published *The Slave Trade and its Remedy*, in which he proposed the colonisation of Africa. An expedition with this object was sent to the Niger, but it proved a complete failure. In 1840 Mr. Buxton was created a baronet.

Bye Plot, The (1603), was set on foot by a Roman Catholic priest named Watson, and was joined by ardent Catholics like Sir Griffin Markham and Anthony Copley, as well as by Puritans like Lord Grey of Wilton and George Brooke, who were discontented with the policy of James I. Their plan seems to have been to secure the person of the king, compel him to dismiss his ministers, and to grant toleration to Catholics and Puritans. Many were inveigled into joining on the pretence that the meeting was merely for the presentation of a petition in favour of general toleration. The scheme was badly arranged, no definite plan had been agreed upon, and it proved a complete failure. It is certain that the Bye Plot had no connection with the Main or Raleigh's Plot, with which, however, Cecil and the other ministers managed to mix it up in popular belief. Watson was executed, Markham reprieved on the scaffold, Grey imprisoned in the Tower, and Copley banished.

S. R. Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng.*, vol. i.

Byng, Sir George. [Torrington, Viscount.]

Byng, John, Admiral (*b.* 1704, *d.* 1757), was the fourth son of Lord Torrington, and served at sea under his father. In 1756 he was sent out with a fleet of ten ships of war, poorly manned and in bad condition, with orders to relieve Minorca in case of attack. Only three days afterwards the French fleet attacked the castle of St. Philip in that island. Byng arrived off St. Philip on May 19th, and tried in vain to communicate with

the governor. On the following day the engagement took place. Rear-Admiral West on the right attacked the enemy with vigour, and drove them back; but Byng held aloof, and the action was indecisive. After a council of war, he sailed off to Gibraltar and left Minorca to its fate. Byng was brought home under arrest, and tried by court-martial. His judges acquitted him of treachery and cowardice, but it was decided that he had not done his utmost to relieve St. Philip, or to defeat the French fleet. He was recommended to mercy. Pitt in vain tried to induce the king to pardon him. Byng was shot at his own request on the quarter-deck of his ship in Portsmouth Harbour; he met his fate with great courage. Voltaire, who had tried to help him by sending him a laudatory letter of the Duke of Richelieu, says that he was slain "pour encourager les autres." It is probably true that Byng had not done as much as he might have done for the relief of Minorca. But there can be no question as to the harshness and injustice of applying the severe penalties prescribed by the twelfth article of the naval code in the case of an officer who was rightly acquitted of treachery and cowardice. Though Byng was perfectly honest and sufficiently brave, it may, however, be conceded that he was wanting in capacity. "He trembled not at danger, but, like many other weak men in high places, he did tremble at responsibility." [Minorca.]

London Gazette, 1756—57; Stanhope, *Hist. of England.*

Byron, John, Lord (*d.* 1652), was the eldest son of Sir John Byron. He was one of Charles I.'s personal attendants, and was by him made Lieutenant of the Tower in 1641. As he was strongly attached to the royal cause, the Parliament was anxious to get rid of him, and, in 1642, the king consented to appoint Sir John Conyers in his place. On the outbreak of the war, Byron raised a troop for the king, and at the battle of Edgehill was in command of the reserve. He showed great bravery at Roundaway Down and Newbury, and, in 1643, was created a peer, and shortly afterwards Governor of Chester, where he sustained a long siege, capitulating only when all the provisions were exhausted. He was subsequently appointed Governor to the Duke of York. He took part in the second Civil War, and on the failure of the Royalists returned to his charge of the Duke of York, and died at Paris.

Whitelocke, *Memorials.*

C

Cabal, The (1667 — 1673), was the name given to the ministry formed in the reign of Charles II., after the fall of Clarendon. The word "Cabal" had been used previously to denote a secret Committee or Cabinet, and answers to the "Junto" of a somewhat later date. [Cabinet.] It happened, however, rather curiously that the initials of the statesmen who formed this administration spelt the word "Cabal." These ministers were Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley-Cooper (Lord Shaftesbury), and Lauderdale. "They agreed," says Ranke, "in wishing to strengthen the royal prerogative by moderating the uniformity laws with the help of France, and during the excitement caused by a foreign war; but, otherwise, they were attached to widely different principles. Lauderdale was a Presbyterian; Ashley-Cooper, a philosopher; Buckingham, if he held any opinion at all, an independent; Arlington, a moderate Catholic; Clifford, a zealous one." At first, in foreign policy, a new departure was taken by the formation of the Triple Alliance (q.v.), which compelled Louis to desist from his schemes of aggression in the Spanish Netherlands. But this line of policy was not long pursued. War with the Dutch and alliance with France followed, with the infamous Treaty of Dover (1672). Money was obtained by seizing that which had been deposited for security in the Exchequer, while Parliament, which might have proved obstructive, was prorogued. A Declaration of Indulgence, granting liberty of worship to all sects, was issued. But the war ended in failure, and the Declaration was received with great suspicion even by the Dissenters. The Treasury was empty, and in 1673 Parliament had to be summoned to grant supplies. Charles was compelled to withdraw the Declaration, and to assent to the Test Act, which, by excluding all Catholics from office, obliged Clifford and Arlington to resign, and put an end to the Cabal Ministry.

Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*, iii. 515; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*, i. 213.

Cabinet, The, although familiar by name to every one as the most powerful body in the Executive Government of the State, is, properly speaking, unknown to the Constitution. Theoretically, the Cabinet is only an irregular Committee of the Privy Council. By the theory of the Constitution, the Privy Council is the proper body to advise the sovereign; yet the members of the Privy Council do not attend unless they are specially summoned, and they have only formal business to transact. The Cabinet Council took its rise under the Tudors, but was then only a small irregular body, consisting of the members of the Privy Council, whom the sovereign chose from time to time to consult. After the Restoration, when the distinction between the ordinary Council and the Privy Council had ceased to exist, and when all members of the Council were sworn

as Privy Councillors, the Privy Council became unwieldy from its numbers. Charles II. complained that the great number of the Council made it unfit for the secrecy and despatch which are necessary in great affairs. He formed a select Committee of the Council, called the Cabal or Cabinet, which deliberated on all matters of business before they were submitted to the larger Council. This method of government was very unpopular—partly from the character of the ministers who composed the Cabinet, and partly from the imperfect understanding of the doctrine of ministerial responsibility. In 1679 an attempt was made by Sir William Temple to restore the Privy Council to its former position. Its numbers were to be reduced from fifty to thirty, of whom fifteen were to be the chief officers of State, and the rest made up of ten Lords and five Commoners. The joint income of the Council was not to be less than £300,000, which was thought to be nearly equal to the estimated income of the House of Commons. Charles promised that he would be governed by the advice of this Council, but he continued to consult his Cabinet as before. The Cabinet assumed more definite duties under William III., who also introduced his principal ministers into Parliament. At the same time, the king chose his Cabinet from the two great parties, until, in 1693, he formed a Ministry exclusively of Whigs, called the "Junto." The accession of George I. made a great difference in the position of the Cabinet, because the king, not understanding English, ceased to attend its meetings. Both he and his successor, George II., cared more for the affairs of Hanover than for those of England. Under their reigns, the fabric of constitutional government was consolidated, although the Tories, in consequence of the remains of Jacobite sympathies among them, were excluded from power. George III., on his accession, determined to free himself from the domination of the Revolution Whigs. He did not, however, give up Cabinet government, although he was accused of consulting "an interior Cabinet" other than his responsible advisers. It was not till the accession of Pitt to office, in 1783, that the Prime Minister assumed the authority with which we are familiar. As Mr. Traill says (*Central Government*, p. 20), there are three ways in which Cabinet government has been matured and strengthened during the last hundred years, viz.: 1. Political Unanimity—the principle that a Cabinet should be formed on some definite basis of political opinion, or, in the case of a coalition, of agreement on certain specified points. 2. Unity of Responsibility—that is, that the members of a Cabinet should stand or fall together; the first instance of this dates from 1782. 3. Concert in Action—that the Cabinet should not consist of a number of units, each governing his own department independently of the rest, but of a body of men acting in concert for the common welfare. In theory, the choice of the Cabinet belongs to the crown, but in practice it is in the hands of the Prime Minister, and even he has no absolute choice in the matter. As Mr. Bagehot says (*English Constitution*, p. 14), "Between the compulsory list, which he must take, and the impossible list that he cannot take, a Prime Minister's independent choice in the formation of a Cabinet is not very large: it extends rather to the division of the Cabinet offices than to the choice of Cabinet Ministers. Parliament and the nation have pretty well settled who shall have the first places." The numbers of the Cabinet generally vary from twelve to fifteen. The following Ministers have usually been members of it:—The First Lord of the Treasury, the Lord Chancellor, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, the President of the Council, the Lord Privy Seal, the Home, the Foreign, and the Colonial Secretaries, the First Lord of the Admiralty, the Secretaries for India and for War, the President of the Board of Trade, and the Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster. The Postmaster-General, the Chief Secretary for Ireland, the President of the Local Government Board, are sometimes members, and sometimes not. The meetings of the Cabinet are secret, no minutes of proceedings are taken, and what passes may not be divulged.

Alpheus Todd, *Parliamentary Government in England*, 1867; W. Bagehot, *The English Constitution*; the Constitutional Histories of Hallam and May; H. D. Traill, *Central Government*; Sir R. Peel's *Memoirs*; and the political histories of the seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth centuries—*e.g.*, those of Macaulay, Lord Stanhope, Massey, and Spencer Walpole.

[O.B.]

Cabot, John (*d.* 1499), was a naturalised Venetian, probably of Genoese birth, who settled at Bristol in the reign of Henry VI. In 1497, having obtained a patent from the king for the discovery of unknown lands, he set sail from Bristol, with his son, in order to discover the North-West Passage to India. In the course of the voyage, they discovered Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Florida. John Cabot thus deserves the honour of discovering the mainland of America, which he reached June 24th, 1497, a year before Columbus.

Cabot, Sebastian (*b.* 1474, *d. circa* 1557), was the son of John Cabot. In 1497 he accompanied his father on his great voyage, in the course of which the adventurers visited Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, Labrador, and Florida, In 1512 Ferdinand the Catholic induced Cabot to enter the service of Spain; but on the death of the king, in 1516, he returned to England, and in the following year made another attempt to discover the North-West Passage,

visiting Hudson's Bay. In 1525 he sailed on a voyage in the interests of Spain, and discovered St. Salvador and the River Plate, returning to Europe in 1531. In 1548 he again settled in England, and received a pension from Edward VI., with the title of "Grand Pilot of England." In 1553 he did good service to English commerce by being instrumental in establishing the trade with Russia.

J. F. Nicholls. *Life of Sebastian Cabot*, 1869. [Harrisse, *John Cabot and Sebastian his Son*, 1896, and *Discovery of America*, has shown good reason for questioning Sebastian's share in his father's discoveries, and his good faith.]

Cabul. [Afghan Wars.]

Cade's Rebellion is the name generally given to the rising in south-eastern England in the summer of 1450. Parliament was sitting at Leicester vainly striving to frame measures to check the enormous evils, financial and political, from which the country was suffering, when, early in June, news came that the commons of Kent had risen in arms under a captain who called himself Mortimer, and whom Thomas Gascoigne, an Oxford theologian of the day, represents as "a descendant of Roger Mortimer, the bastard," whoever he might be. But the captain proved to be one Jack Cade, described by later writers as an Irishman who had killed a woman of Sussex, fled to France, fought there against the English, come back to England, and wedded the daughter of a squire. He undoubtedly gave proofs of military capacity; and we are told that the Primate, in a conference with him, found him "sober in talk and wise in reasoning," if "arrogant in heart and stiff in opinion." At any rate, the rising he led was no wanton one. Misrule at home and failure abroad had brought on men in power a hatred and contempt almost universal. The amiable king was as clay in the hands of his headstrong queen and the friends of the late unpopular Duke of Suffolk. The royal income had dwindled by improvident grants; the Exchequer was well-nigh bankrupt; grievous taxes oppressed the commons, whilst their favourite, the Duke of York, was excluded from the government. The lawless murder of the Duke of Suffolk at Dover, on May 2nd, had been followed by a report that the king's vengeance would fall on the county of Kent. The men of Kent thereupon resolved on an immediate appeal to arms; and in combination with the men of Surrey and Sussex, and headed by Cade, who called himself "Captain of Kent," assembled, on June 1st, in considerable force, on Blackheath. This was no tumultuous gathering of a mere clownish mob, but an organised enterprise, deliberately carried out by means of the regular local machinery; and men of good birth are known to have taken part in it. In their formal complaint we learn the provocation and aims of the rebellion. Prominent among the first were the heavy taxation, the abuse of purveyance, the appointment of upstarts to high office, the treasonable loss of France, undue interference of great men at elections, and exactions under colour of law; among the second it was urged that the alienated crown lands should be resumed, the friends of Suffolk discarded, and the king's confidence given to York — in fact, redress of grievances and change of counsellors. The king at once mustered an army, and marched to London; and thence, after some delay, moved on Blackheath. Cade fell back before his advance; and Henry, thinking the brunt of the danger over, sent only a small force, under Sir Humphrey and William Stafford, in pursuit of him. Cade faced round at Sevenoaks, and there, on June 18th, a fight ensued, in which the king's force was routed, and both the Staffords killed. Cade returned to London, and occupied Southwark. The Londoners resolved, by a vote of the Common Council, to open their gates to the rebels; and on July 2nd, Cade led them across the bridge and took formal possession of the city by striking London Stone with his sword. For a time he preserved the show, and something of the reality, of discipline, making his men respect the persons and properties of the citizens, and returning with them every night to Southwark. But he took Lord Say and Sele, the Treasurer, who was in special ill-odour with the country, out of the Tower, and had him arraigned before the Lord Mayor, but afterwards caused him to be carried off and beheaded in Cheap. Crowmer, Say's son-in-law and Sheriff of Kent, and another were also murdered. Then discipline gave way; robberies became frequent, Cade himself plundering friend and enemy alike. This conduct enraged the Londoners; they turned upon Cade; and under the command of Matthew Gough, a soldier of renown in the French wars, sought, on July 5th, to hold the bridge against the rebels. Cade promptly made a furious onslaught upon them; drove them with heavy loss to the drawbridge at the centre, which he set on fire; and killed their leader. The contest lasted through the night; but the Kentish men fell back the next morning. The Chancellor (Archbishop Kemp) seized this moment of discouragement to tempt the insurgents with offers of pardon. These were produced by Bishop Waynflete at a conference with Cade, and were gladly accepted. Soon almost every man of the rebels was making for his home. But their captain, distrusting his pardon, or yielding to his instincts, flung open the gaols, and turned the released prisoners into a new force. With this he went to Rochester, whither his booty had been sent by water. A price was now set on his head; and his men quarrelled with him over the plunder. He left them

and fled into Sussex. He was heading towards Lewes, when he was caught at Heathfield in a garden, by Iden, the new Sheriff of Kent, and struggling against capture, was cut down and wounded to the death. He died before his captors could get him to London.

Paston Letters, with Mr. Gairdner's Preface to vol. iv.; Mr. J. E. Thorold Rogers's Introduction to *Loci e Libro Veritatum;* Hook, Life of Stafford in *Lives of the Archbishops*, vol. iv.

[J. R.]

Cadiz, EXPEDITIONS AGAINST. The *first* (1596) was undertaken to create a diversion in favour of Henry IV. of France, in accordance with the terms of the Treaty of Melun. In June, 1596, a combined fleet of English and Dutch under Lord Howard of Effingham and the Earl of Essex, entered Cadiz harbour, where Sir Francis Drake had burnt the shipping nine years before, and completely defeated the Spanish vessels assembled there for the defence of the city. Essex, with 3,000 men, landed at Puntal, and captured the town, extorting a ransom of 120,000 crowns from the citizens. The expedition returned ten weeks after it had left Plymouth, having done much to lower the prestige of Spain, and to assert the naval superiority of the English. The *second* (1625) resulted from the rupture of the negotiations for the Spanish marriage, and the restoration of the Palatinate by Spanish aid, and the consequent expedition planned by the Duke of Buckingham to seize a Spanish port and intercept the treasure fleet. An open breach took place in September, 1625, when Charles concluded an alliance with Holland (Sept. 8th), and a joint expedition was agreed on. Sir Edward Cecil (Lord Wimbledon) was entrusted with the chief command, with Lord Denbigh as rear-admiral and the Earl of Essex as vice-admiral. The combined fleet arrived in Cadiz Bay on Oct. 22nd; but instead of at once attacking the ships in the harbour and assaulting the city, the next day was spent in capturing the fort of Puntal, which guarded the entrance of the harbour. The delay gave the Spaniards time to garrison the before defenceless city, and made a surprise impossible. On the 24th Wimbledon landed his troops, and marched northwards to meet a Spanish force of whose approach he had heard; but the Spaniards retreated, and, after a useless and disorderly march, he returned next morning to his fleet. The fleet, which was to have destroyed the Spanish vessels at the head of the harbour, found them posted in an inaccessible creek, and accomplished nothing. Cadiz was now too strong to attack; so on Oct. 27th the soldiers were re-embarked, the fort of Puntal was abandoned, and the fleet put to sea to intercept the treasure ships. This portion of the enterprise also failed; the ships were unseaworthy, and disease raged among the crews; and in December the fleet returned to England. The *third* (1702) occurred during the War of the Spanish Succession, and the idea appears to have been suggested by the Prince of Hesse Darmstadt, who was convinced that the Spaniards were to a man in favour of the Archduke Charles, and that Cadiz would form a good basis of operations. Accordingly a joint expedition of English and Dutch was fitted out and placed under the command of the Duke of Ormonde; Sir George Rooke, who disapproved of the whole plan, being in command of the fleet of thirty ships of the line. The land forces amounted to 14,000 men. It was first designed to attack Gibraltar, but this idea was given up. For a fortnight the fleet was delayed by storms. Cadiz was strongly fortified and was defended by the veteran general Villadrias. Ormonde first attempted to gain over the governor Brancaccio, and then the inhabitants, but without success. As the town itself was supposed, though utterly without reason, to be impregnable, Villadrias having only 200 men, the allies occupied the port of Santa Maria, which they ruthlessly pillaged, the officers being as unprincipled as the men (July 18th). An attempt to take Fort Matagorda proved an utter failure; dysentery, too, broke out among the troops. Accordingly, on the 30th of September, Ormonde, sorely against his will, was constrained to re-embark his troops, and they set off homeward "with a great deal of plunder and infamy." On their way home, however, the expedition partly retrieved its character by the destruction of the Spanish galleons in Vigo Bay.

Cadogan, WILLIAM 1ST EARL OF (*d.* 1726), was one of the officers whom Marlborough most trusted. He was made colonel of the 2nd Regiment of Horse in 1703, and general in the following year for his gallant attack on the Schellenberg. In 1705 he was elected member for Woodstock. He fought at Ramillies, and towards the end of 1706, he was taken prisoner, but soon exchanged. In 1708 he was appointed ambassador to the States General. Cadogan led the van at Oudenarde, having been sent on to construct pontoons across the Scheldt, by which the army effected the passage. He also supported General Webb, in his gallant fight with the enemy at Wynendale. At the end of the year he was made lieutenant-general. He was again appointed envoy to the States General, but was recalled by the Tory ministry. In Marlborough's last campaign he surprised Bouchain and Cambrai, and broke the barrier which Villars had termed his "non plus ultra." On the disgrace of Marlborough he resigned his appointments. On the accession of George I. he was made Master of the Horse, and envoy to the States General. When the Jacobite insurrection of 1715 broke out,

Cadogan was sent to Scotland after the dilatoriness of Argyle had been proved, and soon brought the campaign to a conclusion. He was raised to the Peerage in 1716. He signed the defensive alliance between England, France, and Holland, and subsequently carried out the execution of the Barrier Treaty, and signed the Quadruple Alliance. His influence in Holland was partly owing to his friendship with Marlborough, and partly because he had married a Dutch lady of good family. On the death of the Duke of Marlborough, he was appointed Commander-in-chief and Master-General of the Ordnance. Later on he supported Carteret in his quarrel with Walpole.

Marlborough's *Despatches*; Coxe, *Marlborough*; Wyon, *Reign of Queen Anne*.

Cadsand, The Battle of (1337), the first fight of the Hundred Years' War against France, was brought about by the attack of the Count of Flanders on the party of Van Artevelde, who sought aid from England. Sir Walter Manny was sent with a small force, and having effected a landing at Cadsand, an island at the mouth of the Scheldt, inflicted a serious defeat on the troops of the count.

Caen, The Treaty of (1091), was made between William Rufus and Robert of Normandy, under the mediation probably of the King of France. Robert renounced his claim to England, and was allowed to retain his capital and the greater part of his duchy; but he recognised the commendations which many of the Norman nobles had made to William Rufus, who thus became a Continental neighbour to his brother, "hemming in what was left of Normandy on every side" (Freeman). Cherbourg, Fécamp, and St. Michael's Mount were among the places surrendered by Robert. The treaty provided that if either Robert or William should die without an heir the survivor should succeed to his dominions.

Freeman, *William Rufus*, ii., in the Appendix the different versions of the treaty are given.

Caerlaverock Castle, on the Nith, in Dumfriesshire, was held for some days in the year 1300 by sixty men against an overpowering force commanded by Edward I. It was the place where James V. of Scotland died, December 14th, 1542. In 1545, Hertford persuaded Lord Maxwell, its owner, to surrender the castle to the English, by whom, however, it was not held for long. The castle was destroyed by Cromwell.

The siege of Caerlaverock by Edward I. forms the subject of a curious French poem giving a catalogue of the various barons and knights present, with a description of their arms, persons, and characters. It was printed by Grove in 1809, and Sir H. Nicolas in 1828. An elaborate edition has been issued by Mr. Thos. Wright, Lond., 1864, 4th ed.

Cagliari Affair, The. In June, 1857, some of the passengers on a trading steamer, the *Cagliari*, seized the ship and attacked the island of Perga. The ship, after being abandoned by its captors, was taken at sea by a Neapolitan war-vessel, and two English engineers aboard were imprisoned till Mar., 1858, until one became mad, and the other seriously ill. The affair formed the subject of much discussion in Parliament, representations from the English government to that of Naples ending in the payment of £3,000 compensation by the latter in June, 1858.

Cairns, Hugh McCalmont, 1st Earl (*b.* 1819, *d.* 1885), second son of William Cairns, of Co. Down, Ireland, was called to the bar in 1844, and entered Parliament as member for Belfast in 1852. In 1858 he was appointed Solicitor-General by Lord Derby. On the return of Lord Derby to power in 1866, he was made Attorney-General, and subsequently a Lord Justice of Appeal. In 1867 he was elevated to the peerage. He became Lord Chancellor in 1868, and held that office till the downfall of Mr. Disraeli's ministry. In Mr. Disraeli's second administration he again held the Chancellorship.

Caithness is mentioned in the Pictish Chronicle as the territory of Cait, one of the sons of Cinge. The district seems to have embraced the whole of the northern part of the island from sea to sea. It passed under the rule of the Norwegian Earls of Orkney in the ninth century, though the Kings of Scotland claimed the territory as part of their kingdom. William the Lion, about 1196, deprived Earl Harold of that part of the district of Caithness which comprises Sutherland, and bestowed it on the Morays. The Norwegian Earls of Caithness held of the Scotch king, and not of the King of Norway, as did the Earls of Orkney. The old line of earls came to an end, in 1231, with the death of Earl John, and for the next century the earldom was held by the family of Angus, after which it passed to the St. Clairs, or Sinclairs. The bishopric of Caithness was founded by David I., with the cathedral at Dornoch.

Skene, *Celtic Scotland*, iii., Appendix.

Caithness, John, Earl of (*d.* 1231), son of Harold, was supposed to have connived at the murder of Bishop Adam. He was in consequence deprived of half his earldom by Alexander II., from whom, however, he bought it back a year later. The earl was burnt to death in his own castle, 1231.

Calais first passed into the possession of the English in the reign of Edward III. It was invested by the English in August, 1346, and after the battle of Crecy Edward III. appeared in person before the walls with the army that had won the victory. The town endured a siege for nearly a year with heroic bravery, and finally surrendered, Aug. 4, 1347. According to Jean Le Bel, six of the chief citizens offered their lives to the king in

ransom for their fellow-townsmen, but were spared by the intervention of Queen Philippa. The town was unsuccessfully besieged by the Duke of Burgundy in 1436, and remained in English hands as the sole vestige of the English conquests in France at the close of Henry VI.'s reign. In 1455, Warwick was made Captain of Calais, but, in 1470, he and Clarence were refused entrance to the city. In July, 1475, Edward IV. landed at Calais to begin his projected campaign in France. In January, 1558, the town was invested and easily captured by the Duke of Guise, owing to the apathy of the English government, which had left the town without men or supplies to withstand a siege. By the peace of Cateau Cambresis the French bound themselves to restore Calais to the English at the end of eight years, on pain of forfeiting a large sum of money; but the engagement was never carried out. It was while lying off Calais on Aug. 7, 1588, that the great Spanish fleet [ARMADA] was dispersed by the fireships of the English. In 1596 Calais was taken from the French by Philip of Spain, a circumstance which so alarmed England as to occasion the expedition to Cadiz under Lord Howard of Effingham. Calais was restored to France in 1598, and has since remained in the hands of the French.

Calathros. A district in the ancient kingdom of Dalriada, lying between the Roman wall and the River Avon, now called Callander. The *Battle of Calathros* (634) resulted in the defeat of King Donald Brec, who was attempting to wrest the district from the English.

Calcutta first became an English trading station in 1686, when the small factory established at Hooghley was removed to this place. In 1696 Fort William was built, and became the head-quarters of the Bengal servants of the East India Company. In 1707 it was constituted a Presidency, and its trade soon became considerable. In 1710 the population was computed at nearly 12,000. The city was strongly fortified, and in 1742 the trench called the "Mahratta ditch" was dug round it to protect it from the predatory Mahratta horsemen. In 1756 the town was captured and sacked by Surajah Dowlah, and the tragedy of the "Black Hole" enacted [BLACK HOLE OF CALCUTTA]. In Jan, 1757, the town was reconquered by Clive, and rebuilt. In 1773 it became the capital of British India as well as of Bengal, by an Act of Parliament which gave the Fort William government superiority over those of the other Presidencies. The Governor of Bengal was henceforth called the Governor-General, and in 1834 his title was changed to that of Governor-General of India. Many magnificent buildings were erected in the European quarter, including the splendid Government House built by Lord Wellesley in 1804. In 1854 the supreme government was separated from the local Bengal government by the creation of a Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, who also has his seat at Calcutta. The population of the city, with suburbs, in 1901 was 1,026,987

Caledonia. The name given generally by the Romans to that part of Britain lying north of the Firths of Forth and Clyde, and first laid open by the conquests and explorations of Agricola. The name first occurs in Lucan, vi. 67, and Valerius Flaccus, *Argonaut.*, i. 7. Tacitus says that the red hair and large limbs of the Caledonians point to a German origin. The Caledonians, according to Ptolemy, extended from the Sinus Lemannonius (probably Loch Long) to the Varar Aestuarium (Beauly Firth). They occupied the tract of wild country called Caledonia Silva, or Forest of Celyddon, and were the most powerful of all the tribes north of the Brigantes. At a later period the name came to include apparently all the barbarian and partially unsubdued natives of the northern mountainous district. In 201 the Caledonians joined the revolt of the Meatæ. Severus conducted a campaign against them in 208; but they again revolted a year or two afterwards. In the fourth century, and subsequently, the name is used as equivalent to the whole of Northern Britain—modern Scotland, as distinguished from England and Ireland.

Tacitus, *Agricola*; Ptolemy, ii. 3; Pliny, iv. 16; *Ammianus Marcellinus*, xxvii. 8, 9; Skene, *Celtic Scotland*, i. 40, &c.; Elton, *Origins of Eng. Hist.*

Calendar, THE REFORMATION OF THE (1751), was in great part due to the efforts of Lord Chesterfield. The "Old Style," which was now eleven days in error, had long since been abandoned by most civilised nations. England, however, with Russia and Sweden, still clung to the antiquated system. "It was not," wrote Chesterfield, "very honourable for England to remain in a gross and avowed error, especially in such company." Accordingly, having paved the way to his measure by some letters to the *World*, Chesterfield drew up the scheme in concert with Lord Macclesfield and Bradley the astronomer. The Bill successfully passed both Houses of Parliament. It ordained that the year 1752 should begin on the 1st of January instead of the 1st of March, and that the 3rd of the month of September should be called the 14th, so as to lose the eleven days. Further, such changes should be introduced as would make the solar year and the lunar year coincide. In the matter of payments, it was enacted that these should not be altered, and that the 5th of April, the 5th of July, the 10th of October, and the 5th of January should still continue to be the days on which the dividends of the public funds became due. This change met with a good deal of ignorant opposition. The common Opposition election cry was, "Give us back our eleven days."

Cambridge was the site of a Roman station, named Camboritum. After the English conquest the name of the town was changed to Grantchester, the modern name being derived from the great stone bridge across the Cam. In 1267 it was fortified by Henry III., and afterwards taken by the barons. In 1381 it was attacked by the insurgents, and many of the colleges were pillaged and their charters burned. During the Great Rebellion it was occupied by the Parliamentarians. The town returned two members from Edward I.'s time till the last Redistribution Act reduced the number to one.

Cambridge, UNIVERSITY OF. [UNIVERSITIES.]

Cambridge, RICHARD PLANTAGENET, EARL OF (*d.* 1415), was the second son of Edmund of Langley, Duke of York. He was created Earl of Cambridge by Henry V., but in 1415 was concerned in the conspiracy with Lord Scrope of Masham and others, to dethrone Henry and place the Earl of March on the throne. On the discovery of the plot Cambridge was beheaded. He married, first, Anne Mortimer, sister of the Earl of March, through whom the claims of the house of Mortimer were transferred to the family of York; and, secondly, Maud, daughter of Thomas, Lord Clifford.

Cambridge, GEORGE FREDERICK WILLIAM CHARLES, DUKE OF (*b.* 1819, *d.* 1904), son of Adolphus Frederick, seventh son of George III., was born at Hanover. He became a colonel in the British army, 1837; a major-general in 1845; and a lieutenant-general in 1854. He was present at the battles of the Alma and Inkermann, as commander of the two brigades of Guards and Highlanders. In 1856 he was appointed Commander-in-chief, a position he filled down to 1895, and in 1862 he was advanced to the rank of field-marshal.

Cambuskenneth, THE BATTLE OF. [STIRLING, BATTLE OF.]

Camden, THE BATTLE OF (August 16, 1780), fought during the American War of Independence, arose out of an attempt made by the Americans to save the Carolina provinces from falling into British hands. In the early part of the summer, Washington despatched De Kalb with 3,000 men to join Gates in the South; and Virginia sent out a large body of Militia. The centre of the British force, which was widely extended over South Carolina, lay at Camden, but Cornwallis, on hearing of Gates's advance, concentrated a large body on that place. A skirmish at daybreak of August 16 between the vanguards of the two armies soon developed into a general battle. The British were outnumbered, but a great part of the American force was raw and undisciplined, the steady attack of the regulars was irresistible, and the flight soon became a hopeless rout. The American losses were very heavy both in men and stores. Among the former was De Kalb himself. The victory was the most decisive advantage gained by the British during the war. It placed South Carolina and Georgia almost entirely in the power of the British. [CORNWALLIS.]

Bancroft, *Hist. of America*, iv., chap. 15; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*, chap. 62.

Camden, CHARLES PRATT, 1ST EARL (*b.* 1713, *d.* 1793), was the son of Chief Justice Sir John Pratt. He was educated at Eton, and called to the bar in 1738. In February, 1752, he defended a printer who was prosecuted for an alleged libel. His practice and his reputation continued steadily to increase, until when Pitt came into office in 1757 he was appointed Attorney-General. When Pitt resigned in October, 1761, Pratt continued in office as Attorney-General, and in the following January became Chief Justice of the Common Pleas. While he held this position, he continued to maintain constitutional principles against tyrannical attempts to oppress the subject, and decided in numerous cases against the legality of general warrants. To him Wilkes applied, and the Chief Justice ordered his release on the ground of his privilege as a member of Parliament. On the formation of the Rockingham cabinet, in 1765, he was raised to the peerage as Baron Camden. In February, 1766, he made a great speech in favour of the repeal of the Stamp Act, and against the Declaratory Act. In the following July Camden was raised to the woolsack. Lord Camden's opinion on the right of Parliament to expel Wilkes seems to have been at variance with the action taken by the cabinet, though in his perplexity as to the right course to take he continued to belong to the government; but in January, 1770, he openly declared his differences with his colleagues on that subject of the Wilkes question, and resigned the Great Seal. In 1772 he warmly opposed the Royal Marriage Act. In January, 1782, he supported Lord Shelburne's amendment to the address on the King's Speech. On the formation of the second Rockingham cabinet in March, 1782, Lord Camden preferred the office of President of the Council to the Great Seal. In 1783 he resigned, and offered a vigorous opposition to the "Coalition" Ministry. Soon after Pitt became Prime Minister, Camden was again made President of the Council. In May, 1786, he received an earldom. He conducted, in the House of Lords, the measures adopted by the government in relation to the Regency Bill. The last occasion on which he addressed the House of Lords was the debate on Fox's Libel Bill. On the eve of fourscore years, he made his final and successful effort to put on the statute-book those principles as to the rights of juries

which he had so consistently maintained throughout his life.

State Trials, vols. xviii.—xx.; *Parliamentary Hist.*, vols. xvi.—xxix.; Campbell, *Lives of the Chancellors*; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*

Camden, John Jeffreys Pratt, 1st Marquis (*b.* 1759, *d.* 1840), son of the preceding, entered Parliament in 1780 as member for Bath. In 1795 he succeeded Lord Fitzwilliam as Viceroy of Ireland. On his entry into Dublin in March, 1796, there was a serious riot, which could only be quelled by bloodshed. In 1797 he was bitterly denounced by Grattan, on account of the severities he had found it necessary to authorise in Ulster: but the Parliament, now thoroughly alarmed by the progress of disaffection, was on his side. The English government was more uncertain how to act, but ultimately supported Lord Camden, and took his side in the dispute in which he was involved with General Abercromby. He was, after the beginning of 1797, in full possession of all the rebel plans, but was unable to act on his information during the Rebellion of 1798. He was consequently urging the gravity of the situation on the English cabinet, but it was only after Father Murphy's successes that the Guards and other English troops were sent out to support him. The Whigs in England, meanwhile, continued to attack him as a tyrant of the worst kind, Sheridan moving for his recall in the Commons, and the Dukes of Leinster and Norfolk in the Lords. Both motions were defeated, but popular clamour was so great that, in June, 1798, he was recalled. In 1804 he was in the cabinet, and in 1812 was made a marquis. For nearly sixty years he held the lucrative post of Teller of the Exchequer; but during more than half that period he patriotically declined to draw the enormous emoluments of the office.

Camden, William (*b.* 1551, *d.* 1623), one of the most celebrated of English antiquaries, was born in London and educated at St. Paul's School and at Oxford. In 1575—6 he became a master at Westminster School; in 1589 received a prebend at Salisbury Cathedral; in 1593 he became Head Master of Westminster, and in 1597 Clarencieux King-at-arms. In 1607 he was commissioned by James I. to translate into Latin the account of the trial of the Gunpowder Plot conspirators. In 1622 he founded his Professorship of History at Oxford, and died at Chiselhurst the next year. Camden's most celebrated work is the *Britannia sive Florentissimorum Regnorum Angliæ, Scotiæ, Hiberniæ, et Insularum Adjacèntium, ex Intima Antiquitate Chorographica Descriptio*, which first appeared in 1586, and had gone through a ninth edition in 1594. A new and enlarged edition was published in 1607. It is an interesting work, and the care and learning shown in its compilation still make it of great value to scholars. Though many of Camden's antiquarian theories have been dispelled by later research, his work is important as a great storehouse of facts. He also wrote an English antiquarian work of less elaborate character, called *Remaines Concerning Britain*, 1605, which has been frequently reprinted. In 1615 he published the first part of his *Annales Rerum Anglicarum Regnante Elizabetha*, the second part of which did not appear till after the author's death. It is not a work of special value.

The *Britannia* was translated into English by P. Holland 1610; and by Bishop Gibson in 1694, which translation was reprinted in 1722 and enlarged in 1752 and 1772. An enlarged translation was published by Gough in 3 vols., 1789. An edition of Camden's *Works* in 6 vols. was published in 1870.

Camden Society, The, was founded in 1838 for the purpose of printing ancient chronicles, documents, and memorials relating to English history and antiquities. It has published some 150 volumes, many of which are of the greatest importance, and are, indeed, indispensable to the historical student. The Camden Society's works bear especially upon the history of England under the Tudors and Stuarts. [Authorities.]

Cameron of Lochiel, "a gracious master, a trusty ally, a terrible enemy," was one of the staunchest adherents of James II. in the campaign of 1689. He was in command of the Camerons at Killiecrankie (q.v.), but after the death of Claverhouse he refused to serve under his successor, Cannon, the Irish commander, and retired to Lochaber. In 1692 he took the oaths to William III. with the other Highland chiefs.

Cameron, Richard (*d.* July 20, 1680), the founder of the Cameronians, was born at Falkland, in Fife, and was the son of a village tradesman. He entered the ministry and distinguished himself by his violent opposition to the restoration of episcopacy. He proceeded to still further lengths by the Sanquhar Declaration, by which he and his followers practically declared themselves rebels, and announced their intention of offering armed resistance to the government. In 1677, Cameron was compelled to flee to Holland; but in the spring of 1680 he returned, and was killed in the skirmish of Aird's Moss.

Cameronians, The, took their name from Richard Cameron, the author of the Sanquhar Declaration. They were sometimes called "Covenanters," from their rigid adherence to the Solemn League and Covenant, and afterwards "McMillanites" (from the name of their first minister after the Revolution) and "Mountain Men." Their creed considered as enemies to righteousness

Romanists, Episcopalians, and more especially those moderate Presbyterians who had accepted the indulgence of Charles II. Besides holding the binding obligation of the Covenant on the three kingdoms, they maintained the Westminster Confession, and the Scriptures as the absolute rule of faith and conduct. The sect was not extinguished by the defeat of Aird's Moss, and the death of their leader. They issued a defiance to the royal authority, Oct. 28, 1684, and in return were proscribed and hunted by the royal troops. The Cameronians were most numerous in the wilder parts of south-western Scotland, where, on the accession of William III., their warlike temperament was utilised by the formation of the Cameronian Regiment. The Revolution secured for Scotland a Presbyterian church government; but many of the extreme Cameronians refused to swear allegiance to William III., or to attend the established places of worship. These Covenanting nonjurors became the "Reformed Presbyterians," or the "Old Presbyterian Dissenters," and formed a Presbytery and subsequently a synod in 1743. They founded numerous churches in England, Ireland, and America.

Robertson, *Hist. of the Scottish Church.*

Campbell, The Family of, is, according to tradition, descended in the female line from the ancient kings or chiefs of Argyle, and from one of these, a certain Diarmid, the clan is supposed to derive its name of Scol Diarmid, by which it was known in Erse and Gaelic. In the reign of Malcolm Canmore the name was changed to Campbell by the marriage of the heiress of the house with a person of that name. A Sir Colin Campbell, Lord of Lochow, was among the Scottish knights and barons summoned to the Council of Berwick in 1291. His son, Sir Neil Campbell, was a strong supporter of Robert Bruce, whose sister he married. His son, Sir Colin, received large grants of land in Argyleshire from King Robert and his successor. His grandson, Duncan, was made Chancellor of Scotland by James I., and raised to the peerage as Lord Campbell. The grandson of this peer, Colin, was made Earl of Argyle in 1457. Archibald, the eighth earl, was created Marquis of Argyle in 1641; but was executed, and his honours forfeited in 1661. The earldom was restored to his son, Archibald, the ninth earl, in 1663, who was beheaded in 1685. His son, Archibald, was restored under William III., and created Duke of Argyle in 1701. [Argyle, Peerage of.]

Campbell, John, 1st Lord (*b.* 1779, *d.* 1861), descended from a junior branch of the ducal house of Argyle, was the son of Dr. George Campbell, minister of Cupar. He was educated at the Grammar School at Cupar, and at the University of St. Andrews, and was called to the bar of Lincoln's Inn in 1806. In 1827 he obtained a silk gown, and in 1830–31 he represented Stafford in the House of Commons. In 1832 he was made Solicitor-General, and in February, 1834, was appointed Attorney-General. During his period of office he inaugurated several important law reforms, among which were the Act called Lord Campbell's Act for the amendment of the law of libel as it affects newspapers [Libel, Law of], and an Act limiting the power of arrest in cases of disputed debt. In June, 1841, he was raised to the peerage and received the Irish Chancellorship, which post he held for only sixteen days. In 1846 Lord Campbell joined the Whig cabinet as Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster. In 1850 he became Lord Chief Justice, and held that office till he was appointed Lord Chancellor of Great Britain by Lord Palmerston in 1859 Lord Campbell published, in 1849, *The Lives of the Lord Chancellors and Keepers of the Great Seal of England*, in seven volumes. He also wrote *Lives of the Chief Justices*. On the morning of Sunday, June 24th, 1861, he was found dead in his chair.

Lord Campbell's *Memoirs*, edited by his daughter, Mrs. Hardcastle, 1879.

Campbell, John, LL.D. (*b.* 1708, *d.* 1775), was the writer of many useful historical works which had a considerable reputation in the 18th century. He was largely concerned in the *Ancient Universal History*, and was editor of the *Modern Universal History*. He also wrote *A Political Survey of Great Britain*, 1772, and *Lives of the Admirals*, the latter of which is a careful and interesting work.

Campbell, Sir Colin. [Clyde, Lord.]

Campbell-Bannerman, Sir Henry, G.C.B. (*b.* 1836, *d.* 1908), educated at Glasgow University and at Trinity College, Cambridge, entered the House of Commons in 1868, and was Financial Secretary of the War Office 1871–74 and 1880–82. In 1882 he was appointed Secretary to the Admiralty; in 1884 Chief Secretary for Ireland; and in 1886, and again in 1892, War Secretary. In 1898 he led the Liberal Opposition in succession to Sir William Harcourt, and in 1905, on the resignation of Mr. Balfour, became Prime Minister. At the general election in 1906 the Liberals obtained a striking victory, and Sir Henry was Premier until he resigned a short time previous to his death.

Camperdown, The Battle of (Oct. 11, 1797), was fought between the English and the Dutch. In the autumn of 1797 a great Dutch fleet was prepared to co-operate with the French in the invasion of Ireland, Oct. 9. The Dutch, under De Winter, weighed from the Texel. Admiral Duncan, who had been lying in Yarmouth Roads, crossed the

German Ocean, and came in sight of the Dutch on the morning of Oct. 11th, nine miles from the coast, near Camperdown. At half-past eleven Duncan made the signal for the fleet to engage, and at twelve o'clock determined to pass through the enemy's line in two divisions and engage to leeward. But the weather was so hazy that the signal was not seen by many of the ships, which accordingly engaged in close action as each captain saw an opportunity. The two flag-ships passed through the line, followed by a few leading ships, while the others, for the most part, engaged the enemy to windward. The action was fought with the desperate stubbornness which had always been so marked a characteristic of the two nations. De Winter in the *Vrigheid*, assailed by the English admiral's ship and two others, after a desperate contest, surrendered, when he was totally dismasted, and had scarcely enough men left to fight his guns. One after another the Dutch ships followed his example, and it only remained for the British to secure the prizes before night set in. Eight of the Dutch ships, with over 6,000 prisoners, were taken. The English lost 1,040 and the Dutch 1,160 killed and wounded. In the action the English had 16 line-of-battle ships carrying 8,221 men, and the Dutch 16 line-of-battle ships carrying 7,157. The Dutch prizes were so shattered as to be quite useless.

Allen, *Naval Battles*; James, *Naval Hist.*, ii. 78, &c.; Alison, *Hist. of Europe*, iv. 273.

Campian, Edmund (*b.* 1540, *d.* 1581), was born in London and educated at Oxford, where he became a Fellow of St. John's College; but having openly embraced the Catholic faith, to which he had long secretly inclined, suffered a short imprisonment. On his release he went to Cardinal Allen's college at Douay, where he became noted for his learning and virtues. His affability and high moral character made him an invaluable assistant to the Jesuits, and in June, 1581, he undertook a "missionary journey" to England, in company with Robert Parsons. Their zeal was such as to cause the Parliament of 1581 to pass the harsh statute against any one harbouring a Jesuit, and active measures were taken for the apprehension of the two missionaries. In July, 1581, Campian was taken at Lyford, in Berkshire, and sent to the Tower, where he was tortured, in order to extort from him the names of Catholics who had given him shelter. He was then indicted for compassing and imagining the queen's death, and, after what appears to have been a very unfair trial, was executed at Tyburn, Dec., 1581.

State Trials: Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Camden, *Annales*; Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.*

Camulodunum, a town of Celtic and Roman Britain, is now generally allowed to be identical with the modern Colchester. It became the capital of the Trinobantes under Cunobelin, or Cymbeline (q.v.). In 44 it was taken by Aulus Plautius, and in 60 was made a Roman colony. Two years later Boadicea and the Iceni captured and burnt the city and defeated Petilius Cerealis, but shortly afterwards, in the neighbourhood of Camulodunum, Suetonius Paulinus retrieved by a complete victory the honour of Rome.

Canada. Cape Breton Island and Nova Scotia, now part of the Dominion, were discovered by John Cabot in 1497, and claimed for England, but not formally occupied. In 1525 an expedition, sent out by Francis I., under the leadership of Giovanni Verrazano, a Florentine, took possession of the country, which had previously been claimed for England by Cabot, giving it the name of "La Nouvelle France." In 1541 another French expedition, under M. de Roberval, gave Canada its present name, mistaking the Indian word "kanata" (huts) for the native name of the country. In spite of various attempts on the part of England to establish her claim on Canada, the country remained in the hands of the French until 1763, when it was ceded to Great Britain by the terms of the Treaty of Paris. The Quebec Bill, passed in 1774, established the government of Canada, with a careful regard to the rights and feelings of the French inhabitants, and was the means of securing the allegiance of the great mass of French Canadians, by whose aid the American invasion of Canada, in 1776, was easily repulsed. In 1790 the province of Canada was divided, at the suggestion of Pitt, into Upper (or Western) and Lower (or Eastern) Canada, mainly for purposes of representation, whilst the division also served to mark out the locality where the English and French elements respectively preponderated. Each province had a Governor and an Executive Council, a Legislative Council appointed by the crown, and a Representative Assembly appointed by the people. For some years after the establishment of the Houses of Assembly, there were frequent disputes between them and the Legislative Council, giving rise to such discontent that, in 1812, the Americans projected an invasion of Canada, under the impression that they would be joined by a large majority of the inhabitants. The Canadians, however, stood firmly by the British during the American War of 1812—15, and the attacks on East and West Canada were repulsed. On the conclusion of peace in March, 1815, the disputes again broke out, varying in degree according as the policy of the governors was conciliatory or the reverse. The grievances of the French or national party seem to have had real existence. The Executive and the Upper Legislative Chamber were composed

of crown nominees, and in no sense represented the feelings of the bulk of the inhabitants. The administration (especially in matters of local government) was clumsy, inefficient, and perhaps corrupt. The discontent among the French Canadians continued to increase. The refusal of the government to make any concessions at length brought matters to a crisis, and in 1837 a rebellion broke out in Lower Canada. This insurrection, though crushed almost at its first outbreak, had still the effect of opening the eyes of the Home Government to the danger of neglecting any longer the demands for reform which were being urged upon them by the French Canadians, and accordingly, in 1838, Lord Durham was sent out to Canada to report on the best method of adjusting the future government of the province. The result was the union of the two Canadas in 1840, from which time discontent and insurrection have been at an end. The changes introduced by the union were considerable. A single government was instituted, with a single parliament, consisting of a Legislative Council of twenty or more life members, and a Lower House of eighty-four deputies, appointed by popular election every four years. The reforms of 1840 were consolidated by Lord Elgin (1847), to whose practical and far-sighted administration of his office of Governor-General much of the prosperity of Canada is due. In 1856 the Upper House was made elective. In 1867 Canada and the other provinces of British North America were united, under the title of the DOMINION OF CANADA. The Dominion, embracing the whole of British North America, with the exception of Newfoundland, includes the various provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, British Columbia, Manitoba, Alberta, Saskatchewan, and the North-West Territories. The government of the Dominion is exercised by a Governor-General, who is advised by a Privy Council; whilst there are two Legislative Chambers called the Senate and the House of Commons, the members of which meet at Ottawa, the capital of the Dominion and the seat of the Executive Government. The various provinces are administered by Lieutenant-Governors, appointed by the Governor-General, and have separate chambers of legislature. The Province of Canada proper in the Dominion of Canada consists of the two districts of Ontario and Quebec, each having a provincial government, vested, in the case of Ontario, in a Lieutenant-Governor and a Legislative Assembly of one hundred and six members elected for four years; in the case of Quebec, in a Lieutenant-Governor, a Legislative Assembly of seventy-four members, and Executive and Legislative Councils appointed by the Governor. Since the constitution of the Dominion, the connection with England has become very slight. A Supreme Court of Appeal for the Dominion was established in 1875, but in virtue of the Royal Prerogative the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council can consent to hear appeals from its decisions. A direct appeal to that Committee may also be made from the inferior Dominion and the Provincial Courts under certain conditions. The legal system in the older provinces is somewhat complicated, and in Quebec the old laws and customs of French Canada, founded on the jurisprudence of the Parliament of Paris, the edicts of the French kings, and the Civil Law, are still recognised by the courts for certain purposes. The area of the Dominion of Canada is about 3,700,000 square miles, and its population, which is increasing fast, is about 5,000,000, of whom over a million are of French descent.

F. Parkman, *The Old Regime in Canada*; J. MacMullen, *Hist. of Canada*, 1868; H. C. Lodge, *Short Hist. of the Eng. Colonies in America*; A. Todd, *Parliamentary Government in the British Colonies*; R. M. Martin, *British Colonies*; Murdoch, *Life of Lord Sydenham*; Goldwin Smith, *Canada and the Canadian Question*.

Canning, GEORGE (*b.* 1770, *d.* 1827), was born in London, the son of a poor barrister. His mother, left in needy circumstances, went upon the stage, and afterwards married an actor. George was sent by his uncle, Stratford Canning, a London merchant, the father of Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, to Eton, where he had a brilliant career. Whilst at school he founded and contributed largely to a school magazine called *The Microcosm*. In 1787 he went to Oxford, where he attracted the attention of Pitt, and formed a close friendship with Mr. Jenkinson, afterwards Earl of Liverpool, which was of great service to him in later life. He was at this time a Whig, devoted to Fox and Sheridan, and inclined to look favourably on the French Revolution. On leaving Oxford, he at first went to the bar, but in 1793 was induced to enter Parliament as member for Newport (Isle of Wight), and as a follower of Mr. Pitt. He spoke frequently during his first years in the House of Commons, and always as a supporter of the ministry. In 1796 he became member for Wendover and Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs. In the autumn of 1797 he published, in conjunction with John Hookham Frere, Jenkinson, George Ellis, and Gifford, a satirical paper called *The Anti-Jacobin*. Some of Canning's contributions have taken a permanent place in literature. In the year 1799 Canning laboured earnestly with Pitt to effect the union with Ireland, on the basis of giving equal political rights to the Roman Catholics. When this measure failed, owing to the persistent opposition of the king, Canning left the government with his chief. Pitt was succeeded by Addington, who was assailed by Canning with untiring ridicule. "Pitt is

to Addington," he said, "as London to Paddington." In 1799 he married the daughter of General John Scott, who brought him a large fortune. In 1804 he returned to office, with Pitt, as Treasurer of the Navy. On the death of Pitt in 1806, Fox came into office, and Canning had to retire. In March, 1807, he took office, under the Duke of Portland, as Minister for Foreign Affairs. In this capacity he executed the bold stroke of securing the Danish fleet lest it should fall into the hands of Napoleon (Sept., 1807). He also organised the assistance given by England to Spain against Napoleon, which eventually tended more than anything else to effect the emperor's downfall. He could not agree with Lord Castlereagh, the Secretary at War, and after the failure of the disastrous Walcheren expedition, for which Castlereagh had been largely responsible, resigned his office. Castlereagh became aware that Canning had intrigued against him with the Duke of Portland, and challenged him to a duel. They met at Putney, and Canning was wounded in the shoulder. Canning's resignation of office was an event which long retarded his advancement. He remained a strong advocate of the Emancipation of the Catholics. After the murder of Perceval in May, 1812, Canning and Wellesley received the king's commands to form a ministry, but they were unable to come to terms with Grey and Grenville. Lord Liverpool became Prime Minister instead. Lord Liverpool offered him the post of Foreign Secretary, which Canning refused. In 1814 he went as ambassador to Portugal. Two years later his impatience of being out of office led him to accept the post of President of the Board of Control in Lord Castlereagh's cabinet. In this ministry he was forced to sanction measures of repression of which he could not approve. He agreed with his colleagues in their dislike of Parliamentary reform, but differed from them both with regard to the Emancipation of the Catholics and the harsh measures adopted towards the Princess of Wales. During the trial which followed at the accession of George III., Canning travelled abroad and refused the Home Office offered him by Liverpool. In November, 1820, he came to London, resigned office, and then returned to France. In 1822 the directors of the East India Company appointed him to succeed Lord Hastings as Governor-General. He made all preparations for departure, and went down to Liverpool to take leave of his friends, when Lord Castlereagh (the Marquis of Londonderry, and Secretary for Foreign Affairs) suddenly committed suicide. Canning gave up the brilliant prospect of the Viceroyalty, and succeeded Londonderry. He now showed his resemblance to those English statesmen, who, like Chatham and Palmerston, have been able to sympathise with the aspirations of foreign Liberals. He supported constitutional principles against the reactionary efforts of Metternich. He protested against the Congress of Venice, and against the intervention of France in the affairs of Spain. He opposed the policy of the Holy Alliance. He was the first to recognise the independence of the Spanish colonies in America as he said he "called a new world into existence to redress the balance of the old." He protected constitutional government in Portugal, and effected the severance of Portugal and Brazil. He still longed anxiously for the Emancipation of the Catholics, but this was temporarily hindered by the agitation of O'Connell, and was not effected till two years after Canning's death. He supported Huskisson in preparing the way for free trade, and laboured to effect the abolition of the slave trade. On the death of Lord Liverpool in Feb., 1827, Canning became Prime Minister. His last act was to secure the liberation of Greece by the Treaty of London, July, 1827. He died on the following August 8th. His death was felt as a shock to the whole of the civilised world, for he was the most prominent opponent of the system of reaction which was endeavouring to stamp out aspirations for liberty wherever they were found.

Canning's *Speeches*, 6 vols., London, 1828. The best authorities for his life are the two works of his private secretary, Stapleton, *The Political Life of the Rt. Hon. George Canning*, 3 vols., 1831, and *George Canning and His Times*, 1859. A further collection of Canning's *Letters and Papers* has been edited by Mr. F. Stapleton (1887). There is a brilliant sketch of his career in Lord Dalling's *Historical Characters*; and a brief Memoir by Mr. F. Hill in the *English Worthies* series.

[O. B.]

Canning, Charles John, Viscount (*b.* 1812, *d.* 1862), third son of George Canning, was born at Gloucester Lodge, Kensington, Dec. 14, 1812. He was educated at Eton and Christ Church. In August, 1836, he was returned for Warwick, and remained a member of the House of Commons for six weeks. On the death of his mother, Viscountess Canning, March 15, he succeeded to the title in consequence of the deaths of his two elder brothers. He gradually acquired the reputation in the House of Lords of a conscientious, painstaking young statesman, without taking any very prominent part in the debates. In 1841 he was offered office by Sir Robert Peel, as Under Secretary for Foreign Affairs. In 1846 he became Chief Commissioner of Woods and Forests, and began to take a larger share in the business of the House. In 1848 he supported the Jewish Disabilities Bill; in 1850 he supported Lord Derby's resolution condemning Lord Palmerston's foreign policy, and spoke against Lord John Russell's Ecclesiastical Titles Bill. In 1851 Lord Derby offered him the Foreign Office, but he refused, feeling himself really a Liberal. In 1852

the Coalition Ministry of Lord Aberdeen came into office, and Canning became Postmaster-General. This office he continued to hold under Lord Palmerston. In 1855 he was appointed Governor-General of India, and on Feb. 1st, 1856, he disembarked at Calcutta. He was a cold, impassive man, to whom few would have ventured to make known the public agitation at the close of 1856 and opening of 1857; and he may be entirely acquitted of the charge of not having made himself acquainted with, or not following up if he did hear them, what were as yet intangible and confused rumours. When, however, the mutinies did begin, Lord Canning issued order after order, warning the sepoys against any false reports, and disclaiming any idea of deprivation of caste. Unfortunately, stronger measures than these were necessary to have stifled the Indian Mutiny. When once it had broken out he did his best to bring up troops to the front, and he endowed every person in authority with extra powers, while at the same time refusing to allow any retaliatory massacres. In 1858, on the termination of the Mutiny, he ordered the confiscation of all Oude, though this was repudiated by the Board of Control. In August, 1858, he issued from Allahabad the proclamation providing for the sole dominion of the crown, and putting an end to the rule of the East India Company. The rest of Lord Canning's administration was chiefly remarkable for the judicial reforms in 1860—61, the completion of many railways and canals, and the famine in the North-west Provinces, 1860—61. In 1862 Lady Canning died: this hastened the departure of the viceroy. His health had been considerably impaired by the cares of the previous six years; and he died three months after his arrival in England (June 17, 1862), "leaving the reputation of an industrious and conscientious public servant" (*Times*).

Canon Law. [Ecclesiastical Jurisdiction.]

Canterbury was probably a place of no importance before the Roman occupation of Britain. By the Romans it was called Durovernum, a Latinised form of its Celtic name, which means the town of the rapid river. The fact that the Saxons called it the burgh of the Kent men would show that it was the most important place in the province. Under the descendants of Hengist it became the capital of Kent, and owing to this circumstance the first bishopric, and the metropolitan see, of England. The town was ravaged several times by the Danes, and almost destroyed by them in 1011. In 1067 the Danes burnt down the cathedral. It was rebuilt by Lanfranc and Anselm; but partially destroyed (including the choir) in 1174. It was rebuilt by William of Sens immediately afterwards. Important additions were made in the two following centuries, but it was not till 1495 that the great central tower was completed. Its importance was considerably increased after the canonisation of Becket, when it became the principal centre of pilgrimage in England. It was a town on the royal demesne, and was governed by a portreeve, or provost, till the time of John, when two bailiffs were appointed: the right of electing the bailiffs being granted in the eighteenth year of Henry III.'s reign. A charter was granted in 26 Henry VI., which established a mayor, aldermen, and common councilmen. Edward IV. enlarged the jurisdiction of the city, and formed it into a county. The city came under the operation of the Municipal Reform Act of 1835. The city returned two members under 23 Edward I., but now has only one.

Canterbury, Archbishops of; See of. [Archbishop.]

Canterbury, Charles Manners Sutton, 1st Viscount (*b.* 1780, *d.* 1845), the eldest son of Charles Manners Sutton, Archbishop of Canterbury, was called to the bar, 1805, and first sat in Parliament for Scarborough, 1807. In 1817 he succeeded Mr. Abbot as Speaker of the House of Commons, which office he held till 1834. The activity of commercial enterprise which followed the re-establishment of peace led to a rush of private business in the House of Commons, and Mr. Manners Sutton showed great skill in dealing with it. When Earl Grey resigned in 1832, Manners Sutton assisted the Duke of Wellington to form his temporary ministry; this was apparently to oblige the king, who rewarded him with the order of the Bath. In 1834, when Lord Melbourne was suddenly dismissed from office, a rumour was started that Manners Sutton was to be the Tory premier; and in consequence of this and of his active negotiations in forming the Peel ministry, the Whigs threw him out, and elected Mr. Abercromby Speaker in his place. In 1835 he was called to the Upper House.

Cantii, The, were a British tribe, occupying a portion of the present county of Kent (which derives its name from them) and a part of Surrey. They were divided into four kingdoms, and were the most important of the peoples of south-eastern England. From their proximity to Gaul, they seem likewise to have been the most civilised of all the native tribes at the time of Cæsar's invasion.

Cantilupe, Walter de (*d.* 1265), was the son of William de Cantilupe, one of the itinerant justices, and in 1231 he was himself appointed an itinerant judge. In 1236 he became Bishop of Worcester, when he boldly resisted the exactions of the Pope. He supported Simon de Montfort in the Barons' War, and was one of the twenty-four councillors appointed to watch the execution of the Oxford Statutes and he solemnly absolved

the barons before the battle of Lewes. For the part he took in the contest, he was excommunicated by the Pope.

Cantilupe, St. Thomas de (*d.* 1282), the nephew of Walter de Cantilupe, was a man greatly respected for his piety and learning. In 1265 he was appointed Chancellor by Simon de Montfort, but relinquished the office in the same year, after the battle of Evesham. He is remarkable as being the last Englishman who was canonised.

Canton was first visited by the English about 1634. From 1689 to 1834 the East India Company had a monopoly of the trade with that port. In 1841, during the first China War, Canton surrendered to Sir Hugh Gough, and the following year foreigners were granted permission to settle in the town. In 1856, after the affair of the lorcha *Arrow*, war was declared between England and China, and Canton was bombarded by the English. The bombardment led to an exciting debate in the House of Commons (beginning Feb. 26, 1857), in which men of all parties strongly condemned the action of Lord Palmerston's government, and a motion, proposed by Mr. Cobden and seconded by Mr. Milner Gibson, was carried against the ministry by a majority of 16. Canton was occupied by the English and French in Dec., 1857, and held, under English and French Commissioners, till October, 1861.

Canute (called *Cnut* in the English of his own day—a word that Pope Paschal II. could not pronounce, and therefore Latinised into Canútus), King (*b. circa* 995, *s.* 1017, *d.* 1035), was the younger son of Swegen, or Sweyn, King of Denmark, and the first foreign conqueror of all England. His connection with England began in 1013, when, being still a lad in years, he accompanied his father on the great expedition that forced the English to take Sweyn as their king and drove Ethelred into exile. Young as he was, his father entrusted him with the command of the fleet and the care of the hostages when starting on his southward march from Gainsborough. But a few months later (Candlemas, 1014) Sweyn ended his days; and the Danish fleet, with one voice, chose Canute as his successor. By his father's death he became, for a time, a landless viking, a splendid adventurer; for the English at once restored their native king to the throne, and the Danish crown fell to Sweyn's elder son Harold. Caught unprepared by a sudden march of Ethelred, he sailed away from Lindesey, cut off the hands, ears, and noses of the hostages, put the wretches ashore at Sandwich, and went off to Denmark. Next year (1015) he was back again at Sandwich with a powerful fleet and army Coasting round to Poole Bay, he landed his men, and in a few months was master of Wessex. The first days of 1016 saw him in Mercia also; his burnings and ravagings soon compelled submission; at Easter he was getting ready to lay siege to London, the only part of England that still defied his power. But at this moment the death of Ethelred, and the accession of his vigorous son Edmund to the command of the national cause, gave a new turn to the conflict. Inside London, Edmund was chosen king; outside, Canute; and a fierce and chequered struggle between the rivals began. Edmund rallied the men of Wessex to his standard; there were two Danish sieges of London, both unsuccessful; five minor battles, four of which are given as English victories, one as doubtful; and one last great battle, that of Assandun, in Essex (*Ashington* or *Ashdon*). This was a terrible, seemingly a crushing, overthrow of Edmund. But while this triumph assured Canute a kingdom in England, it failed to tear Wessex from the indomitable Edmund. At Olney, in the Severn, the rivals came together, and agreed on a division of the land between them which made the Thames the common boundary of their dominions. This compact had, however, but a brief trial. On St. Andrew's Day (Nov. 30) Edmund died; and in 1017 Canute was accepted as king of the whole kingdom (1017—1035). His reign was comparatively uneventful. He began it by dividing the realm into four earldoms, giving two of them to Danes, a third to Edric, the treacherous Englishman, and keeping Wessex under his own immediate rule. He put away his Danish wife and married Emma, King Ethelred's widow, a lady nearly double his age. He slew the one son of Ethelred who was within his reach, Edwy, and sent the two little sons of his dead antagonist to Norway, to be made away with there. He had three other Englishmen of high rank put to death, and soon took the same course with the traitor Edric. Next year (1018) he wrung from the country a payment of £83,000 to satisfy his fleet, the bulk of which thereupon carried his army back to Denmark. Having thus established his throne, he entered upon the line of conduct that has gained him the good word of modern historians, purposing henceforward to rule England for the English and by the English. One by one the leading men of Danish birth were removed from England or slain, and their places given to Englishmen. Thus the famous Godwin and renowned Leofric came to hold posts of the highest trust; indeed, after a little, Canute handed over to the former his own special care, the earldom of Wessex. He confirmed the laws of King Edgar, who had made no distinction between the Danish and purely English parts of his kingdom, treating all his subjects as members of the same body politic. He sought to gain the favour of the people by religious foundations, by gifts to monasteries and churches, by doing reverence to the saints and holy places

they revered, by preferring the churchmen they honoured, and by many other gracious and politic acts. Though other countries demanded his care, he bestowed the largest share of his time and attention on England, making her interests his peculiar concern. We are told that he even placed English bishops in Danish sees, and brought English workmen to instruct his Danish subjects in their handicrafts. And in England itself he seems to have favoured Wessex most. Nor is this strange. It is true that he was supreme lord of many lands; Harold's death in 1018 gave him Denmark; Norway he conquered in 1028; in 1031 he invaded Scotland, and made King Malcolm admit his superiority; Sweden is also reckoned among his vassal kingdoms. But no one of these could in real worth compare with England; and of England, Wessex was the fairest portion. In 1027 he made a journey to Rome, and wrote from thence a letter to his English people, full of penitence for the past, good promises for the future, and lofty moral sentiment. He was in high esteem among foreign princes; his sister Edith married Robert, the Norman duke; his daughter Gunhild, King Henry III. of Germany. He died at Shaftesbury in November, 1035, perhaps still under forty years of age. Canute has been greatly praised by some modern historians. Dr. Stubbs reckons him among the "conscious creators of English greatness;" Mr. Freeman's judgment of his policy and character is exceedingly favourable. Clearly his rule brought many blessings to England; under it she enjoyed long unbroken peace, a firm, yet humane, administration of the laws, and a comparative freedom from vexatious imposts and oppressions. In his later years he issued a body of laws which testify to his preservation, in full integrity, of the national constitution, to his regard for religion, to his strict impartiality, and respect for the people's rights. The quiet that settled down on the land may, perhaps, be explained in part by his institution of the *Húscarls*, a permanent force of fighting-men, 3,000 or 6,000 in number, owing obedience to a military code—the earliest approach to a standing army in England. Not without reason did the common folk cherish his memory, if only by repeating simple tales of his sayings and doings.

Anglo-Saxon Chronicle; Freeman, *History of the Norman Conquest*, vol. i.; Lappenberg, *Anglo-Saxon Kings*, vol. ii. [J. R.]

Cape Breton, which lies to the east of Nova Scotia, and is now incorporated with it, was first discovered by Cabot in 1497, but remained practically uninhabited until 1714, when it was occupied by the French for fishing purposes; a few years later the town of Louisbourg was built, and the French established a regular settlement on the island, which formed a convenient basis for hostilities against Nova Scotia. In 1744, an attack was made upon Port Royal, the capital of Nova Scotia, by De Quesnay, the Governor of Cape Breton; the English, in retaliation, attacked and took Louisbourg, and held Cape Breton until the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748. In 1758 Louisbourg was again taken by the English under the command of Admiral Boscawen and General Wolfe, and all its fortifications destroyed. A few years afterwards, Cape Breton was created a separate colony, and Sydney, its present capital, was founded in 1820. However, it was incorporated with Nova Scotia, and has ever since that time remained a county.

R. Brown, *Hist. of Cape Breton*, 1869.

Cape Coast Castle. [West Africa.]

Cape Colony. [South Africa.]

Capgrave, John (*b.* 1393, *d.* 1464), was Prior of Lynn in Norfolk, and provincial of the order of Augustinian Friars in England. He wrote a *Chronicle of England* extending from the creation to the year 1417, and a work entitled *The Book of the Illustrious Henries*, which contains the lives of great men who have borne the name of Henry. Capgrave is one of our few contemporary authorities for the early part of the fifteenth century and reign of Henry VI., and his works are of some value. His *Chronicle* and *Book of the Illustrious Henries* have been edited, in the Rolls Series, by Mr. F. C. Hingeston.

Caradoc (Caractacus) (*d. circa* 54). A British chief, said to have been son of Cunobelin or Cymbeline. At the head of the Silurians of the West, Caradoc carried on a struggle of nine years against the Romans under Vespasian and Plautius. After sustaining frequent defeats, he was at length driven out of his own district and compelled to take refuge with the Brigantes, whose queen, Cartismandua (q.v.), delivered him up to Ostorius Scapula (A.D. 51). He was carried in chains to Rome, where his dignity and noble bearing are said to have induced the Emperor Claudius to order his release. His subsequent history is unknown.

Tacitus, *Annal.*, lib. xii., and *Hist.*, lib. iii.; Dio Cassius, lib. ix.

Carausius (*d.* 293) was a native of Batavia, and the first "Comes Littoris Saxonici." In this office he managed to accumulate great wealth, and, in 286, with the aid of some Frankish warriors, seized the great naval station of Gesoriacum, and proclaimed himself one of the Emperors of Rome. His talents enabled him to keep this position and maintain his power in Britain till 293, when he was murdered by his own officer, Allectus.

Carberry Hill (near Musselburgh) is the place where the forces of Bothwell and Queen Mary met those of the Confederate Lords, June 14, 1567. There was no actual collision, but Bothwell, seeing that his chances of victory were almost hopeless, made his

escape, while Mary surrendered herself to Kirkcaldy of Grange.

Cardwell, Edward, Viscount (*b.* 1813, *d.* 1886), was educated at Winchester, and Balliol College, Oxford, where he was elected fellow. He entered Parliament in 1842 as member for Clitheroe. He supported Sir R. Peel in the financial changes of 1845—46. He was Secretary to the Treasury from 1845—46, and President of the Board of Trade in Lord Aberdeen's administration. In 1859 he accepted the office of Chief Secretary for Ireland under Lord Palmerston, and was Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster from 1861 to 1864, when he became Secretary of State for the Colonies. In Dec., 1868, he became Secretary for War under Mr. Gladstone. In this capacity his name is associated with a very important reform of the British army. The increased demands of India, the striking success of the Prussian army reserve system in the war with Austria (1866) and the Franco-German War of 1870, combined to suggest the need of an increased army reserve. Mr. Cardwell provided this by shortening the term of service to twelve years—six "with the colours," six in the reserve; and "linked" the existing battalions in pairs, assigning to each pair, as a recruiting-ground, some county or district with which they had usually a traditional connection. A "military centre," or depôt, was formed for each such district, and the Militia and Volunteers also associated with it. It was during his tenure of office (in 1871) that the purchase of commissions, after the House of Lords had refused to abolish it, was done away with by royal warrant. He completed the competitive system in the army. His reforms, which destroyed the historical associations of the old (numbered) regiments, were violently opposed, but have since been fully justified. In 1874 he resigned with his colleagues, and was made a peer.

Carénage Bay, in St. Lucia. Here, in 1778, the French, under the Count d'Estaing, were defeated by the British, under Admiral Barrington and General Meadows.

Carew, Sir George (*d.* 1613?), secretary to Sir Christopher Hatton, was sent by Elizabeth as her ambassador to Poland, 1597, and by James I. to France, 1605—9. His *Relation of the State of France* was printed by Dr. Bird in 1749.

Carew, Sir Peter (*d.* 1575), of Mohun Ottery, in Devonshire, spent his boyhood at the court of France, and on his return to England entered the service of Henry VIII. On the outbreak of the Western rebellion, in 1549, Sir Peter and his brother were sent down to Devonshire with orders to crush the insurgents; they were, however, unable to make head against them until the arrival of reinforcements under Lord Russell and Lord Grey; in fact, the violence of the Carew party was said by Somerset to have widely extended the rebellion. After the defeat of the insurgents, Carew espoused the cause of Mary, whom he proclaimed in Devonshire, 1553. Very soon afterwards, however, he joined the anti-Spanish party, and was entrusted with the task of raising Devonshire, while Sir Thomas Wyatt was to raise Kent. His action, however, in the rebellion of 1549 had made him so unpopular with the country people that he was unable to do anything effectual against the government, and was compelled to seek an asylum in France for the remainder of Mary's reign. In 1560, Carew was appointed one of the commissioners to negotiate the Treaty of Leith (q.v.), and in the same year was entrusted with a mission to reorganise the army in Scotland. A few years later Sir Peter became one of the colonists of Munster, where many cruelties are attributed to him. He joined the expedition of Essex in 1575, but died the same year.

Carew's *Life*, by John Vowel, was edited by Mr. Maclean, Lond., 1857.

Cargill, Donald, one of the most extreme of the Covenanting clergy, was a chief promoter of the Sanquhar Declaration, 1680. For having excommunicated Charles II. and the Duke of York, he was, on his capture at Glasgow, taken to Edinburgh and executed, July 26, 1681. [Cameronians.]

Carleton, Sir Dudley. [Dorchester, Lord.]

Carleton, Guy. [Dorchester, Lord.]

Carleton, Henry Boyle, 1st Baron (*d.* 1725), was a leading Whig politician. In 1701 he was created Lord Chancellor and Under Treasurer of the Exchequer. He was one of those who opposed the "tacking" of the Occasional Conformity Bill. He was employed by Godolphin to request Addison to write a poem on the battle of Blenheim; the result of his negotiations being *The Campaign*. In 1707 he was made Secretary of State. He was one of the managers of Sacheverell's trial, and in consequence of that ill-advised step was compelled to resign his office. On the accession of George I., Boyle was raised to the peerage, and created Lord President of the Council, an office he held until his death. "He was," says Budgell, "endowed with great prudence and winning address; his long experience in public affairs gave him a thorough knowledge of business."

Budgell's *Lives of the Boyles.*

Carlisle was probably a Roman station, and has been identified with Luguvallum in the Itinerary of Antoninus, from which, indeed, the name has been derived—Caer-Luel. The town was sacked by the Danes in 875, and rebuilt with a strong castle by William Rufus. It was held by the Scots during their tenure of Cumberland, and the beginning of the great church of St. Mary's is attributed to

David I., King of Scotland. Subsequently it was frequently besieged in the course of the border wars, one of the most celebrated sieges being the unsuccessful one by William the Lion (1173). The place surrendered to Charles Edward in 1745, and the mayor and corporation proclaimed him king. The cathedral, begun in the reign of William Rufus, was partly destroyed by Cromwell in 1648.

Carlisle, George William, 7th Earl of (*b.* 1802, *d.* 1864), was educated at Eton and Christ Church. In 1826 he accompanied his uncle, the Duke of Devonshire, on his visit to Russia at the coronation of the Emperor Nicholas. He was afterwards returned to the House of Commons for the family seat of Morpeth, and one of his earliest speeches was in defence of the character of the Russian emperor. During the agitation of the Reform Bill he enlisted on the side of Earl Grey, and on the dissolution of Parliament which followed the success of General Gascoyne's motion, he was returned for Yorkshire, which seat he held till the passing of the Reform Bill in 1832. He was Chief Secretary for Ireland from 1835 to 1841, and Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster from 1849 to 1851. In 1855 he became Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, and began a career of popularity almost without parallel among Irish viceroys. A change in the government removed him for a short time; but he returned again in 1859, and held this office till the summer of 1864, when illness compelled him to lay it down.

Carlisle, Lucy, Countess of (*b.* 1599, *d.* 1660), was the daughter of Henry Percy, ninth Earl of Northumberland. In 1617 she was married to the Earl of Carlisle, who died in 1636. She was a favourite attendant of Queen Henrietta Maria, and is supposed to have been Strafford's mistress. After his death she became the *confidante*, and it was said the mistress, of Pym, to whom she betrayed all the secrets of the court, and it was by her that he was made acquainted with the king's desire to arrest the Five Members in January, 1642. In 1648 she seems to have assisted the Royalists with money towards raising a fleet to attack England, and on the Restoration she was received at court, and employed herself in intriguing for the return of Queen Henrietta to England, which was opposed by Clarendon and others. Very soon after the queen's return she died suddenly.

Carlisle, The Statute of (1307), passed by Edward I. in Parliament, after he had previously obtained the consent of the barons to it in 1305, was intended to prevent the drain of English gold to Rome by clerical exactions. It forbade the payment of tallages on monastic property, and rendered illegal other imposts by which money was to be sent out of the country. Though never acted upon, this statute is most important as the precedent on which the Acts of Provisors and Præmunire and the whole series of anti-papal assertions of English independence were based.

Statutes of the Realm, i. 150.

Carlow, the seat of one of the great castles founded by the Norman conquerors of Ireland, was often taken and retaken in the rebellion of 1641. In July, 1650, it was occupied by the Royalists, and after a short siege taken by the Parliamentarians, under Sir Hardress Waller. On May 25, 1798, a skirmish took place between the royal troops and the rebels, of whom 400 were killed.

Carnarvon, Henry Howard Molyneux Herbert, 4th Earl of (*b.* 1831, *d.* 1890), was Colonial Under Secretary of State in Lord Derby's second administration, 1858—9, and Secretary of State for the Colonies in Lord Derby's third administration, 1866. He resigned on account of a difference of opinion respecting Parliamentary Reform, in 1867. In Mr. Disraeli's cabinet in 1874 he was again Colonial Secretary. In 1878 he resigned upon the Eastern question. In 1885 he became Lord Lieutenant of Ireland in Lord Salisbury's first administration, resigning in January, 1886. Here his policy was conciliatory, and he even secretly approached Parnell on the subject of Home Rule. But in this, as he subsequently made clear, he did not profess to speak for his colleagues.

Carnatic was the name formerly given to the district in south-eastern India extending along the coast from the Guntoor Circar to Cape Comorin. In the middle of the eighteenth century the country was governed by the Nabob of the Carnatic at Arcot. It was cut up, however, in the south by the Mahratta kingdom of Tanjore, the British and French settlements, and the almost independent districts of the Polygars of Madura, Tinnevelly, &c. It was feudally subject to the Viceroy, or Nizam, of the Deccan. In 1743 Anwur-ud-Deen was appointed Nabob by the Nizam-ul-Mulk. On his death the succession was disputed between Chunda Sahib, who was assisted by the French, and Mohammed Ali, who was supported by the English. The latter succeeded in establishing their nominee as Nabob over the greater part of the Carnatic; but both he and his son, Omdut-ul-Omrah, who succeeded in 1795, failed to regain their independence. The discovery of their correspondence with Tippoo Sahib (q.v.) determined Lord Wellesley on annexing the country. On the death of Omdut-ul-Omrah, therefore, an arrangement was made (1801) with Azim-ul-Omrah, his nephew, to the effect that the entire civil and military government of the state should be resigned to the Company, and

one-fifth of the revenue should be reserved for his support. On his death, in 1825, the title was continued to his infant son, and on the death of the latter, childless, in 1853, the title was extinguished.

Carne, Sir Edward (*d.* 1561), was a graduate of Oxford, where he became Doctor of Civil Law in 1524. He was frequently employed as envoy to various foreign princes by Henry VIII. In 1530 he was sent by the king to Rome to argue against the citation of Henry to appear at the Papal Court. He frequently represented the English sovereign at Rome under Mary, and in the earlier years of Elizabeth's reign; but was finally detained by Paul IV. at Rome, and compelled to become governor of the English Hospital there. This was declared to be a gross violation of the privilege of an ambassador; but it is probable that Sir Edward, who disliked the religious changes of Elizabeth, was a willing captive.

Caroline, Queen (*b.* 1683, *d.* 1737), wife of King George II., was the daughter of John Frederick, Margrave of Brandenburg Anspach. In the year 1705 she married Prince George of Hanover, over whom, in spite of his immorality, she maintained the greatest influence during his life. During the quarrels of her husband and his father, she retained her influence over the first without forfeiting the esteem of the second. In 1727 she was crowned with her husband. When Walpole was displaced from power, at the commencement of the reign, she espoused his cause, being persuaded of his financial abilities, and attracted by the jointure of £100,000 a year he secured in her favour. She therefore persuaded the king that Compton was unfitted for the post of minister. During her life she continued the firm friend of Walpole, and upheld his policy of peace at home and abroad. She was deeply mortified when he was obliged to relinquish his Excise scheme. In 1737 she reprieved Porteous, who was condemned for firing on the crowd at Edinburgh. On the outbreak of the quarrel between Frederick, Prince of Wales, and her husband, she violently espoused the cause of the latter. In consequence, she and her son were on extremely bad terms, and the queen often expressed a wish for the prince's death. Her influence over the king continued unimpaired till the end of her life, and on her death-bed the monarch gave a rather curious testimony of it. The dying queen besought her husband to marry again. "Non," answered the sobbing prince, "j'aurai des maîtresses." "Oh, mon Dieu!" was the reply; "cela n'empêche pas." Caroline was a woman of considerable intellectual ability. She knew something of philosophy and theology, and affected the character of patroness of literature and poetry. She took creditable pains to get the higher posts in the Church filled by men of learning and character. She was a valuable ally of Walpole, and materially assisted him in carrying out his policy.

The best account of the queen is gained from Hervey's *Memoirs.* See also Horace Walpole, *Memoirs,* and Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*

Caroline of Brunswick, Queen, wife of George IV. (*b.* 1768, *d.* 1821), was the daughter of Duke Charles William Frederick of Brunswick, who died after the battles of Jena and Auerstadt, 1806, and sister of Duke William Frederick, who was killed at the battle of Ligny, 1815. Her mother, Augusta, was daughter of Prince Frederick of Wales, and sister of George III. At the age of twenty-seven the princess was married to George, Prince of Wales, afterwards Regent and king. A more unfortunate choice could not have been made. The prince was already married to Mrs. FitzHerbert, and although that marriage was considered void under the Royal Marriage Act, he was averse to contracting any other similar tie. The princess had been badly brought up, was clever, but uneducated and undisciplined, impulsive and indiscreet, with a good heart, but devoid of regulating judgment. The marriage took place on April 8, 1795. A daughter, afterwards Princess Charlotte of Wales, was born on January 7, 1796. Even before this the prince had treated his wife so badly as to call forth a remonstrance from his father. He now wrote, on April 30, 1796, to say that they were to live apart. This repudiation of his wife without any reason except personal dislike, within a year of their marriage, is sufficient to account for, and almost to excuse, any conduct of which she might afterwards have been guilty. Matters remained thus for the next ten years. The princess lived quietly at Blackheath. In the year 1806 rumours were set afloat that the conduct of the princess had been improper. She always had a fancy for children, and before her death had adopted half-a-dozen. At this time she had adopted a child named William Austin, and scandal said she was his mother. A delicate investigation was ordered, evidence was laboriously collected, and a report laid before the king. The report acquitted the princess of improper conduct, but seemed to fix upon her the charge of indiscretion. Assisted by Perceval and others, she vigorously defended herself, and was entirely acquitted by a Minute of Council in 1807. Princess Charlotte of Wales was heir to the crown. As a child she had been allowed to see her mother regularly, but as she was growing up the permission began to be refused. Canning and Brougham arrayed themselves on the side of Caroline. She had the whole force of popular opinion with her, for the prince was very much disliked, and the wrongs of the princess were calculated to

touch the heart of the multitude. The queen took a strong dislike to her, and about 1813 she was forbidden to attend the royal drawing-room. In June, 1814, she went abroad, with an allowance of £35,000 a year. She went first to Brunswick, and then to Switzerland and Italy. Her conduct was very eccentric, and her suite gradually left her, upon which she fell into the hands of an Italian family named Bergami. She went to Jerusalem, and then returned to Italy, living at the Villa d'Este, on the Lake of Como. On January 29, 1820, George IV. succeeded to the throne, and his wife assumed the title of queen. Before this a commission had been sent out to Milan to collect evidence of the queen's conduct during her sojourn at the Villa d'Este. The king ordered her name to be omitted from the Liturgy, and forbade royal honours to be paid her at foreign courts. The queen, finding herself thus treated at Rome, determined to come to England. Immediately after her arrival steps for bringing her to trial were taken. On November 6 a Bill of Pains and Penalties, the proceedings in connection with which are popularly known as the Queen's "trial," was passed in the House of Lords by a majority of twenty-six, but on the third reading the majority was only nine, and it was withdrawn. This result was received with general delight throughout the country. On November 29 the queen went in procession to St. Paul's, to return thanks for her deliverance from a great peril and affliction. In the next session of Parliament she accepted a pension of £50,000 a year from the government, and from that time her popularity gradually declined. In 1821 George IV. determined to be crowned with great pomp in Westminster Hall. The queen claimed, according to ancient precedent, to share the ceremony with him. At an early hour on the morning of the coronation the queen set out with a coach and six. She had no ticket of admittance, and was repulsed by the officials. As she retreated the jeers of the crowd followed her. This was on July 19, and she died on August 7. However much she may have been deficient in moral dignity, we may feel convinced that there was no foundation for the grave charges brought against her character; and for the lighter indiscretions of her life her education and the treatment of her husband are quite sufficient both to account and to atone.

Pauli, *Englische Geschichte zeit 1815*; Spencer Walpole, *Hist. of Eng. since 1815*; *The Greville Memoirs*; G. Rose, *Diary*; Duke of Buckingham, *Memoirs of the Court of the Regency*.

[O. B.]

Carstares, William (*b.* 1649, *d.* 1715), was educated at Utrecht, where he became acquainted with William III. He was accused of being implicated in the Rye House Plot, and was tortured at Edinburgh. After the Revolution, he acquired great influence with William, to whom he acted as a sort of unofficial secretary for Scotch affairs. The king appointed Carstares his chaplain in Scotland. In 1704 he became Principal of Edinburgh University, and was one of the active supporters of the Union. "Sprung of that respectable middle class," says Mr. Burton, "to whom it has been in a manner the peculiar pride of the Scots priesthood to belong, he rose to hold in his hands the destinies of the proudest heads of the proud feudal houses of Scotland." Carstares was a man of undoubted ability, and is honourably distinguished among the public men of his age by his firmness and honesty. A volume of his *State Papers and Letters* was published in 1774, and is of considerable value as illustrating Scottish affairs during the Revolution.

M'Cormick, *Life of Carstares* prefixed to the *State Papers*; Story, *Character and Career of William Carstares*, 1874; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; and Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*.

Carte, Thomas (*b.* 1686, *d.* 1754), born at Clifton, studied at Oxford, and entered the Church. He was a strong partisan of the Stuarts. He declined to take the oath to George I., and abandoned the priesthood; and, being suspected of complicity in the Jacobite plots of 1715 and 1722, he was obliged to flee to France, where he resided for twelve years. He was the author of a *Life of James, Duke of Ormonde*, 3 vols. folio; and a *History of England* to the year 1654. Both are valuable works, showing much learning and industry on the part of the author, though his strong Stuart partisanship is very marked, especially in the life of Ormonde.

Carteret, Lord. [Granville, John Carteret, Earl.]

Carthusians, The, one of the regular monastic orders, was an offshoot of the Benedictines, instituted at Chartreuse near Grenoble, by Bruno of Cologne, in 1080. The rule resembled that of the Benedictines, but was much more rigorous and austere. The Carthusians came into England about 1180; but they failed to make much way in the country. There were only nine monasteries of the order in England: the Charterhouse (the name, of course, is a corruption for Chartreuse) in London, and those at Witham, Henton, Beauval, St. Anne's Coventry, Kingston-on-Hull, Mountgrace, Eppworth, and Shene. There were no Carthusian nunneries in England.

Cartismandua was the Queen of the Brigantes, from whom Caractacus, after his defeat by the Romans (A.D. 51), sought shelter and assistance, and by whom he was treacherously betrayed to his enemies. [Caradoc.] According to Tacitus, Cartismandua quitted her husband, Venusius, and married his armour-bearer, Vellocatus. Venusius drove her from her territories, and forced her to seek an asylum

in the camp of the Romans, who marched into the district and took possession of it.

Tacitus, *Annal.*, xii. 36, 40; *Hist.* iii. 45.

Cartwright, THOMAS (*b.* 1535, *d.* 1603), the leader of the Church of England party in Elizabeth's reign which advocated the abolition of episcopacy, was educated at Cambridge, whence he was compelled to withdraw during the Marian persecution. On the accession of Elizabeth he returned, and acquired great reputation as a preacher, becoming so active a supporter of a Presbyterian polity and so determined an opponent of episcopacy that he was prohibited from occupying the pulpit, and expelled from the university. In 1572 he published his *Admonition to Parliament* (q.v.), and was drawn into a long controversy with Archbishop Whitgift. In 1584 he was imprisoned by order of Bishop Aylmer, but released by the queen. In 1590, after the death of his patron, Leicester, Cartwright was examined by the Court of Star Chamber, and sent to the Fleet Prison, "for setting up a new discipline and a new form of worship," remaining in confinement for nearly two years.

Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops.*

Carucage was a tax on every carucate or hundred acres of land, and was first imposed over the whole country by Richard I. in 1198, when the tax was five shillings. John, in the first year of his reign, fixed it at three shillings. A carucate was originally as much land as could be ploughed by one team in a season, but it afterwards became fixed at one hundred acres.

Cashel, THE SYNOD OF (1172), was a great assembly of the Irish Church, attended by all the archbishops and bishops. The ecclesiastical disorders, which had formed one at least of the causes which led to the Bull of Pope Adrian, and the invasion of Ireland by Henry II., were condemned. Thus the marriage of the clergy was forbidden, the tithe introduced, the appropriation of benefices by laymen, and levying of cashery on the clergy abolished. In other ways, too, the Roman discipline and the authority of the Pope were recognised.

Giraldus Cambrensis, *De Expugnat. Hibern.*

Casket Letters are a celebrated collection of documents, supposed to be the correspondence between Bothwell and Mary Stuart. Bothwell left in Edinburgh Castle a casket containing some papers, for which he sent after his flight from Carberry Hill. His messenger was intercepted whilst returning, and the casket and its contents fell into the hands of the Earl of Morton. On a letter from the queen to Bothwell contained in it, the charge that she was an accomplice in Darnley's murder was founded. The letters were laid before the Scotch Council of Government, and the Scotch Parliament adjudged the charge proved (Dec. 1567). They were again produced before the English Commissioners at Westminster, compared with other writings of the queen's, with which they corresponded (Dec., 1568). The letters descended from one Scottish regent to another, and finally passed into the hands of the Earl of Gowrie. After his execution (1584) they disappeared. They had, however, been translated into different languages and published. Mary continually asserted them to be forgeries, and demanded first to see the originals, then to be provided with copies. Neither of these requests was granted. An argument in favour of the theory that the letters were forgeries is furnished by the fact that the two most criminatory letters were evidently originally written in Scotch, and the copies published were a translation of this Scotch original into French. But Mary, until after her flight into England, always used the French language in her letters. Therefore the conclusion is that she could not have written these letters. But the question of the genuineness of non-existent documents is naturally difficult to solve. Amongst English historians, Froude, Burton, and Laing believe the letters genuine; Caird and Hosack take the opposite view. Of foreign writers on the subject, Ranke, Pauli, Mignet, and Gaedeke accept the letters, whilst Schiern, Philippson, Gauthier, and Chantelauze, deny their authenticity.

Gauthier, *Marie Stuart*; Mignet, *Marie Stuart*; Schiern, *Bothwell*; Philippson, *West Europa im Zeitalter von Philipp II.*

Cassiterides, THE, or Tin Islands, first mentioned by Herodotus, and alluded to by Polybius and other early writers, are generally identified with the Scilly Isles; but under the name Cassiterides it is very probable that the adjacent parts of Devon and Cornwall were included. [SCILLY ISLES.]

Elton, *Origins of Eng. Hist.*

Cassivellaunus (CASWALLON), at the time of Cæsar's second invasion of Britain (B.C. 54), was chief of the Cassi, and had shortly before usurped the sovereignty of the Trinobantes and murdered the lawful king. The Roman invasion drove the tribes of the south-east of Britain to form a league, at the head of which Cassivellaunus was placed. For a short time he succeeded in repelling the Romans, but his stronghold being captured, and the other tribes having deserted him, he submitted to Cæsar, gave up the country of the Trinobantes to Mandubratius, son of the late king, and contented himself with keeping his own domains. After the departure of Cæsar we hear nothing more of Cassivellaunus.

Castillon, THE BATTLE OF (1453), was the last engagement in the Hundred Years' War between England and France. In 1452 the Gascons rose against the French, and besought aid from England. Talbot, Earl of

Shrewsbury, was sent out, and was at first very successful. In June, 1453, hearing that the French were besieging Castillon, a fortress on the Dordogne, he marched with a small force to relieve it, but the French were stronger than he imagined, and he was defeated and slain. With his death all the hopes of the English were at an end.

Castlebar Races (1798). The name given to the engagement fought near Castlebar on August 26, 1798, during the French raid on Ireland. Generals Lake and Hutchinson, with 2,000 Irish militia, a large body of yeomanry, and Lord Roden's fencibles, advanced against General Humbert, who had landed at Killala on the 17th of the month. Humbert had with him 800 French troops, and about 1,000 of the Irish rebels. The militia, however, would not stand their ground, and at once ran; and the yeomanry following, Lake's guns were taken, and Roden's horse were unable to save the day. Of Lake's men fifty-three were killed and thirty-four wounded; the French loss was heavier, but they took fourteen guns and 200 prisoners, and the town of Castlebar fell into the hands of the insurgents, with whom it remained for about a fortnight, till the surrender of Humbert at Ballinamuck, on September 8th.

Castlereagh, Viscount. [Londonderry.]

Castles, of which there are remains of nearly 500 in England alone, belong chiefly to the period between the Norman Conquest and the middle of the fourteenth century. It is true that strong places were fortified by Alfred and his successors; but these would rarely be more than a mound and a ditch, with wooden tower and palisade; and Domesday, which mentions forty-nine castles, gives only one stone castle, viz., Arundel, as existing under the Confessor. They were a Norman product, even when, as at Hereford and Warwick, strong earthworks in place of masonry show that the Norman builder used an existing English fortress. They are identical in type with the great castles of Normandy, and keep pace with them in development. Thus the essential point of the Norman castle is the massive rectangular keep, with walls as much as 20 feet thick, and, as at Rochester, over 100 feet high, with its stairs, chapel, chambers, kitchen, well—making it complete in itself as a last resort. The base court in the castles built immediately after the Norman Conquest (*e.g.*, Oxford, London, Newcastle) was for some years left to the protection of a stockade. When this was replaced by circuit walls, with a strong gatehouse, we have complete the Norman system of fortification by solid works of great passive strength. The "Edwardian" castle (*e.g.*, Carnarvon) exhibits a system, which completely superseded this, of concentric works, with skilful arrangement of parts, so as to include a far larger area. Such a castle as Bamborough could accommodate a large garrison with stores, horses, and cattle, and could be stormed only in detail. The duke in Normandy had exercised the right of holding a garrison in the castles of his barons, and the Norman kings of England jealously maintained the requirement of a royal licence for their erection. Of the forty-nine in Domesday, thirty were built by the Conqueror himself. In the anarchy of Stephen's days, 375 were built, or, according to Ralph de Diceto, 1,115. Henry II., on his accession, had to besiege and recover for the crown the "adulterine" castles; and after the revolt of 1173 it became a definite policy of the crown to keep down their numbers, and have a voice in the appointment of castellans. One of the first steps of the barons of 1258 was to substitute nineteen of themselves for the alien favourites as guardians of the royal castles, and the last stand of the defeated party was made in De Montfort's castle of Kenilworth from Oct., 1265, to Dec., 1266. After this the castles ceased to be a menace to royal power. The Edwardian castles were chiefly national defences on the coast or the Welsh and Scotch Marches. The number of licences to "crenellate and tenellate" rises to its height in the reigns of Edward II. and Edward III.; the Commons in 1371 even petition that leave to do this may be given freely for all men's houses and for the walls of boroughs. But these were castellated mansions rather than true castles. In them the keep sinks to a guardhouse, the walls are less solid, the windows are adapted to convenience rather than defence. However, under the Stuarts such fortified mansions proved capable of standing a siege. But the last castles are not later than Tudor times, and even the "Peel" towers, for defence against the Scots, fell into ruin after the union of the kingdoms. The castles had been a heavy cost and trouble to the crown. Bridgnorth alone had cost in repairs £213 during Henry II.'s reign; the Constable of Bridgnorth besides was paid 40 marks salary; and the jurors of 1258 declared it required £20 a year to keep it up in time of peace. The tenure of castle guard, at the rate of forty days' service for a knight's fee, commuted often for a mark on the fee, was a burden vexatious both to nobles and gentry. Some castles, like Lancaster and Richmond, were associated with a quasi-royal jurisdiction over the district. In others the lords would be only too ready to arrogate such rights. Many, no doubt, like Bridgnorth, served as centres of tyranny, even when in royal hands. And this tendency probably accounts for the frequent changes made by the crown in the persons chosen as royal constables, and for the fact that Edward I. finds it necessary, even after Henry II.'s determined assertion of royal rights, to make the *Quo Warranto* inquiry into the jurisdictions claimed by each of his barons.

It is only by closely tracing the local history of some one great castle that the justice can be realised of Matthew Paris's description of them as "nests of devils and dens of thieves," or the bitter words of the contemporary English monk of Peterborough on the castles of Stephen's reign:—"They filled the land full of castles, and when they were finished, filled them with devils and evil men; . . . then they tortured men and women for their gold and silver; . . . then plundered they and burned all the towns; . . . they spared neither church nor churchyard; . . . they robbed the monks and the clergy; . . . the earth bare no corn; the land was all ruined by such deeds; and it was said openly that Christ slept and His saints." The castles of England, on many sides illustrate the national history. Berkeley has its story of royal tragedy, Kenilworth of constitutional struggle, Carlisle of border romance. The names of Montgomery and Balliol and Granville recall the baronial families who brought into England the titles of their Norman castles. And the immense households which the later spirit of chivalry gathered together into Alnwick, or Lancaster, or Warwick made the castle of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries a local centre of vast social influence, even when the days of its military and constitutional domination had passed away.

Viollet-le-Duc, *Essay on Military Architecture*; J. H. Parker, *Domestic Architecture*; G. T. Clark in *Archæolog. Journal*, i. 93, xxiv. 92; King, *Munimenta Antiqua*; the *Registrum de Richmunde*; Selden, *Titles of Honour*; Madox, *Baronia Anglica*; Dugdale, *Baronage of England*; *Lords' Report on the Dignity of a Peer*, 1825-9, 2nd Report, pt. i.; and the good county histories, such as Surtees, *Durham*, Eyton, *Shropshire*, &c. [A. L. S.]

Cateau Cambresis, The Treaty of (April 2, 1559), was concluded between France, Spain, and England after the accession of Elizabeth. The chief difficulty in bringing about the peace had been the question of Calais, which the French were determined to keep. Finally it was arranged that the French should keep the town for eight years, and then restore it. The French gave up their claims on Milan and Naples; they also agreed to evacuate and raze the fortresses they had built on the Scottish border, and to give substantial bonds for the restitution of Calais. The Dauphin and Dauphiness were to confirm the treaty, and to agree to recognise Elizabeth's right to the English crown.

The treaty is given in Rymer, *Fœdera*, xv. 505.

Catesby, William (*d.* 1485), one of Richard III.'s ministers, was Speaker of the House of Commons in 1484, and seems to have owed his rise to Lord Hastings, of whom he was at first a close follower, though he afterwards deserted his cause when Hastings fell under the displeasure of Richard. He was taken at the battle of Bosworth and put to death by the orders of Henry VII. The three principal advisers of Richard III.—Catesby, Sir Richard Ratcliff, and Lord Lovel, are held up to opprobrium with him in the well-known contemporary rhyme:—

"The Cat, the Rat, and Lovel the Dog,
Rule all England under the Hog."

Cathedral is properly the chief church of the diocese, in which the bishop's seat was established. The ecclesiastical organisation on the Continent generally followed the lines of the political organisation of the Roman Empire. The province usually became the diocese, and the church of the provincial capital became the seat of the bishop. In England, however, Christianity was largely brought by missionaries, who lived together under monastic rules. Hence, among others, many of the English cathedrals—*e.g.*, Worcester—were originally monastery churches, over which a bishop was set. In other cases the bishop was set over a district, and chose his own cathedral church. Hence the bishops' seats were frequently changed, till after the Norman Conquest they were ordered to be fixed in cities and walled towns. Thus, among others, the older cathedrals of Sherborne, Selsey, and Dorchester gave place to those of Salisbury, Chichester, and Lincoln. [Bishopric.] English cathedrals were of two classes, according to their origin. The clergy attached to them were in some cases monks, in others secular canons. In the first case the bishop reckoned as abbot of the monastery, in the second case he was the head of his chapter. In both cases, however, the secular and official duties of the bishop tended to sever him from his cathedral, and the chapter took possession of it. The dean became more powerful than the absent bishop, who was gradually driven from his own church, and retained little save a visitatorial power over his chapter. The annals of most mediæval episcopates are full of the quarrels between the bishop and the monks or chapter, leading to constant appeals to Rome and a diminution of the episcopal authority. In the reign of Henry VIII., after the suppression of the monasteries, the monastic cathedrals were re-modelled. These "cathedrals of the new foundation" are Canterbury, Carlisle, Durham, Ely, Norwich, Rochester, Winchester, and Worcester. The bishoprics founded by Henry VIII.—Bristol, Chester, Gloucester, Oxford, Peterborough, and Westminster—were provided with cathedrals after the same model. Westminster, though it lost its bishop, has retained its dean and its position as a cathedral church. In recent times new bishoprics have been founded, and the bishop's seat established in old collegiate and parish churches, which have been turned into cathedrals at Manchester, Ripon, Liverpool, St. Albans, Newcastle, Southwell, Southwark, and Birmingham. [Chapter.]

Walcott, *Cathedralia;* Freeman, *Cathedral Church of Wells*, and *Norm. Conq.*, iv. 414—420; *Diocesan Histories*, published by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge. [M. C.]

Catherine of Aragon, Queen, first wife of Henry VIII. (*b.* 1485, *d.* 1536), was the youngest of the four daughters of Ferdinand, King of Aragon, and Isabella, Queen of Castile. The foreign policy of Henry VII. was based on a renewal and development of the traditional mediæval alliance between England and the Spanish kingdoms. Hence, as early as 1492 a treaty was made between the two monarchs to cement their friendship by intermarriage. In 1498, Arthur, the eldest son of Henry VII., was contracted to Catherine by proxy, and in 1501, when Arthur was fifteen years old, Catherine was sent to England. The marriage was then celebrated in St. Paul's Cathedral; but four months afterwards Arthur died. It was agreed that Catherine should be married to Henry, Arthur's younger brother. A papal dispensation was obtained to legalise such a marriage, and a contract of marriage was made. When Henry VIII. ascended the throne, in 1509, his first act was to marry Catherine. He was then eighteen years old, and she was twenty-four. Catherine was not handsome, but she was lively, of an amiable disposition, well-informed, and devoted to her husband. Her married life was at first happy. But of her three sons and two daughters, all died in infancy except Mary. She ceased to bear children, and showed the effects of advancing years much more than did Henry VIII. She had lost Henry's affections, but still retained his esteem, when Anne Boleyn appeared upon the scene. With the growth of the king's attachment to Anne scruples about the validity of his marriage with Catherine arose in his mind. In 1527 these scruples went so far that he consulted with Cardinal Wolsey how to obtain a divorce. Throughout the complicated negotiations for that purpose Catherine, alone and friendless as she was, preserved a firm and dignified attitude. She was submissive to Henry's will on all small points, but refused to make any admissions which might facilitate a divorce. She stood upon the justice of her cause, and, though Wolsey and the papal nuncio, Campeggio, plied her in every way, she remained firm. On June 1, 1529, she and the king appeared before the legate at Windsor. Catherine refused to admit the jurisdiction of the court, saying she had appealed to Rome. The Pope, Clement VII., being in the power of the Emperor Charles V., who was Catherine's nephew, was driven to receive the appeal and advoke the case to Rome. Wolsey had failed, and his disgrace followed. Still Henry patiently pursued his object of obtaining a divorce from Rome; as this became more improbable, he attempted to intimidate the Pope. In 1531 Catherine was ordered to leave Windsor; she retired to Ampthill, and was no longer treated as queen. She still remained firm in her position that she was the king's wife by lawful marriage, and would so abide till the court of Rome shall have made thereof an end." But Henry VIII. made an end his own way. On March 30, 1533, Cranmer was made Archbishop of Canterbury. He cited Catherine to appear before him at Dunstable. Catherine paid no heed to his citation, and was pronounced contumacious. On May 23 Cranmer gave his decision that the marriage was null and void from the beginning, as contracted in defiance of the Divine prohibition. From this time Catherine was styled in England the Dowager Princess of Wales. At Easter, 1534, Pope Clement VII. pronounced Henry's marriage with Catherine to be lawful, and ordered the king to take back his legitimate wife. Henry VIII. replied by an Act of Parliament declaring the marriage unlawful, and making it treason to question the lawfulness of his marriage with Anne Boleyn. Catherine lived in retirement in one of the royal manors. Henry VIII. did not cease to endeavour to procure from her submission to his will, but she constantly asserted the lawfulness of her marriage. She died at Kimbolton in January, 1536, and on her deathbed wrote Henry a letter assuring him of her forgiveness, and commending to his care their daughter Mary. By Henry's orders she was buried with becoming pomp in the abbey church of Peterborough, which was soon after erected into a cathedral.

The *State Papers* of Henry VIII.'s reign; J. S. Brewer, *The Reign of Henry VIII.*; Froude, *History of England;* Strickland, *Lives of the Queens of England.* [M. C.]

Catherine of Braganza, Queen, wife of Charles II. (*b.* 1638, *d.* 1705), was the daughter of John, King of Portugal. She was married to Charles II. in 1662. Her married life seems not to have been happy, owing to her husband's infidelities and the harshness and neglect with which he treated her. She mixed very little in politics, and, though a sincere Roman Catholic, never made any real attempts to get Romanism re-established in England. Notwithstanding this, she was accused by Titus Oates of plotting against the king's life, but the informer's equivocations were detected by Charles, and the charge was dropped. After her husband's death she lived quietly in England till 1692, when she returned to her native country, where she spent the rest of her life.

Catherine of France, Queen, wife of Henry V. (*b.* 1401, *d.* 1438), was the daughter of Charles VI. In 1420 she was married to Henry V., in accordance with the terms of the Treaty of Troyes. By him she had only one son, Henry VI. In 1423 she took for her second husband Owen Tudor, a Welsh

gentleman attached to the court, "the smallness of whose estate was recompenced by the delicacy of his person, being every way a very compleat gentleman." By him she had three sons, the eldest of whom, Edmund Tudor, was the father of Henry VII. [TUDORS.]

Catherine Howard, QUEEN, fifth wife of Henry VIII. (*b.* ?1522, *d.* 1542), was the daughter of Lord Edmund Howard, the son of the Duke of Norfolk. Educated under the care of the Dowager Duchess of Norfolk, she early developed a taste for levity and frivolity. Henry VIII. was captivated by her beauty and vivacity, and married her, July 28, 1540. But the levity which had marked her before her marriage continued afterwards, and there can be little doubt that she was guilty of improper conduct with at least one of her former lovers, Derham. In Nov., 1541, she was charged with adultery, and sent to the Tower. On Dec. 10 two of her paramours, Derham and Culpepper, were beheaded. In 1542 a Bill of Attainder against her was passed; and on Feb. 12 following she was executed. Immediately afterwards a bill was passed making it high treason for any woman whom the king married or sought in marriage to conceal any questionable circumstances in her past life.

Strickland, *Queens of England.*

Catherine Parr, QUEEN, sixth wife of Henry VIII. (*b.* 1512, *d.* 1548), daughter of Sir Thomas Parr, was connected by birth with the Nevilles and other great families. She was carefully educated, and married, at an unusually early age, to Edward, Lord Borough, who left her a widow, and in her sixteenth year she was married, for the second time, to John Neville, Lord Latimer, with whom she lived happily for several years. During this period she became greatly attached to the doctrines of the Reformers. Lord Latimer died in 1542, and Catherine was besieged by many suitors. She was beautiful, and famed for her accomplishments, and her husband's death had left her in possession of one of the finest properties in the kingdom. The most favoured of her suitors was Sir Thomas Seymour, who, however, prudently withdrew his pretensions when the king cast his eyes upon the lady. In July, 1543, she was married to Henry, and this, unlike the king's previous matrimonial alliances, excited no dissatisfaction among any class of his subjects. In the very difficult position of queen she acted with great prudence. She ministered to the growing bodily infirmities of the king, and endeared herself to his children. But there is no doubt that she was a sincere and, as far as prudence allowed her, an active supporter of the Reformers. In spite of her great caution, Henry conceived a mistrust of her theological learning, and was prevailed upon by Bishop Gardiner to sign articles of impeachment against her, and to order her arrest; but Catherine's skilful management succeeded in averting the danger. It is probable, however, that Henry was meditating a fresh charge of treason against her when he was overtaken by death. Almost immediately after this event Catherine married her former suitor, Sir Thomas Seymour of Sudeley, the Lord High Admiral. Her husband, however, neglected her, and had obviously fixed his affections on the Princess Elizabeth. The union was unhappy, and in August, 1548, she died in childbirth. From some words spoken by Catherine during her last illness, it has been supposed that Seymour poisoned her; but there is no evidence to confirm the suspicion. Catherine was the author of a volume of *Prayers and Meditations*, and a tract called, *The Lamentations of a Sinner*, which is written with a good deal of vigour, and in parts with some genuine eloquence.

Strype, *Memorials;* Strickland, *Queens of England.*

Catholic Association, THE, was founded by Daniel O'Connell in 1823. It embraced all classes, and was really representative in character, though not nominally so. It received petitions, appointed committees, ordered a census of the Catholic population, and collected the *Catholic Rent*. This was a subscription raised all over Ireland by means of officers called Wardens, appointed by the Association. O'Connell managed all the money that came in, without accounting for it to any one. In 1825 Parliament attempted to put down the Association by means of the *Convention Bill*, but the Association dissolved itself before the Bill came into force. This, however, was merely in appearance; as a matter of fact, it continued to exist, and the Catholic Rent was still raised. In 1829, after the victory won at the Clare election, the Convention Bill having expired, the old Association was renewed, and it declared that none but Catholics should in future be elected for Irish constituencies. The members also began to assemble at monster meetings, to which they marched in military array; but a proclamation against these meetings was obeyed by the Association. When the Emancipation Act was passed it was accompanied by a measure for suppressing the Association. But, its object being fulfilled, the Association was dissolved before the Bill became law. Sheil and Wyre were the leaders, next to the "Liberator" himself.

Catholic Committee, THE, was an association of some of the leading Catholics in Ireland, which was established in the reign of William III., and was intended to watch over Catholic interests. The Committee became extremely active during the agitation of the last quarter of the eighteenth century. In 1791 there was a split in the Committee, the bishops and the noblemen, like Lord

Fingal and Lord Kenmare, separating from the more violent party; the latter pressed for instant emancipation, while the former were willing to wait. The violent party determined on a convention, and on an alliance with the United Irishmen, under Byrne and Keogh. The consequence was the Back Lane Parliament (q.v.). Meanwhile, however, the Committee itself, after a hot debate, accepted the Relief Bill of 1793, and the Back Lane Parliament dissolved. But from this time the moderate party lost influence, and in 1798 the Committee dissolved itself. In 1809 and 1871 it was reconstituted, and reassembled for a short period. [CATHOLIC EMANCIPATION.]

Catholic Emancipation. In the reign of William III. various statutes had been passed against the Roman Catholics which forbade them to hold property in land, and subjected their spiritual instructors to the penalties of felony. These acts had ceased to be applied, but they were a blot upon the statute book, and served as a temptation to informers. In 1778 an Act, brought in by Sir G. Savile, repealed these penalties with general approval. These Acts did not apply to Scotland, but it was contemplated to repeal similar enactments which still disgraced the Scotch statute book. This stirred up fanaticism in Edinburgh and Glasgow in 1779; riots took place in the Scotch capital, and the houses of Roman Catholics were attacked. A Protestant Association was established in Scotland, and Lord George Gordon, who was more than half a madman, was chosen as its president. The association spread to England, and a branch was established in London, and in consequence the disturbances known as the Gordon Riots (q.v.) broke out. In 1791 Mr. Mitford brought in a Bill for the relief of "Protesting Catholic Dissenters"—that is, Roman Catholics who protested against the Pope's temporal authority, and his right to excommunicate kings and absolve subjects from their allegiance, and the right of not keeping faith with heretics. Mr. Fox opposed the measure on the ground that relief should be given to all Roman Catholics. Mr. Pitt expressed similar sentiments. The Bill was altered during its progress, and at last it passed in a form which allowed Roman Catholics who took an oath of allegiance to secure to themselves freedom of education, of holding property, and of practising the profession of the law. It also allowed Catholic peers to approach the king. Roman Catholics were still worse off in Ireland. Their public worship was proscribed; they were excluded from all offices in the learned professions; they were deprived of the guardianship of their children; if they had landed estates they were forbidden to intermarry with Protestants. In 1792 some of the worst of these disabilities were removed by the Irish Parliament, and in 1793 this relief was further extended. The restraints on worship and education, even the disposition of property, were removed; they were admitted to vote at elections on taking the oath of allegiance and abjuration; they could hold some of the higher civil and military offices, and could enjoy the honours and endowments of the University of Dublin. In the same year a similar Bill was passed for the relief of Scotch Roman Catholics. In 1799, when the Union with Ireland was in contemplation, Pitt intended to admit Irish Roman Catholics to the Parliament of the United Kingdom. But George III. was strongly opposed to this step, and would not allow his minister to give any direct pledge. When Pitt attempted, after the Union, to carry out his tempered scheme of relief, the king refused his consent, and Pitt resigned office. After this the question slept, but in 1803 the Catholics obtained a further slight measure of relief on condition of subscribing the oath of 1791. In May, 1805, Lord Grenville moved for a committee of the whole House to consider a petition from the Roman Catholics of Ireland; but his motion was negatived by a majority of 129. A similar motion was made by Fox in the House of Commons, but it was lost by a majority of 112. In 1807 an attempt was made by the ministry to admit Roman Catholics in Ireland to the higher staff appointments of the army. This attempt they were obliged by the king to abandon, and as his Majesty went on to require from them a written declaration that they would propose to him no further concession to the Catholics, they were obliged to resign. Their successors, under the Duke of Portland and Mr. Perceval, were opposed to the Roman Catholic claims; still numerous petitions were presented by Irish Roman Catholics, and similar petitions were presented in 1810 in favour of English Roman Catholics. Many Protestants began to petition for the relief of their Catholic brethren, and the feeling in the universities became less strongly opposed to change. After the murder of Mr. Perceval the Marquis Wellesley was charged with the formation of a ministry, and made the settlement of the Catholic claims the basis of his programme. He did not, however, succeed. In the same year Mr. Canning carried a motion for the consideration of the laws affecting Catholics by a majority of 129. In the Lords a similar motion was lost by a single vote. A Catholic Association (q.v.) had been formed in Ireland in 1823. During Mr. Canning's tenure of office it had been dissolved, in the hope that he would be sure to carry out his well-known views. After his death, in 1827, it was reconstructed. In 1828 it secured the return of Daniel O'Connell for the county of Clare. Mr. Peel and the Duke of Wellington were convinced that the time for settling the question of the Catholic claims had now arrived. Besides other difficulties, they had to face the strong opposition of the king,

George IV., who now expressed as much objection to the measure as his father had done. At last the king was persuaded to allow the ministry to draw up three measures, one to suppress the Catholic Association, one a Relief Bill, and the third to revise the franchise in Ireland. After some delay caused by the king, Peel introduced the measure of Catholic Relief. It admitted Roman Catholics, on taking a new oath instead of the oath of supremacy, to both Houses of Parliament; to all corporate offices; to all judicial offices, except in the ecclesiastical courts; to all civil and political offices, except those of Regent, Lord Chancellor in England and Ireland, and Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland. Roman Catholics were still restrained in the exercise of Church patronage. The motion to go into Committee was agreed to by a majority of 188. The Duke of Wellington said, on the second reading of the Bill, in the House of Lords: "I, my Lords, am one of those who have probably passed a longer period of my life engaged in war than most men, and principally, I may say, in civil war, and I must say this, that if I could avoid, by any sacrifice whatever, even one month of civil war in the country to which I am attached, I would sacrifice my life in order to do it." The Bill was opposed in the Lords by the Archbishop of Canterbury and several others of the episcopal bench, but it was carried on April 10, 1829, by 213 to 109. The king gave his consent with great reluctance. Sir Robert Peel writes in his memoirs a solemn declaration that he acted throughout in this measure from a deep conviction that they were not only conducive to the general welfare, but that they had become imperatively necessary to avert an imminent and increasing danger from the interests of the Church, and of the institutions connected with the Church.

Peel's *Memoirs*; Stapleton, *George Canning and his Times*; Pauli, *Eng. Geschichte zeit 1815*; Adolphus, *Hist. of Eng.*; May, *Const. Hist. of Eng.* [O. B.]

Cato Street Conspiracy (1820) was the name given to a wild plot formed by a number of desperate men, having for its chief object the murder of Lord Castlereagh and the rest of the ministers. The originators were a man named Arthur Thistlewood, who had once been a subaltern officer, Ings, a butcher, Tidd and Brunt, shoemakers, and Davidson, a man of colour; and they had arranged to murder the ministers at a dinner at Lord Harrowby's on the night of the 23rd February, to set fire to London in several places, seize the Bank and Mansion House, and proclaim a provisional government. The plot, however, had been betrayed to the police by one of the conspirators, named Edwards, some weeks before. The conspirators were attacked by the police as they were arming themselves in a stable in Cato Street, near the Edgware Road. A scuffle ensued, in which one policeman was stabbed and several of the criminals escaped. Thistlewood was among these, but he was captured next morning. He and four others were executed, and five more were transported for life. A good deal of discussion took place in the House of Commons on the employment of the informer Edwards by the authorities.

Annual Register, 1820.

Catyeuchlani (or CATUVELLANI), THE, were an ancient British tribe occupying the present counties of Hertford, Bedford, and Buckingham.

Cavaliers. In December, 1641, frequent tumults took place round the Houses of Parliament, in the course of which more than one collision occurred between the mob and the officers and courtiers who made Whitehall their head-quarters. The two parties assailed each other with nicknames, and the epithet, "Cavalier," was applied by the people to the Royalists. The original meaning of the term, which was to become the designation of a great political party, is difficult to discover. Professor Gardiner says that it "carried with it a flavour of opprobrium as implying a certain looseness and idleness of military life." Mr. Forster thinks that it was used as a term of reproach on this occasion "to connect its French origin with the un-English character of the defenders of the queen and her French papist adherents, to whom it was chiefly applied." According to the statement of William Lilly, an eye-witness of these riots, it referred at first rather to the personal appearance of the Royalists than to anything foreign or sinister in their characters. "The courtiers having long hair and locks, and always wearing swords, at last were called by these men 'Cavaliers;' and so all that took part or appeared for his Majesty were termed Cavaliers, few of the vulgar knowing the sense of the word 'Cavalier.'" It thus exactly corresponded to the term Roundhead [ROUNDHEAD]. The earliest uses of the word in the Journal of Sir S. D'Ewes are found under the dates of Jan. 10, and March 4, 1641. The king complained of its use, accusing his opponents of attempting "to render all persons of honour, courage, and reputation odious to the common people under the style of Cavaliers, insomuch as the highways and villages have not been safe for gentlemen to pass through without violence or affront." The name at first used as a reproach came to be adopted by the Royalists themselves as a title of honour. "A complete Cavalier," wrote Dr. Symons, in a sermon preached before the royal army, "is a child of honour. He is the only reserve of English gentility and ancient valour, and hath chosen rather to bury himself in the tomb of honour than to see the nobility of his nation vassalaged, the dignity of his country captivated or obscured by any base domestic enemy, or

by any foreign fore-conquered foe." The name thus originated continued to be used to describe the Church and King party till the introduction of the epithet "Tory." [TORY.]

Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng. 1603—1642*; Forster, *Five Members*; Warburton, *Memoirs and Correspondence of Prince Rupert and the Cavaliers*. For a list of Cavalier Members of Parliament see Sanford, *Studies and Illustrations of the Great Rebellion*; and for a list of officers, Peacock, *Army Lists of Cavaliers and Roundheads*. [C. H. F.]

Cavendish, FAMILY OF. [DEVONSHIRE PEERAGE.]

Cavendish, WILLIAM, &c. [DEVONSHIRE.]

Cavendish, WILLIAM. [NEWCASTLE.]

Cavendish, THOMAS (*b.* 1564, *d.* 1592), a gentleman of Suffolk, fitted out in 1586 an expedition for discovery and privateering, having imbibed a love for sea adventure during a voyage with Sir Humphrey Gilbert in 1585. A futile attack on Sierra Leone was followed by a descent on the coasts of Chili and Peru, where he met with more success, capturing some of the Spanish treasure-ships, notably the "Santa Anna" from the Manillas. He returned to Plymouth in September, 1588, by the Moluccas, Java, and the Cape of Good Hope, with the honour of being the second Englishman who had circumnavigated the globe, and was knighted by the queen. He died off the coast of Brazil whilst engaged in another voyage of discovery.

Cawnpore, MASSACRE OF (1857). On June 5th the Cawnpore regiments mutinied, plundered the treasury, and set off to Delhi. On the 6th they were brought back by Nana Sahib, and invested the Residency. Not less than 1,000 persons had taken refuge there, and they prolonged the defence from June 6th to June 24th, till the ammunition and provisions were all gone. Then Nana Sahib offered to transmit them safely to Allahabad on condition of surrender. The offer was accepted, and on the 27th, the survivors, men, women, and children, were marched down to the boats which had been prepared for them, in number about 450. They had no sooner embarked than a murderous fire was opened on them from both banks. "Many perished, others got off in their boats; but their crews had deserted them, and one by one they were again captured. A considerable number were at once shot, and otherwise put to death, but 122 were reserved." After Havelock's victory, July 15th, it was decided that they should be put to death with those who had escaped from Futtehgurh. They were all brutally destroyed on the 16th; some by shot, some by sword-cuts; the bodies were cast into a well, and there is no doubt that many were thrown in while still alive. [INDIAN MUTINY.]

Kaye, *Sepoy War*.

Caxton, WILLIAM (*b.*? 1422, *d.* 1491), the first English printer, was born near Hadlow, in Kent, and apprenticed to a rich London mercer in 1438. He left England in 1441 to transact business in connection with his trade in the Low Countries, and finally took up his residence at Bruges, where he remained for thirty-five years. He joined there the gild of Merchant Adventurers, who had a depôt in the city. In 1463 Caxton was promoted to the office of governor of the gild. Soon afterwards he, together with another English envoy, was entrusted by Edward IV. with the task of renewing an expiring commercial treaty between England and Burgundy. In 1470, Caxton used his influence at Bruges in behalf of Edward IV., who was taking refuge there from the Lancastrians, and in the next year the Duchess of Burgundy offered him a post at her court. By the duchess's command he completed, in 1471, a translation into English of a popular French collection of romances concerning the Trojan War. He became acquainted with Colard Manson, who had some knowledge of the new art of printing which Gutenberg had perfected some sixteen years before. Together they printed Caxton's translation—*The Recuyell of the Historyes of Troye*—and 1474 has been the year assigned as the date of the production of this, the first English-printed book. The experiment proved eminently successful to another of Caxton's translations—*The Game and Playe of the Chess*—issued from the same press in 1475. In 1476 Caxton arrived in England with new type, and set up a press near the western entrance to Westminster Abbey. During the following fifteen years, he printed many works—chivalric romances, religious works, and translations. His patrons included Edward IV., Richard III., and Henry VII., and the chief noblemen and many merchants of the day. Caxton was buried in St. Margaret's Churchyard, outside Westminster Abbey.

The best biography of Caxton is that by Mr. William Blades, which has practically superseded all its predecessors. [S. L. L.]

Ceadwalla, King of Wessex (685—688), was descended from Cerdic through Ceawlin. His name is generally considered to bespeak a British origin, the same as the Welsh Cadwallon, and in support of this view it may be mentioned that his brother was called Mul, *i.e.*, "mule," a man of mixed descent. On being banished from Wessex, he retired to Sussex, which kingdom he subdued. He was, however, subsequently expelled, returned to Wessex, and, on the death or abdication of Centwine, became king. He then conquered Sussex and the Isle of Wight, and twice ravaged Kent. In 688 he abdicated, and went on a pilgrimage to Rome, where he was baptised by the Pope, and received the name of Peter. He died on Easter Day, 689.

Anglo-Saxon Chron.; Henry of Huntingdon.

Ceawlin, King of Wessex, succeeded to the throne in the latter half of the sixth century on

the death of his father Cymric. Under his leadership the West Saxons enlarged their boundaries and the Britons were driven back. In 568 he defeated Ethelbert of Kent at Wimbledon, and three years later gained a great victory over the Britons at Bedford, which brought the important towns of Aylesbury, Bensington, and Eynsham under his dominion. In 577 he won a victory at Deorham (q.v.), in which three British kings fell, and as a result of this success he obtained possession of the three cities of Bath, Gloucester, and Cirencester. In 584, again attempting to extend his conquests to the upper Severn valley, he fought a doubtful battle at Faddiley in Cheshire, defeated the Britons at Frithem in Shropshire, but after this is said to have made an alliance with them against Ethelbert, by whom he was defeated at Wodnesbeorh (? Wanborough, about three miles from Swindon) and driven out of his kingdom (? 590). Two years after this he died. Ceawlin is reckoned as the second Bretwalda in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle; and William of Malmesbury says of him that "he was the astonishment of the English, the detestation of the Britons, and eventually the destruction of both."

Anglo-Saxon Chron.; Will. of Malmesbury.

Cecil, Sir Robert. [Salisbury.]

Cecil, Sir William. [Burleigh.]

Celts in the British Isles. The Celts form one among that large group of peoples which is commonly called the Aryan group, and which includes nearly all the present inhabitants of Europe with several considerable peoples of the East. The name *Celt* was that by which the people were first known to the Greeks, whereas the Romans always knew them under the name of Galli, or Gauls; both these words probably mean the same thing, namely *the warriors*, or according to Professor Rhŷs, *the kilt-wearing, or clothed people*. Another name by which the Celts of South Britain were known is *Cymry*, which is still the name by which the Welsh designate themselves, and which possibly reappears in the Cimbri spoken of by the Roman historians. There can be no doubt that the Celts at one time formed the most powerful confederacy of nations in Europe. Gradually the Celtic peoples were driven back from their more easterly possessions by the Romans and the kindred races in the south, and in the north by the Teutonic peoples: so that at the time when the light of history first shines on them with any clearness we find them in possession only of the three most western lands of Europe—namely, the Iberian Peninsula, Gaul, and the British Isles.

It must not be supposed that the inhabitants of these lands, though they consisted fundamentally of the same race, formed in any sense a single nationality, or spoke an identical language. In the British Islands some dialects of Celtic are still spoken and others are but recently extinct. These we can classify. They are the Welsh, or Cymric (Kymraeg), the Cornish, the Manx (dialect spoken in the Isle of Man), the Irish (Erse or Gaidhelic), and the Highland Scottish, or Scottish Gaelic. To these we must add the only other living Celtic tongue, the Breton of Britanny, otherwise called Armoric. These six dialects divide themselves into two classes, the *Gaidhelic* (Goidelic) and the *British* or *Cymric*. The first included Irish, Manx, and Scottish Gaelic; the second comprises the Welsh, Cornish, and Armoric. It is quite possible that this division was in force as long ago as the date of the first Roman invasion, so that the inhabitants of the British Islands then consisted of two great nationalities, the Britons in the lower part of Britain, and the Gaels in the Highlands of Scotland and in Ireland. There can be little doubt that of the two the nationality of the Britons was most nearly allied to that of the Gauls.

Many of our geographical names serve to remind us of these two main divisions of the Celtic race. The word Gaidhel (which is, of course, etymologically allied to Gaul) is preserved in the words Gael and Gaelic, now used only for the Scottish Gaels, though in the native Irish the same word (Gaedhil) is applied to that nationality and language; it is preserved again in Galway in Ireland, and in Galloway in Scotland, and in many lesser local names. The word Cymry, which is still the name by which the Welsh call themselves, has been for us Latinised into Cambria, and remains again in Cumberland (Cumbria) which once included a much larger area than it now includes. Britain, Briton, are names which have been bestowed from without—namely, by the Greeks and Romans — while Wales, Cornwall, have likewise been bestowed from without by the Teutonic invaders of Britain. All the Celtic nationalities were, as we know, an immigrant people into Europe, and it is not to be supposed that when they made their way into these islands they found them empty of inhabitants, or that no traces of these earlier races continued to exist after the Celts had been long settled there. Some among the tribes which Cæsar counted among the Celtic inhabitants of Britain may have belonged to this earlier stock, in particular the Silures, who inhabited the south of Wales and Monmouthshire, near Caerleon (Isca Silurum), and a part at least of the tribes of Devonshire and Cornwall have been designated as representing these more primitive inhabitants of the British Isles, who were, it is generally believed, allied to the original inhabitants of Spain, the Iberians, and to the Basques, their modern representatives. It would seem that the Gaelic branch preceded

the Cymric in the course of invasion, and that the latter as they advanced drove the Gaels towards the north and west. At the time of Cæsar's invasion the Cymric Celts may be said to have composed the body of the population south of the Firths of Forth and of Clyde; and as the names Britannia, Briton, were by the Romans bestowed only on the country and the people in the southern part of the island, the word Briton may be used synonymously with Cymric-Celt. In fact, the Cymric people came in after-times to designate themselves as Brythons. When first known to the Romans, therefore, the Britons are to be looked upon as one nation, with a certain admixture of more primitive elements, and with the addition of one intrusive nationality, the Belgæ (q.v.), who had made a settlement in the south of the island. The Belgæ were likewise Celtic by blood, but were not closely allied to the native inhabitants of Britain. These Belgæ seem to have been more civilised than the rest of the inhabitants, and to have offered the most formidable resistance to the Roman arms. The exact districts over which they extended cannot be ascertained. The centre of their possessions probably lay somewhere near the borders of Sussex and Hampshire.

With the exception then of some primitive tribes and the intrusive Belgæ, the Britons from the Channel to the Firths of Forth and Clyde were, at the time of Cæsar's invasion, essentially one people belonging to the Cymric branch of the Celtic family [Britons]. North of the firths the land was inhabited by a people who were to the classic writers first known as Caledonians, but afterwards by the Romans known as Picts. This name, it is well known, means simply the painted or stained (*Picti*), and was bestowed upon all those who had not adopted the Roman civilisation, but adhered to their national system of staining themselves with woad. Concerning the nationality of the Picts there is considerable dispute. Tacitus says that they were of German origin. This assertion was formerly very generally accepted, and still is by some scholars. It is more probable that they were of a Celtic stock. Mr. Skene, who has undertaken an exhaustive examination of the question, arrives at the conclusion that they belonged, not to the Cymric but to the Gaelic branch of the Celtic family [Picts]. In Ireland again the inhabitants were probably to be divided into several nationalities. There was, in the first place, undoubtedly a substratum of the same primitive stock of which we have noticed traces in England. Irish tradition tells us of four nationalities who, at different times, held rule in the island, namely, the Nemidians, the Firbolgs, the Tuatha da Danann, and the Milesians, or Scots. Should we set aside what seems purely mythical in the tradition, and with that the Nemidians, of whom nothing can be made, it is not unlikely that the three names which remain do really represent three peoples, out of which the Irish nation is composed. The Firbolgs, who are described as a dark and slavish race, very likely represent the oldest inhabitants of Iberian stock, while the Tuatha da Danann and the Milesians were two different branches of the Gælic race, having somewhat different appearances and national characteristics. The Milesians, who eventually obtained the supremacy, seem to be identical with the Scots, who gave its name first to Ireland, and later on to Scotland [Scots].

Such is the general ethnology of the Celtic people of Great Britain and Ireland. What we know of their social life and religion at the time of the Roman conquest is gained almost solely from the testimony of Roman historians, and therefore applies chiefly to the inhabitants of South Britain, who were the only people to come in contact with the invader. We have some other sources of information in the Welsh and Irish traditions, and in all that is most ancient of what has been preserved of their ancient laws, especially of the Brehon Laws of the Irish [Brehon]. This last source of information shows us that the Celts, where untouched by Roman civilisation, adhered to a form of social organisation which was, at one time, pretty general among the Aryan peoples. The distinctive features in their state of society were that each tribe, or, more strictly speaking, each *village*, constituted a state in itself, a political unit whose tie of union with any other village was only of a very loose character. At the same time, the tie which united together the inhabitants of any single village was remarkably close, most of the land, for example, being held, not individually, but in common, by the whole body. This form of society is commonly distinguished by students as the Village Community (*see* Sir H. S. Maine, *Village Communities of the East and West*). The religion of the inhabitants of Britain must have been the same as that of the Gauls, if, as Cæsar tells us, the special home or college of the Gaulish priests, the Druids, was in this island [Druids]. Of this creed we do not know much. There are, however, good reasons for believing that it very closely resembled the religion of the Teutonic neighbours of the Celts, of which some traces have come down to us. As with the German races, and as with the Romans themselves, the highest divinity was probably a god of the sky and of the thunder. Beside him stood a sun-god whom the Gauls, when they became Latinised, identified completely with Apollo, and who perhaps corresponded to the Freyr or Frô of the Teutonic peoples. His original Gaulish name may have been Granus. To form with these a trilogy we have a god of war, probably similar to the Teutonic Zio or Tiw, and called by the Roman writers

Mars. The chief goddess of the Gauls is called by Cæsar Minerva, but we have proof that they worshipped a *mother goddess* who, like the Roman Lucina, presided over births, and whose image, holding on her lap a child, is frequently dug up in France, and always taken by the peasantry for an image of the Virgin and Child. To this pantheon of nature-gods was joined a lower form of nature-worship, especially an adoration of trees and streams. As to the Teutons, the oak was to the Gauls an especially sacred tree. The Celtic worship of streams was more peculiar, and the traces of it still survive in the special reverence paid to wells in Britanny, in the more Celtic parts of Great Britain, and in Ireland.

For Celtic ethnology and religion: Zeuss, *Grammatica Celtica*; Glück, *Celtische Eigennamen*; H. W. Ebel, *Celtic Studies* (translated by Sullivan); T. O'Donovan, *Irish Grammar*; Amédee Thierry, *Histoire des Gaulois*; Roget de Balloquet, *Ethnogenie Gauloise*; Gaidoz, *Esquisse de la Religion des Gaulois* and *La Religion Gauloise et le Gui de Chêne*; also, *Revue Celtique*, especially vol. iv., article by Fustel de Coulanges; Cæsar, *De Bell. Gall.*; Tacitus, *Ann.* and *Agricola*.

For Celts in Great Britain and Ireland: J. Rhŷs, *Celtic Britain*; W. F. Skene, *Celtic Scotland*; C. Elton, *Origins of English History*; J. H. Burton, *History of Scotland*, vol. i.; E. O'Curry, *Manners and Customs of the Ancient Irish*; C. O'Conor, *Rerum Hibernicarum Scriptores Veteres*; J. O'Donovan, *Annals of the Four Masters*; *Chronicon Scotorum*.

[C. F. K.]

Census, The, a numbering of the population of Great Britain and Ireland, was appointed to be taken every tenth year by Act 41, George III., c. 15 (Dec., 1800). The first census was accordingly taken in 1801. At each recurrence of the census it has been rendered more complete, and at the present time elicits a vast amount of valuable and accurate information. It is taken simultaneously throughout the kingdom by special officers. The official figures since 1801 are as follows:—

1801	16,237,306	1861	29,571,644
1811	18,509,116	1871	31,857,338
1821	21,272,187	1881	35,246,633
1831	24,392,485	1891	37,880,764
1841	27,239,404	1901	41,609,320
1851	27,958,143		

The first Imperial Census of Great Britain and Ireland, the colonies and dependencies, was taken in 1871, when the population was 234,762,593. In 1881 it was 315,885,000; in 1901 it was 400,543,713. In 1908 the estimated population was 410,000,000.

Central India. The official name for the group of feudatory native states in the centre of India, comprising the dominions of Holkar and Scindiah, and the states of Bhopal and Dhar. [Holkar, &c.]

Central Provinces, The, a chief commissionership of British India, formed out of the Nagpore province and Nerbudda territories, in 1861, lies to the south of Rewah and Bundelcund. It is divided into nineteen districts and four divisions, and has an area of 84,000 square miles, and a population of about 8,200,000 (in 1872), of whom nearly six millions are Hindoos. [Nagpore.]

Cenwealh, King of the West Saxons (643—672), was the son and successor of Cynegils. He tried to effect in Wessex a relapse into Paganism, but his expulsion by Penda, whose sister he had repudiated, led to his seeking refuge in East Anglia, where he was converted to Christianity. After having recovered his kingdom, he defeated Wulfhæ, the son of Penda, at Ashdown, and took him prisoner (661). He also won two great victories over the Britons at Bradford and Pen, and extended his dominions on every side.

Cenwulf, King of the Mercians (796—819), was descended from Cenwealh, the brother of Penda. His reign was a very prosperous one, and he retained for Mercia that supremacy which had been won by Offa. He completed the conquest of Kent, which he granted out to his brother Cuthred; while to conciliate the Church, he suppressed the archbishopric of Lichfield, which Offa had founded. He was victorious over the Welsh, and his army is said to have penetrated as far as Snowdon.

Ceolnoth, Archbishop of Canterbury (833—870), made his episcopate important in many ways. In 838 he assisted at the Council of Kingston, when a treaty of peace and alliance was agreed upon between the Kentish clergy and the two kings, Egbert and his son Ethelwulf. This treaty laid the foundation of those amicable relations which we find existing ever after between the descendants of Cerdic and the successors of Augustine. Twice during Ceolnoth's life, Canterbury was sacked by the Danes, but the church and the monastery of St. Augustine were spared, probably by the payment of a heavy ransom on the part of the archbishop, who also contributed towards raising a fleet against the Danes.

William of Malmesbury; Hook, *Archbishops*.

Ceolwulf, King of the Northumbrians (*d.* 764), succeeded his brother Cenred. In 713 he was seized by his enemies, and confined in a cloister, but was afterwards released by his friends and reseated on the throne. He was a patron of learning, and to him Bede dedicated his *Ecclesiastical History*. After reigning eight years he abdicated, and spent the remaining years of his life as a monk at Lindisfarne.

Bede; *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*.

Ceorl is a word which occurs in the laws of the kings before the Norman Conquest in

the following senses :— (1) man—vir, maritus ; (2) peasant, rusticus ; (3) the ordinary non-noble freeman. In this, its ordinary constitutional sense, we find (*a*) ceorl opposed to eorl, as simple to gentle ; (*b*) the *ceorlisc* man opposed to *gesithcundman* and *thegen*, and in the Northumbrian ecclesiastical law to *landâgend cyninges-thegen ;* (*c*) ceorl used as equivalent to *twyhyndeman* in the West-Saxon and Mercian laws, and in opposition to the *sixhyndeman* and *twelfhyndeman*. Originally, the simple freeman was the corner-stone of the old German state. Even the good blood of the eorl only brought with it social estimation and easy access to political power, rather than a different position in the eye of the law. But in historical times the ceorl had fallen from his old status. He stood midway between the "ingenuus" of Tacitus and the mediæval villein. With the development of the constitution he gradually sinks towards the latter condition. Legally the ceorl still was a full citizen ; but if he possessed no land, his position in a territorial constitution became extremely precarious. The establishment of private property in land had deprived him of his old right of sharing in the common land of the state. Though still a member of the local courts and of the host, though still fully "law-worthy," and though his wergild was still paid to the kindred, the landless ceorl was compelled, by a law of Athelstan, to choose a lord to answer for his good behaviour. The right of selecting his own master alone distinguished him from the predial serf. In a later stage, even the small land-owning ceorl was practically obliged to commend himself for safety's sake to some great proprietor ; and the "liber homo qui ire potest cum terra quo voluerit" of Domesday represents this large class of voluntary dependents. Many grades of ceorls thus spring up according to their relations to their "hlaford." But while the less prosperous ceorls thus lost their freedom, the disappearance of the blood nobility of the eorl helped the more thriving of their class to attain that higher status which no longer depended on birth alone. The ceorl with five hides of land (600 acres), with house and church, a special relation to the crown, and a special jurisdiction over his property, became "of thegn right worthy." Yet, on the whole, the growth of thegnhood depressed the "ceorlisc man." Its first principle was dependence ; and, as on the Continent, the old freedom withered away before feudalism. The very name ceorl is not found in Domesday, and its equivalents, bordarius, cotarius, cotsetus, socmannus, villanus, indicate that the process which degraded him to the "unfree villein" had almost become complete. The lawyers of the twelfth century completed the process. The bad meaning attached to the word "churl" is an indication of the disrepute into which this once honourable title had fallen.

Schmidt, *Gesetze der Angel-Sachsen ; Antiquar. Glossar.*, sub verb. ; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, i. 64, 80, 155, 162, 175, ii. 453 ; Kemble, *The Saxons in England ;* Gneist, *Englische Verfassungs Geschichte*. [T. F. T.]

Cerdic, King of the West Saxons (*d.* 534 ?), is said to have been ninth in descent from Woden, and, in company with his son Cymric, to have come to Britain in 495, "at the place which is called Cerdices-ora" (probably in Hampshire). His early wars were not attended with great success ; but in 508, having made an alliance with Aesc and Aelle (Ella), he totally defeated the Britons. In 514, reinforcements having arrived, he continued his conquests, and in 519 "Cerdic and Cymric obtained the kingdom of the West Saxons." In 530 they conquered the Isle of Wight, and made a terrible slaughter of the Britons at Whitgaresburh (probably Carisbrooke). Four years later Cerdic died. From Cerdic all our kings, with the exception of Canute, Hardicanute, the two Harolds, and William the Conqueror, are descended.

Anglo-Saxon Chronicle.

Cerones, The, were an ancient Celtic tribe occupying the west coast of Inverness and part of Argyle.

Cessation, The, was the name given, during the Ulster Rebellion of 1641, and the following years, to a truce for one year, agreed on Sept. 15th, 1643, between the Marquis of Ormonde and the confederate Irish at Drogheda. The English Parliament impeached Ormonde on account of it, and the Scots refused to recognise it. The native Irish party, headed by the Legate, were also opposed to it ; it had a very bad effect on the Royalists in England ; and, after all, the king's object of getting help from Ireland in troops and money was only very partially gained.

Ceylon, an island in the Indian Ocean, lying south-east of India, and separated from it by the Gulf of Manaar, has been known since very early times. It was visited by the Macedonians, and was much frequented by merchants in the sixth century. It was first visited by the Portuguese in 1505, and a few years later a fort was built by them at Colombo. In 1656 the Portuguese were expelled from the island by the Dutch, who were in their turn driven out by the British in 1795, Ceylon, or at least as much of it as had belonged to the Dutch, being annexed to the Presidency of Madras ; but, in 1801, it was made a separate colony. In 1803, on the refusal of the King of Kandy to accept the British terms, Kandy was attacked by a large force, under General Macdowal ; but the expedition ended most disastrously in a massacre of the British troops. In 1815 Kandy was occupied by the British, and the king deposed ; a few years later the natives rebelled, and tried ineffectually to drive the English out of the interior of the country.

In 1831 a commission was sent out from England to inquire into the condition of the island, with the result that a charter providing for the administration of justice by supreme district and circuit courts was issued; trial by jury was adopted; every situation was thrown open to the competition of the Singhalese; and three natives of Ceylon were appointed members of the legislative council, on a footing of perfect equality with the other unofficial European members. Notwithstanding the attempts at reform, insurrections took place in 1835 and 1848, both of which were organised by the Buddhist priests, who dreaded the diminution of their influence under British rule; but the rebellions were crushed before they had spread to any very alarming extent. The government of Ceylon was vested in a governor, assisted by an executive council of five members, viz., the Colonial Secretary, the Commander-in-chief, the Attorney-General, the Treasurer, and the Auditor-General. There is also a legislative council of seventeen, including the members of the executive council, four other official and eight non-official members nominated by the governor. This form of government has existed since 1833. The Roman-Dutch law, as it prevailed in the colony in 1795, is that which is still suffered to apply, except where it has been modified by direct local enactments, which have introduced trial by jury, the English rules of evidence in criminal cases, and the English mercantile law in some important matters.

Martin, *British Colonies*; Creasy, *Britannic Empire*; Tennant, *Ceylon*; Turnour, *Hist. of Ceylon*. [F. S. P.]

Chalgrove Field, The Battle of (June 18, 1643), was fought between the Royalist cavalry, under Prince Rupert, who had pushed forward from Oxford on a raid, and a body of Parliamentary troops, under Hampden. The encounter, which was more of the nature of a skirmish than a battle, is memorable as the one in which John Hampden received his death-wound. Chalgrove is a small village about twenty-two miles east of Oxford, between the Thames and the Chiltern Hills.

Chaloner, Sir Thomas (*b.* 1521, *d.* 1565), a statesman, a soldier, and a man of letters, whilst quite a boy entered the service of the Emperor Charles V., whom he accompanied on the expedition to Algiers, 1541, barely escaping with his life. Soon afterwards he returned to England, and was present at the battle of Pinkie Cleugh, 1547, where he greatly distinguished himself. He was Clerk of the Council to Henry VIII., and a faithful servant to Edward VI., though his religion debarred him from the favour of Mary. Under Elizabeth he acquired considerable renown as an able diplomatist, and was sent as ambassador to Germany and Spain, remaining at Madrid for two or three years before his death. Sir Thomas was the author of a treatise, *De Republica Anglorum Instauranda* (Lond., 1579), and some other tracts.

Chalons, The Battle of (1274), began with a tournament, to which Edward I. was invited by the Count of Chalons-sur-Marne. Foul play endangered the king's life, and resulted in a fight between the English and French, in which a considerable number of the latter were slain.

Chaluz-Chatrol, a castle in Poitou, belonging to the Viscount of Limoges, was besieged by Richard I. in 1199. It was before the walls of this fortress that the king received his death-wound. [Richard I.]

Chamberlain, The Lord Great, is one of the great officers of state, the sixth in order of precedence. This office early became one of comparatively small importance, and has for many centuries been a purely titular dignity. It was granted to the De Veres, Earls of Oxford, by Henry I. in 1101, and was for many centuries hereditary in that family. On the death of John de Vere, sixteenth Earl of Oxford, his daughter Mary married Lord Willoughby de Eresby; and in 1625 the House of Lords declared that the office passed to this nobleman. On the death of the last male descendant of this peer, it was decided, after much litigation, in July, 1779, that the honour passed to his female descendants, the Lady Willoughby de Eresby and the Lady Charlotte Bertie.

Chamberlain, The Lord, of the Household, or King's Chamberlain, is still an officer of some importance. Notices of him are found early in the thirteenth century. In 1341 he was ordered to take an oath to maintain the laws and the Great Charter, and in 1 Richard II. it was enacted that he should be chosen in Parliament. He derived considerable political importance from the fact that it was his duty to endorse petitions handed to the king; and frequent complaints in Parliament show that this prerogative was generally exercised, and occasionally abused. In 1406 it was declared in Parliament that the King's Chamberlain should always be a member of the Council. Under the later Plantagenets and Tudors the Lord Chamberlain became the chief functionary of the royal household; and his duties are still not altogether nominal. By 31 Henry VIII. he takes precedence after the Lord Steward. By modern usage, he is always a peer of high rank, and he goes out with the ministry. He has also a peculiar authority over dramatic entertainments, which arises from the fact that the players attached to the Royal Household were under his jurisdiction. But the Lord Chamberlain's function as Licenser of all plays dates only from 10 George II., cap. 28, 1736, when Walpole brought in an Act of Parliament requiring that all dramas

and plays should receive the licence of the Lord Chamberlain before being acted, power being given to this officer to prohibit any piece offending against morality, decency, or public order.

Chamberlain, The Right Hon. Joseph (*b* 1836), after an active municipal career in Birmingham, became M.P. for it in 1876. In the second Gladstone administration he was President of the Board of Trade and in the Cabinet. In the third he was President of the Local Government Board, but resigned (March, 1886) on the Home Rule question. In 1887 he went to Canada as British Commissioner in the Fisheries dispute. In 1895 he became Colonial Secretary in Lord Salisbury's Cabinet. In 1903 he resigned his position in the Cabinet, in order to advocate a new fiscal policy untrammelled. He suffered in 1906 a severe illness, which necessitated his withdrawal from public life.

Chamberlain, The Right Hon. J. Austen, eldest son of the preceding, was born in 1863, and was educated at Rugby and Cambridge. In 1892 he was elected as a Liberal Unionist for East Worcestershire. He was Civil Lord of the Admiralty, 1895–1900; Financial Secretary to the Treasury, 1900–2; Postmaster-General and member of the Cabinet, 1902–3; and Chancellor of the Exchequer, 1903–6.

Champion of England, The, is an officer whose business it is to appear at the coronation of a sovereign, and challenge all comers to deny the new ruler's title. The office is popularly supposed to have been instituted by William the Conqueror. It goes with the manor of Scrivelsby.

Chancellor, Richard (*d.* 1554), was the founder of the English-Russian Company. Whilst on a voyage of discovery, to find the north-west passage to China, under the direction of Cabot, in 1553, he doubled the North Cape (a feat never before accomplished by the English), and reached Archangel. Thence he journeyed to Moscow, and established the first trading relations between England and Russia. On his return to England he established a company to trade with Muscovy, which was incorporated by Queen Mary.

Chancellor. [Chancery.]

Chancery. The Court of Chancery and its equitable jurisdiction have occupied in England a unique position, and exercised a paramount influence on the development of the English legal system, especially on the laws relating to land. But the Chancery and the office of Chancellor existed for more than three centuries before it became a court of jurisdiction at all. The office was at first purely ministerial. The *cancellarius* of Rome, the officer who sat behind the screen (cancelli) was merely a secretary; and the Chancellor of the Norman kings, under whom this official first comes into notice, was simply the chief of the royal clerks who superintended them in drawing up writs, and kept the seal. As a clerk he was an ecclesiastic; and as an ecclesiastic nearest to the royal person, he was the king's chaplain, and "keeper of the king's conscience." Becket, when Chancellor, is described as *secundus a rege*; he had fifty clerks under him; he held pleas with the constable and judges of the *curia regis*. This came to him only by way of delegation from the Council, when to the king in Council, as the fountain of justice, there came appeals from the lower royal courts, and petitions in cases where these courts would not or could not do justice. By the ordinance, 22 Edward III., all petitions that were "of grace" were to be referred to the Chancellor. Henceforth petitions are addressed to the Chancellor directly. Of these early petitions most seek redress under circumstances where ordinary justice might miscarry; as against a partial sheriff, an encroaching lord, or the keepers of a gaol. So far the Chancellor was exercising only the natural authority of a king's representative; since these were cases of trespass (*vi et armis*), in which cases the *curia regis* always interfered; and till modern times a bill in Chancery preserved the formal statement of a conspiracy to commit a trespass, as the ground on which the court was asked to interfere. The theory of trespass was soon enlarged, and the desire to avoid the procedures by compurgation or by ordeal of battle would cause many petitions for a hearing in the Chancery. The court was charged, too, with the preservation of royal rights, and the decision of technical points touching writs, patents, and grants issued by its clerks. Under Richard II. it was to supervise the justices of the peace; under Henry VI. to try Admiralty cases, and so on. But all this would not have created in the Chancery its distinctive jurisdiction, nor have thrown it into rivalry and even hostility with the common law courts. Many great lawyers have treated this as a necessity inherent in the nature of law, and one paralleled in the actual system of Roman law. But the anomaly peculiar to England is that the equity, which is more or less truly said to soften and correct while it follows the law, is administered by a separate tribunal; so that the law itself has been thrown into an attitude of jealousy towards the equity which was to supplement and expand it, and "a man might lose his suit on one side of Westminster Hall and win it on the other." This anomaly may be historically traced to the common lawyers' own resistance to progress. They took up too early the view that their system was complete; for every wrong there existed a remedy, and the remedy

must be by a form of writ. Cases, therefore, that could not be brought under the existing forms of writ, would fail to obtain a hearing in the courts. The statute 13 Edward I., cap. 24, therefore ordered that the Chancery should draw up new forms of writ "for like cases falling under like law and requiring like remedy." But the judges were now disinclined to allow their system to expand. In their jealousy of the Chancery clerks, they construed the statute as narrowly as possible, were loth to allow that any new case was a "like case," and declined to admit new forms of defence at all. It followed that new grounds of action and defence were left to the Chancery Court, which, in the next century, began rapidly to extend its action. The earliest recorded equity suit before the Chancellor is a married woman's petition on an ante-nuptial agreement for a settlement, in the reign of Edward III.

The hostility shown by the Commons in Parliament to this jurisdiction was due to the vagueness in the summons of the subpœna "to answer on certain matters," to the searching mode of inquiry pursued, perhaps also to the generous hearing ostentatiously offered to the poor. But their hostility embodied also the jealousy against investigation into land titles, and interference with the sacred franc-tenements, and the jealousy of a jurisdiction so closely connected, by its principles and its administrators, with the Church. It is to be noticed that except from 1371 to 1386, all the Chancellors down to Sir Thomas More were ecclesiastics. The device itself of "a use," or grant, of lands to A to hold to the use of others, had originated with the Church, which had then protected the use by spiritual sanction. On the other hand, this and other modes of acquiring rights in land for the Church had been checked by successive Mortmain Acts: those of Henry III., Edward I., 15 Richard II. The similar attempts made by the Commons to check this growing Chancery jurisdiction failed; the first recorded enforcement of a use by the Chancellor is in Henry V.'s reign; in that of Henry VI. uses were firmly established; till by the Wars of the Roses most of the land of England was held subject to uses. By this condition of things the legal was divorced from the actual ownership of land; the *feoffee to uses* merely served as a screen to *cestui qui use;* this latter, being "he that had the use," enjoyed the profits unburdened with the liabilities. The machinery of a use made it easy to evade in every direction the rigour of the feudal land-law; so that land could thus be conveyed by mere word of mouth, could be conveyed freely or devised by will, or charged in any way for the benefit of others; the Chancellor recognised and enforced all such dispositions. So far, it was a boon to society that the land system should thus have escaped from the feudal trammels; but it had now become an intolerable evil that the ownership of land should be just what the feudal law had guarded against, viz., secret, uncertain, and easy of transfer. Attempts had been made to remedy this; a statute of Henry VII., following a similar Act of 50 Edward IV., had set a precedent for regarding the beneficiary as the real owner in the case of debts secured on the land. So, 1 Richard III., cap. 1, allowed the beneficiary's conveyance to be valid without assent of the feoffees, and by 4 Henry VII., cap. 15, the lord could claim wardship over the heir to lands held through a use. But the final blow at the system of uses was dealt by Henry VIII. In 1534 he carried the Act which made uses forfeitable for treason, and two years later, introduced the great *Statute of Uses*, 27 Henry VIII., cap. 10, to put an end to the system once for all. But the narrow conservatism of the common lawyers, disguising itself as philosophical strictness of interpretation, was able to defeat the great legislative design. In the end the whole effect of the statute has been said to consist "in adding four words to every conveyance." For, following servilely the wording of the statute, the judges managed to exclude from its scope uses where the use was founded on a leasehold interest, where the use implied some active duties, or where a further use was raised upon the first use. It was held also not to apply to copyhold lands at all, nor where a use was held by a corporate body. Here, then, were a number of cases of obligation unrecognised by the common law, and left to be enforced by the Chancery courts, which had thus by Coke's time recovered under the name of "trusts" all that hold over transactions in land which the statute was to have transferred to the law courts. In the reign of Elizabeth the first collection of Chancery precedents was made and published, and by the time of the Stuarts the jurisdiction of the court was well settled to give relief in the same main subjects as it does now, viz.: trust, fraud, accident, extremity. Its chief developments since that time have been in the direction of "implied trusts," and especially in the protection of mortgagors' "equity of redemption," the settled property of married women, and the estates of minors. The doctrine of "specific performance" has been its own creation. The court's main instrument besides imprisonment has been the adjudication of costs, and its strongest arm the injunction. The benefits conferred on English society by the Court of Chancery have been immense. Much of its semi-criminal jurisdiction has been renounced since the seventeenth century; but the year-books and petitions enable us to judge of the value of a strong court armed with the directest authority of the crown, and deciding on enlightened principles with

a prompt and elastic procedure in the ages whose supreme and chronic grievance was lack of governance. It must be admitted that this equity was not always ideal justice; the very completeness of the inquiries necessitated the long delays of a Chancery suit, just as the very elasticity of the procedure introduced a certain confusion and prolixity into the pleadings. Too much was left to the Masters in Chancery and done in "secret chamber-work:" and above all, misled by the half truth that equity follows the law, there were hardships against which the Chancellors had not, in the face of the judges, the courage to grant relief. But there were others which they boldly followed up, as in resisting, on grounds of "public policy," the creation of perpetuities, or in acting on the maxims, "He that seeks equity must do equity;" "Equity looks to the intent rather than the form;" "Equity considers as done that which ought to be done." But the greatest triumph has been the influence exerted by equity on the common law, which adopted the rules of equity as to the construction of deeds, the admissibility of "set-off," the power to change the venue and grant a new trial, the repudiation of penalties in a contract. So, too, the right to make a will of land, denied at law, was granted by Chancery, and had to be adopted by statute (32 Henry VIII.). Finally, the Married Women's Property Act of 1883 is a practical monument of the victory of the Chancery and Roman law view as to the status of a married woman over the barbarous code in which her personalty was merged in that of her husband. The lay Chancellors who succeeded Sir Thomas More down to Lord Nottingham, *i.e.*, from 1532 to 1673, contrasted unfavourably with the clerical founders of the great edifice. The Reformation interrupted the traditions of the office, and broke up the study of civil law; in the want of precedents the Chancellors relied too much on intuition and common sense (as Lord Shaftesbury, in a more settled time, 1672, essayed to do, to his own discomfiture). This explains Selden's famous reproach, half-jesting, no doubt, "Equity is a roguish thing . . . . 'Tis all one as if we should make the standard for the measure of a foot the Chancellor's foot. One Chancellor has a long foot; another, a short foot; a third, an indifferent foot." The Tudor Chancellors certainly seem to have deferred to the personal leanings of the sovereign. But no such reproach could be made of this or the last century, when equity became as much "a laboured connected system, governed by established rules, and bound down by precedents, as the common law" (Lord Eldon). Still the abuses of the court were numerous, and some of them had reached a monstrous pitch. Venality was the old canker of the court, and the memory of Bacon's offence was revived by similar charges against Lord Clarendon, by the impeachment of Lord Somers (1700) for corruption, by the flagitious sale of Church patronage by Sir N. Wright, till the accumulated popular indignation burst upon Lord Macclesfield, who was dismissed and heavily fined in 1725 for misuse of the "suitors' fund" and open sale of offices. But even had every official had clean hands, the abuses of delay and prolixity would have remained an intolerable burden. The Restoration gave these abuses a fresh lease of life; the use of English was not enacted till 1730, nor registries till Anne's reign, and then only for Yorkshire and Middlesex. Meantime, the abolition of the ancient Courts of Wards and of Requests, increased the business, which accumulated with the wonderful growth of wealth and population in George III.'s reign, and with the proverbial dilatoriness of Lord Eldon, who held the seal almost continuously from 1801 to 1827. Even the new office of Vice-Chancellor of England, established in 1813, failed to relieve the congestion of causes, because an appeal lay against him to the Chancellor. A successful commission was at last appointed in 1825, whose labours were not wholly thwarted either by the apathy of Eldon or the presence of a number of Chancery lawyers; for the energy of Brougham, Campbell, and Westbury in time carried out these reforms, and that which was a necessary preliminary to them, the simplification and amendment of the law of real property. Queen Victoria's reign and preceding ones did more for these objects than all the previous centuries put together; additional Vice-Chancellors and clerks have been appointed, a court of appeal established, the common law side of the court and its bankruptcy business transferred elsewhere, the suitors' fund re-arranged, and the procedure gradually simplified, while the court has been empowered (1858) to impose damages, try matters of fact by a jury, and take a judge as assessor without application to a common law court. When, about the same period (1854), common law courts were given the powers of an equity court as to examination of parties, discovery of documents, injunctions, &c., it became clear that the two ancient rivals were approximating to each other, and would soon be prepared to be reconciled or even amalgamated. The bill (1860) for this purpose was cut down by the influence of the Chancery lords; but in 1873 the Judicature Act was passed, which followed the advice of Lords Brougham, Westbury, and St. Leonards, and harmonised, without attempting completely to fuse, the two systems.

In IRELAND, there was a Lord Chancellor presiding over a separate court of equity, the growth of which has followed very closely the development of the English equity system. The earliest Chancellor was Stephen Ridel, appointed in 1189. In SCOTLAND, the functions of the Chancellor's Court in the

thirteenth century were probably not very different from those of the same office in England. But as the Civil Law formed the basis of the Scottish legal system, the Chancellor became the chief administrator of law, not of an equitable system. In 1553, when the Court of Session was established, he became the chief judge of this court. In Scotland till the Reformation he was generally a churchman; and afterwards became a mere officer of state. On the union with England his separate functions were merged in those of the English Lord Chancellor.

[A. L. S.]

LORD HIGH CHANCELLORS AND LORD KEEPERS OF ENGLAND.

Arfastus (Herefast)		1068
Osbert, Bishop of Exeter		1070
Osmund, Bishop of Salisbury		1073
Maurice		1078
William Welson, Bishop of Thetford		1083
William Giffard		1086
Robert Bloet		1090
Waldric		1093
William Giffard		1094
Roger, Bishop of Salisbury		1101
William Giffard		1103
Waldric		1104
Arnulfh		1107
Geoffrey Rufus		1124
Roger of Salisbury		1135
Philip		1139
Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury		1142
Thomas Becket		1154
Ralph de Warneville		1173
Geoffrey Plantagenet, Archbishop of York		1182
William de Longchamp		1189
Eustace, Bishop of Ely		1198
Hubert Walter, Archbishop of Canterbury		1199
Walter de Grey, Archbishop of York		1205
Peter des Roches, Bishop of Winchester		1213
Walter de Grey	Jan.	1214
Richard de Marisco	Oct.	1214
Ralph Neville		1218
Simon de Cantilupe		1238
Richard, Abbot of Evesham		1240
Silvester of Eversden		1242
John Mansel		1246
William de Kilkenny		1250
Henry Wingham, Bishop of London		1255
Walter de Merton, Bishop of Rochester		1258
Nicholas of Ely		1260
Walter de Merton		1261
Nicholas of Ely		1263
Thomas de Cantilupe	Feb.	1265
Walter Giffard	Aug.	1265
Godfrey Giffard		1266
John Chishull		1268
Richard Middleton		1269
John Kirkeby		1272
Walter de Merton		1272
Robert Burnell		1274
John Langton		1292
William Greenfield		1302
William Hamilton		1304
Ralph Baldock		1307
John Langton		1307
Walter Reynolds, Bishop of Worcester		1310
John Sandale		1314
John Hotham, Bishop of Ely		1318
John Salmon, Bishop of Norwich		1320
Robert Baldock		1323
John Hotham	Jan.	1327
Henry de Clyff	Mar.	1327
Henry de Burghersh, Bishop of Lincoln	May	1327
John Stratford, Bishop of Winchester		1330
Richard Bury, Bishop of Durham		1334
John Stratford, Archbishop of Canterbury		1335
Robert Stratford		1337
Richard Bynterworth, Bishop of London		1338
Archbishop Stratford	Ap.	1340
Robert Stratford, Bishop of Chichester	July	1340
William Kildesby	Dec.	1340
Sir Robert Bourchier	Dec. 14	1340
Sir Robert Parnyng		1341
Robert Sadyngton		1343
John Ufford		1345
John Thoresby, Bishop of St. Davids		1349
William Edington, Bishop of Winchester		1356
Simon Langham, Bishop of Ely		1363
Wilham of Wykeham, Bishop of Winchester		1367
Sir Robert Thorpe		1371
Sir Richard Scrope		1372
Sir John Knyvett	July	1372
Adam Houghton, Bishop of St. Davids		1377
Sir R. Scrope		1378
Simon of Sudbury, Archbishop of Canterbury		1379
Richard, Earl of Arundel		1381
Robert Braybrooke, Bishop of London		1382
Sir Michael de la Pole		1383
Thomas Arundel, Archbishop of Canterbury		1386
William of Wykeham		1389
Archbishop Arundel		1391
Edmund Stafford, Bishop of Exeter		1396
Archbishop Arundel		1399
John Scarle		1399
Edmund Stafford		1401
Henry Beaufort, Bishop of Lincoln		1403
Thomas Langley, Bishop of Durham		1405
Thomas Arundel		1407
Thomas Beaufort Earl of Dorset		1410
Archbishop Arundel		1412
Henry Beaufort, Bishop of Winchester		1413
Bishop Longley		1417
Simon Gaunstede		1422
Henry Beaufort		1424
John Kemp, Bishop of London		1426
John Stafford, Bishop of Bath and Wells		1432
John Kemp, Archbishop of York		1450
Richard Neville, Earl of Salisbury		1454
Thos. Bourchier, Archbishop of Canterbury		1455
William of Waynflete, Bishop of Winchester		1456
Thos. Bourchier, Archbishop of Canterbury		1460
George Neville, Bishop of Exeter		1460
Robert Kirkeham		1463
Robert Stillington, Bishop of Bath and Wells		1467
Laurence Booth, Bishop of Durham		1473
Thomas Rotheram, Bishop of Lincoln		1475
John Russell, Bishop of Lincoln		1483
Thomas Barowe		1485
Bishop Alcock		1485
Archbishop Morton		1487
Henry Deane		1500
William Warham, Archbishop of Canterbury		1504
Cardinal Wolsey		1525
Sir Thomas More		1529
Sir Thomas Audley		1532
Thomas, Lord Wriothesley		1544
William Paulet, Lord St. John		1547
Richard, Lord Rich		1547
Thomas Goodrich, Bishop of Ely		1551
Stephen Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester		1553
Nicholas Heath, Archbishop of York		1556
Sir Nicholas Bacon		1558
Sir Thomas Bromley		1579
Sir Christopher Hatton		1587
William Cecil, Lord Burleigh		1591
Sir John Puckering		1592
Sir Thomas Egerton		1596
Sir Francis Bacon		1617
John Williams, Bishop of Lincoln		1621
Sir Thomas Coventry		1625
Sir John Finch		1640
Sir Edward Lyttelton		1641
Sir Richard Lane		1645
Great Seal in Commission		1649—1660
Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon		1660
Sir Orlando Bridgeman		1667
Anthony Ashley, Earl of Shaftesbury		1672
Heneage Finch, Lord Nottingham		1675
Francis North, Lord Guildford		1682
George, Lord Jeffreys		1685
Great Seal in Commission		1689—1693
John, Lord Somers		1693

Sir Nathan Wright		1700
William, Lord Cowper		1705
Simon, Lord Harcourt		1710
Lord Cowper		1714
Thomas, Lord Parker		1718
Peter, Lord King		1725
Charles, Lord Talbot		1733
Philip Yorke, Lord Hardwicke		1737
Robert, Lord Henley		1757
Charles, Lord Camden		1766
Charles Yorke, Lord Morden		1770
Henry Bathurst, Lord Apsley		1771
Edward, Lord Thurlow		1778
Alexander, Lord Loughborough		1793
John Scott, Lord Eldon		1801
Thomas, Lord Erskine		1806
Lord Eldon		1807
John Singleton Copley, Lord Lyndhurst		1827
Henry, Lord Brougham		1830
Lord Lyndhurst		1834
Charles Pepys, Lord Cottenham		1836
Lord Lyndhurst		1841
Lord Cottenham		1846
Thomas Wilde, Lord Truro		1850
Edward Sugden, Lord St. Leonards	Feb. 27	1852
Robert Rolfe, Lord Cranworth	Dec. 18	1852
Frederic Thesiger, Lord Chelmsford		1858
John, Lord Campbell		1859
Richard Bethell, Lord Westbury		1861
Lord Cranworth		1865
Lord Chelmsford		1866
Hugh Cairns, Lord Cairns		1868
William Page Wood, Lord Hatherley		1868
Roundell Palmer, Lord Selborne		1872
Earl Cairns		1874
Earl Selborne		1880
Hardinge, Lord Halsbury		1885
Farrer, Lord Herschell		1886
Lord Halsbury		1887
Lord Herschell		1892
Lord Halsbury		1895
Lord Loreburn		1905

Chandos, Sir John (*d.* 1369), was one of the most famous of the English generals during the French wars of Edward III.'s reign. In 1362 he was appointed Constable of Guienne, and in 1364 was sent over to Brittany to assist De Montfort, where he took Du Guesclin prisoner. In 1369 he was made Seneschal of Poitou, and in the same year fell in a skirmish.

Chandos of Sudeley (Sir John Brydges), Lord, accompanied Henry VIII. to France, 1513, when quite a boy. He greatly distinguished himself at the Battle of the Spurs (q.v.), and in 1549 successfully defended Boulogne, of which he was deputy governor, against the French. He subsequently became Lieutenant of the Tower, and had the custody of Lady Jane Grey and the Princess Elizabeth. He was a bigoted Papist, and assisted Mary in her persecution of the Reformers.

Channel Islands, The, comprise the Bailiwicks of Jersey and Guernsey, the latter of which includes Sark, Herm, and Alderney, together with some small outlying islets. They are interesting as being the last portion of the dukedom of Normandy remaining to England, which has possessed them ever since the Norman Conquest. In 550 they were granted by Childebert to a Saxon bishop, who soon afterwards converted most of the inhabitants to Christianity. The Channel Islands came into the possession of the Dukes of Normandy in the tenth century by the grant of Charles IV., and remained attached to the English crown when Philip II. conquered the rest of Normandy from King John. After the loss of Normandy by John, the Channel Islands were attacked by the French in the reign of Edward I., and again in that of Edward III., when Du Guesclin, the Constable of France, almost succeeded in reducing them. In the reign of Henry IV., they did fall into the hands of the French for a short time, but were retaken shortly afterwards by Sir Henry Harleston. Under Edward VI., Sark was also lost for a time. Towards the close of the sixteenth century, the Channel Islands were governed by Sir Walter Raleigh. During the Parliamentary wars, Jersey espoused warmly the side of the king, for which the government was put in commission by Cromwell. In 1779 the French made an ineffectual attempt to land, and in December, 1780, sent another expedition, under the Baron de Rullecourt, who succeeded in taking St. Helier in Jersey, although he was subsequently defeated and slain by the British troops. At the Reformation the islands adopted a Protestantism of the Genevan type, but were eventually reconciled to Anglicanism by Bishop Andrewes, and are part of the diocese of Winchester. Though under governors appointed by the crown, they have constitutions of their own. Jersey and Guernsey (with its dependencies) have each a lieutenant-governor and also a bailiff, who presides over the States of Deliberation, and is nominated by the crown. The States of Deliberation of Jersey and Guernsey respectively are composed of certain officials—the rectors of parishes, the judges of the courts, and elected representatives. In Guernsey the election is very indirect; in Jersey the representation is more of a popular character. The courts of justice are presided over by the bailiff, and by elective judges. This constitution has existed with but little alteration since the time of John. Guernsey is divided into ten parishes, and Jersey into twelve, some of which are included in municipal corporations. The official language of the courts (whose procedure is based on the Norman) and of the legislature is still French. The King's writ runs in the Channel Islands.

Duncan, *Hist. of Guernsey*; Inglis, *Channel Islands*; Ansted, *Channel Islands*.

Chapter, The, is the body of clergy attached to the cathedral. Originally, this body was the assembly of the priests of the diocese round their bishop. It was the bishop's general council, and contained within it the bishop's officials for the administration of the diocese, and the clergy who had the care of the services of the cathedral itself.

The chapter in the bishop's council soon fell into disuse, and the name was applied almost entirely to the clergy of the cathedral church itself, who soon gained a position almost independent of their bishop. Chapters in England were of two kinds—monastic and secular [CATHEDRAL]. The monastic chapters were like monasteries, over which the bishop ranked as abbot, though the resident prior was the real head. These monks were in England Benedictines, except in the case of Carlisle, where they were Augustinians. In the secular chapters, the dean rises into prominence in the eleventh century. The work of his diocese, the necessity of constant journeys, and the increase of secular business undertaken by the bishop left the cathedrals without a head, and the chapters everywhere began to manage their business without their bishop. The theory that the chapter elected the bishops gave them at times a position of some importance, both towards the king and the Pope. Chapters frequently appealed to Rome against their bishops, and often were successful in obtaining privileges from the Pope. The separation of the chapter from the bishop became more and more definite, till the bishop was left with no powers save those of visitor over his chapter. The chief officers of the secular chapter were: the *dean*, who was head of the body; the *precentor*, who superintended the services; the *chancellor*, who was head of the educational and literary works of the chapter; and the *treasurer*, who had the care of all the treasures of the Church. Besides those there were the *archdeacons*, who were the sole survivors of the diocesan organisation of the chapter. Its other members were *canons*, as bound by the rule, or *prebendaries*, if they held an endowment besides their share of the corporate fund. This last body was generally non-resident, and their duties were performed by *vicars*, who are now called *vicars-choral* or *minor canons*. Under Henry VIII. the monasteries attached to the cathedrals were suppressed, and their chapters were refounded as secular chapters under a dean. After the same model the cathedrals of the new bishoprics founded by Henry VIII. were arranged. Hence came the two classes—*Cathedrals of the Old Foundation* and *Cathedrals of the New Foundation*. [CATHEDRAL.] An Act of 1838 reformed cathedral chapters by diminishing the number of canons, reducing their incomes, and bringing all chapters to greater uniformity. Chapters at present generally consist of a dean and four canons, though some of the richer cathedrals have six canons.

Walcott, *Cathedralia; Essays on Cathedrals*, edited by Dean Howson; *Report of the Cathedrals Commission*.

[M. C.]

Charford, near Fordingbridge, in Hampshire, has been identified with Cerdicesford, the site of a battle, in which, in 519, Cerdic and Cymric defeated the Britons. Another fight in 527 may have taken place at the same spot.

Anglo-Saxon Chron.; **Henry of Huntingdon,** *Hist. Anglor.*

Charlemont, JAMES CAULFIELD, 1ST EARL OF (*b.* 1728, *d.* 1799), was elected by the Irish Volunteers "General of the Patriot Army," in July, 1780. Soon after, he reviewed them in the north. In 1781 he opposed Catholic Emancipation, and was one of the leaders in the first and second conventions at Dungannon, and president of the Dublin convention. He went over to England with the Regency Bill, and signed the "Round Robin" of 1789. He was also the founder of the Northern Whig Club. On his estates the rebellion of 1798 assumed a peculiarly dangerous form. Mr. Froude speaks of him as "the most enthusiastic and the most feeble of revolutionary heroes."

Charles I., KING (*b.* Nov. 19, 1600, *s.* March 25, 1625, *d.* Jan. 31, 1649), second son of James I. and of Anne, daughter of Frederick II., King of Denmark, was born at Dunfermline. He was a handsome and athletic youth, with reserved and diffident manners. James's brilliant favourite, Buckingham, gained complete ascendency over him, and in 1623 the two young men went to Madrid, with the object of bringing back with them, as Charles's bride, the Infanta. Buckingham, who had expected that he would readily prevail on the Spaniards to effect the restoration of the Palatinate, soon discovered his mistake; but the prince, unwilling to return home foiled in his object, refused to leave the country, making promises that it was impossible for him to perform, and allowing the Spaniards to suppose that he would become a Catholic. At last, finding that if he married the Infanta he would not be allowed to take her to England until his promises were performed, he returned, along with Buckingham, to England. In opposition to promises made to Parliament, Charles gained the hand of Henrietta Maria, sister of Louis XIII. of France, by consenting that the laws against English Catholics should not be enforced. Shortly before the marriage was consummated, James died, and Charles ascended the throne. Thus, he began his reign under ill auspices. He had made to Parliament and to the King of Franc promises incompatible with one another, and he was under the guidance of a man whose temerity and self-confidence were about to involve his country in a series of military disasters. Charles dissolved his two first Parliaments because they refused to support the policy of the duke. To war with Spain was added war with France. Money was raised by means of a forced loan, and persons refusing to lend were imprisoned. In 1628 a third Parliament met. Charles

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CHARLES I.

From the engraving by T. Smith, after the painting by Van Dyck.

made concessions to public opinion by passing the Petition of Right (q.v.). Soon after the prorogation of Parliament, Buckingham was murdered by Felton; and the king for the future himself directed the policy of his government. Though Buckingham was removed, there was small hope of good understanding between Charles and the nation. Charles had no desire to make alterations in government. He, indeed, prided himself, when involved in any dispute with a subject, on having the law on his side; but he was content to rest his case on legal subterfuges, or to obtain his end by the appointment of subservient judges. Moreover, while he claimed the right to nominate ministers at will, and to pursue whatever policy seemed good to himself, he failed to perceive that the authority of his predecessors had remained unquestioned only when they had ruled in accordance with national desires and aspirations. Charles had no sympathy for the holders of Calvin's creed, who formed the majority of thoughtful and earnest men at that time. Within the Church had grown up a small party, the so-called Arminians, holding doctrines akin to those of the Church of Rome. Each party desired to suppress the other, and Charles, who favoured the Arminians, was incapable of holding the balance evenly between the two. Parliament met again in 1629, only to be angrily dissolved, because the Commons refused to give the king a grant of tonnage and poundage until he should consent to pursue the Church policy approved by them.

For eleven years Charles ruled without Parliaments. His government became intensely unpopular. Peace was made with both France and Spain; but it was difficult to provide for the ordinary expenses out of the fixed revenue, and hence old rights of the crown were once more enforced, and money raised by means which brought little into the exchequer, while they irritated large numbers of persons. The system culminated in the imposition of ship-money, when Charles, being desirous of having a fleet in the Channel, imposed what was really a heavy tax on the country. North of the Humber, the Court of the North, under the presidency of Lord Wentworth, in the south, the Court of Star Chamber, punished by fines and imprisonment persons who refused to submit to demands of which the legality was questionable. At the same time, under the direction of Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury, an ecclesiastical policy was pursued which ran directly contrary to the current of popular feeling, and rendered both the bishops and the Court of High Commission objects of general odium. The attempt to impose a Church service, similar to the English, in Presbyterian Scotland, led to the rising in arms of the Scots. Charles summoned Wentworth, now created Earl of Strafford, to his side from Ireland, and called a Parliament, which he dissolved in three weeks, because it refused to support him in carrying on war against the Scots. The advance of a Scottish army into the kingdom compelled him in the autumn of this year (1641) to summon another—the celebrated Long Parliament.

Charles was for the time unable to resist the demands of the popular representatives. He gave his consent to whatever bills were offered to him, and passed a bill of attainder against his faithful servant Strafford, to whom he had promised that not a hair of his head should be injured. [STRAFFORD; LONG PARLIAMENT.] In 1641 he went to Scotland, with the object of forming a royalist party there, and on his return to London went in person to the House of Commons, to arrest five members, whom he accused of high treason (Jan. 3, 1642). [FIVE MEMBERS.] The attempt having failed, he left London, to prepare for war; and on Aug. 22 the royal standard was unfurled at Nottingham. A considerable army soon gathered round him. Men who thought that the concessions already made were sufficient to prevent abuse of the royal authority, as well as all lovers of the existing form of Church service, took his side. At Edgehill, his cavalry, composed of country gentlemen, readily proved its superiority to the Parliamentarian horse. But want of subordination prevented his officers acting in union, and deprived him of victory. Charles could not maintain discipline himself, nor did he depute authority to those who possessed the art. High commands were given to the wrong men, and officers were allowed to act independently of one another. Hence, the royal strategy broke down, while the gallantry of individuals was spent in vain against the disciplined troops that Cromwell brought into the field. The passing of the Self-Denying Ordinance (q.v.) placed all the forces of the Parliament under the control of the Independents. Led by Fairfax and Cromwell, the remodelled army destroyed at Naseby (June 14, 1645) the last army which Charles was able to bring into the field. The king now authorised Glamorgan to conclude a secret treaty with the Irish Catholics, promising to allow them the free exercise of their religion if they would place 20,000 men at his service (Aug. 12). In April, 1646, to avoid being made a prisoner by the Parliament's officers, Charles took refuge with the Scotch army near Newark. The Scots, however, were not ready to take the part of the king while he refused to allow the establishment of a Presbyterian Church in England; and on the withdrawal of their army into Scotland in January, 1647, they surrendered him into the power of the English Parliament.

The Parliament demanded of Charles that he should abandon his right to appoint either ministers of state or officers of the militia,

and that he should consent to the establishment of the Presbyterian Church in England. On the other hand, the Independents were willing that Episcopacy should be maintained, if toleration were granted to Dissenters. Charles expected to be able to play one party off against the other, and by such means to recover the whole of his former prerogatives. During the war, he had negotiated at once with Presbyterians, Independents, and Irish Catholics; and, in spite of the distrust that his conduct excited, he still pursued the same course. From Hampton Court, where he was under the charge of the army, he fled to the Isle of Wight, and put himself under the protection of Colonel Hammond, the governor of Carisbrooke Castle. Here he concluded a secret treaty with the Scots, promising to establish the Presbyterian Church in England for three years if they would send an army into England to restore him to his throne. The Civil War again revived; zealots rose in arms, while the Scots, led by the Duke of Hamilton, crossed the border. Fairfax suppressed the Royalists, while Cromwell crushed the invaders at Warrington, in Lancashire (Aug. 19, 1648). The army returned to London, demanding that Charles should pay with his life for the blood that he had caused to be shed. The Commons, forcibly purged of the more moderate Presbyterians, voted that it was treason for the King of England to levy war against the Parliament and the kingdom, and passed an ordinance for instituting a High Court of Justice, composed of men of their own party. As the House of Lords refused to take part in the proceedings, they further resolved that whatever is enacted by the Commons has the force of law without the consent of the king or the House of Peers. The trial was held publicly in Westminster Hall. One hundred and thirty-five judges had been named on the ordinance; but only about eighty, amongst whom were Cromwell and Ireton, attended the sittings of the court. Bradshaw, Cromwell's cousin, presided. Charles was accused of having endeavoured to overturn the liberties of the people, and of being a tyrant, traitor, and murderer. He refused persistently to answer to the charge, on the ground that the court had no lawful authority derived from the people of England by which to try him. Sentence of death was pronounced against him; and on Jan. 30, 1649, he was executed on a scaffold raised in front of the Banqueting House at Whitehall, in presence of a vast crowd, which, had the decision rested with it, would eagerly have delivered him from death. [Great Rebellion; Commonwealth; Long Parliament.]

Internal affairs during the reign of Charles I. are best studied in the *Calendars of State Papers* (Domestic Series). The *Hardwicke Papers* contain materials relating to the French and Spanish matches, the expedition to the Isle of Rhé, and the Scotch troubles of 1637—41. The *Memorials and Letters* published by Sir Daniel Dalrymple; *The Court and Times of Charles I.*, by Thomas Birch; Halliwell's *Letters of the Kings of England*; *The Letters of Charles I. to Henrietta Maria*, edited for the Camden Society by John Bruce; *The Arrest of the Five Members*, by John Forster—are works which throw light on the character of the king and the motives of his actions. A Royalist account of the years 1644 and 1645, and of the negotiations carried on in the Isle of Wight in 1648, is to be found in Sir Edward Walker's *Historical Discourses*; and of the king's personal history during the last two years of his life, in Sir Thomas Herbert's *Memoirs*. For modern accounts see Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*; and esp. S. R. Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng. 1603—1642*, 10 vols., 1883–84.

[B. M. G.]

Charles II., King (*b.* May 29, 1630, *s.* May 8, 1660, *d.* Feb. 6, 1685), was the eldest son of Charles I. and Henrietta Maria. In his ninth year he was created Prince of Wales, and when the Civil War broke out he accompanied his father at the battle of Edgehill. In 1644 he was the nominal head of the royal forces in the west of England; but on the decline of the royal cause he was obliged to retire to Scilly, to Jersey, and eventually to France. When matters appeared to be drawing to extremity with the king, several of the ships of the Parliament went over to the prince, who made some attempts to blockade the Thames, and even landed near Deal, but was soon obliged to withdraw to Holland, whence, in the hope of saving his father's life, he despatched to the intending regicides a paper signed and sealed, but otherwise blank, for them to insert their own conditions. On the death of his father in January, 1649, Charles assumed the title of king, and in February he was proclaimed King of Scotland at Edinburgh. In 1650 he came over to Scotland, and, having taken the Covenant, was crowned at Scone on January 1, 1651. Charles exhibited courage and conduct in opposing Cromwell's troops before Edinburgh, but his cause was hopeless from the first, owing to the discord among his supporters. He suddenly determined to leave Scotland and march into England, and succeeded in getting as far as Worcester, where (September 3, 1651) he received so severe a defeat that his cause seemed utterly ruined. Charles escaped from the battle, and after an adventurous flight of forty-four days, through the western counties and along the south coast—during the early part of which he owed his safety entirely to the fidelity of a labouring family—he succeeded in finding a ship near Brighton, which landed him safely in France. For the next nine years he led a wandering life in France, Germany, and the Low Countries, sometimes relieved and sometimes repulsed, according as the various sovereigns or their ministers threw off or yielded to their dread of Cromwell. He was accompanied by a few faithful adherents; but his little court was also beset

by intriguing turbulent men and spies, who betrayed his counsels and caused the numerous attempted risings of his friends both in England and Scotland. At length, on the death of Cromwell, it became obvious to most persons in England that the only hope of establishing a settled form of government and of saving the country from a military despotism, lay in restoring the monarchy; and, chiefly through the instrumentality of General Monk, Charles was invited to return to England. He at once complied, and entered London in triumph on May 29, 1660, having previously signed the Declaration of Breda (q.v.). During the first years of his reign, when the king was largely under the guidance of Clarendon, matters went smoothly. The Parliament was ardently Royalist, and supported the English Church by passing stringent laws against Catholics and Dissenters; but the failure of the Dutch War in 1665, the maladministration of the government, and the misappropriation of the public money, led to the downfall of Clarendon (1667). In 1668 (January) Sir William Temple concluded the Triple Alliance between England, France, and Sweden. But the "Cabal" ministry speedily came into office, and reversed this policy for one of alliance with the French king and hostility to Holland. Finally, the infamous Treaty of Dover was signed (1670); Charles became a pensionary of Louis, and war was declared against Holland. The attempt of the king to get toleration for the Catholics by issuing a Declaration of Indulgence caused the passing of the Test Act (1673) by Parliament, and the consequent fall of the Cabal administration. With this began the great struggle between the king and the opposition, headed by Shaftesbury, during which Charles showed the greatest prudence. He yielded to the storm caused by the pretended Popish Plot (q.v.), but steadily refused to alter the succession by excluding his brother James. The violence and cruelty of the Whig leaders, together with the discovery of the Rye House Plot (q.v.), turned the tide in the king's favour. He gained a complete victory over his opponents, and was able for the last three years of his life to reign without Parliament and free from all opposition. In 1662 Charles married Catherine of Braganza, daughter of John of Portugal, but had no children by her. His private life was characterised by great profligacy, and he had a large number of mistresses, and no less than twelve illegitimate children, among whom were James, Duke of Monmouth; Henry Fitzroy (son of the Duchess of Cleveland), ancestor of the Dukes of Grafton; Charles Beauclerc (son of Nell Gwynn), ancestor of the Dukes of St. Albans; and Charles Lennox (son of the Duchess of Portsmouth), ancestor of the Dukes of Richmond. Charles, in spite of his licentiousness and his extreme selfishness, was possessed of much talent. The natural champion of the principle of hereditary right at a time when hereditary right was exposed to attack, Charles's position was one of considerable difficulty. He played his part dexterously, and with considerable ability, and it cannot be denied that he showed much capacity for governing.

Clarendon, *Life*, and Burnet, *Hist. of His Own Time*, both of which must be read with caution; Barillon's *Letters*, and Temple's *Works* (and especially the *Memoir from the Peace*), contain much information on the diplomatic history. See also Carte, *Life of Ormonde*, and Macpherson, *Stewart Papers*; Baxter, *Life and Times*; Reresby, *Memoirs*; Pepys, *Diary*; Evelyn, *Diary*; Shaftesbury, *Letters and Speeches* (ed. W. D. Christie); D'Avaux, *Negociations en Hollande*; Masson, *Life of Milton*. There is a brilliant sketch of the reign in Macaulay's *History*. The best general modern account is in Ranke's *Hist of Eng*.

[S. J. L.]

Charles, Edward. [Pretender, The Young.]

Charlotte Augusta, Princess (*b.* Jan. 7, 1796, *d.* Nov. 6, 1817), was the daughter of George IV. and Caroline of Brunswick. Owing to the disunion of her parents, her earlier years were passed in retirement, away from the court, under the care of the Dowager Duchess of Leeds, Lady Clifford, and the Bishop of Exeter. She early gave proofs of a noble character and intellectual qualities above the average. She was destined by her father to marry William, Prince of Orange; but her own affections had been fixed on Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, who became, in 1830, King of the Belgians. Yielding to her father's desire, the princess agreed to marry the Prince of Orange, and the betrothal was arranged between them, when the princess broke off the match, partly in anger at her father's conduct to her mother, partly because of her repugnance to the prince. In 1815 she was married to Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, and in the following year (Nov.) died in giving birth to a son, who did not survive her. Her death caused great grief throughout the entire nation

Charmouth is a village on the Dorsetshire coast, about two miles from Lyme Regis. In 836 Egbert was defeated here by the Danes, and in 840 his son Ethelwulf met with a like disaster at the same place.

Charnock, Robert (*d.* 1696), a Fellow of Magdalen College, Oxford, became a Roman Catholic, and supported James in his illegal ejection of the Protestant Fellows of his college by means of the Court of High Commission. After the Revolution, he became one of the most active of the Jacobite conspirators, and was among the chief organisers of the Assassination Plot (1696). He was arrested, and his trial began on March 11. The new Act for regulating

procedure in cases of high treason was not to come into force until the 25th. It allowed the prisoner to examine his witnesses on oath, compel their attendance at court, and have the service of counsel. The prisoners, Charnock, King, and Keyes, claimed, not without reason, to have their trial postponed till that date. Their request was, however, refused, and they were all condemned. Charnock left behind him a paper in which he justified the plot, on the ground that William was a usurper, and by an appeal to the laws of human society. [Assassination Plot.]

Charter, The Great, &c. [Magna Carta, &c.]

Charter Schools (Ireland). In 1730, an association, with the primate, Archbishop Boulter, and the Lord Chancellor, at its head, was formed to provide Protestant education gratis for the Catholic poor. Before that time, in spite of a statute of Henry VIII., Protestants had to rely on private enterprise entirely as far as education was concerned. In 1733 a charter was granted to the association, but only on condition that the endowment was not to exceed £2,000 a year. On Oct. 24, 1733, the corporation began its work; day-schools and boarding-schools were established. They were really industrial schools. After five years' schooling, children were bound out as apprentices at the expense of the society (girls got a small portion on marrying), and the whole cost of education for one child came, in the day-schools, to only £9 per annum. The boarding-schools increased from four to fifty, and George II. granted £1,000 from his privy purse in their support. The day-schools soon came to an end, but the boarding-schools were supported by parliamentary grants after 1745, when a special tax was devoted to this object. Altogether, by 1767, £112,000 had been devoted to the Charter schools. In 1750, parents were forbidden to take back their children, when once they had entered, and thus to prevent their becoming Protestants. Soon afterwards the society was allowed to take up all children between five and twelve found loitering about, and put them into their schools. However, by 1757, whether it was on account of the determination of the Catholics not to be enticed into changing their children's religion, or for other reasons, it became clear that the Charter schools were a failure. Howard, in 1758, investigated this school system, and brought to light great abuses; a parliamentary committee appointed in consequence found children who had been at school for twelve years unable to spell. Still, for twenty-five years after the Union they continued to exist, and vast sums were spent on the education of some 2,000 children. Mr. Froude calls the Charter schools "the best-conceived educational institutions which existed in the world," while Mr. Lecky says of them that they "excited in Ireland an intensity of bitterness hardly equalled by any portion of the penal code." Of one thing there can be no doubt: they completely failed in their object—the conversion of the Irish peasantry to Protestantism.

Stevens, *The Charter Schools;* Froude, *English in Ireland;* Lecky, *Hist. of Eng. in the Eighteenth Century,* vol. ii.

Chartists (1838—48) was the name given to the members of a party in England who supported certain reforms which were generally known as the "People's Charter." The Charter consisted of six points, viz.: (1) manhood suffrage; (2) equal electoral districts; (3) vote by ballot; (4) annual Parliaments; (5) abolition of property qualification for members; (6) payment of members. These points seem first to have been urged together at a meeting held at Birmingham on August 6, 1838, where the chief speakers were Attwood, Scholefield, and Feargus O'Connor. A similar meeting was held in London in the following September. During the following year the cause was advocated by tumultuous meetings and processions, which had to be put down by the law, and a petition, the size of a coach-wheel, said to be signed by a million and a quarter petitioners, was rolled into the House of Commons. Riots took place at Birmingham, Newcastle, and Newport. Feargus O'Connor was arrested. On May 2, 1842, another monster petition, purporting to contain more than three million signatures, was brought to the House of Commons. Mr. T. Duncombe proposed that the petitioners should be heard at the bar by counsel, while Macaulay, Peel, and Roebuck spoke on the other side. After this the agitation slumbered till 1848, when a huge meeting was held on Kennington Common on April 10. The intention was to carry to the House of Commons a monster petition with five million signatures. There was great fear lest London should be the scene of a rising, and the Duke of Wellington took measures for protecting the Bank, Custom House, Exchange, Post Office, and other public buildings. A quarter of a million inhabitants of London were enrolled as special constables. The duke disposed his troops with masterly skill, so as to keep them out of sight. The meeting proved a failure, owing to dissensions between the leaders of the Chartists, and no disturbance took place. Similar precautions were again taken in June, but the threatened demonstration ended in smoke. On August 16 an arrest of armed Chartists was made at the "Orange Tree" public-house, in Orange Street, London, and some more in Green Street. It was understood that there was a plot to attack the different clubs about midnight, and also the principal buildings in the metropolis. The chief ringleaders were tried and punished. This latter outbreak of Chartism was connected with the revolu-

tionary disturbances which took place throughout Europe in 1849. After this, Chartism expired, and agitation took a different form. It is strange that reforms so unequal in importance, and some of them so little calculated to effect the end aimed at by their promoters, should have been advocated with such an amount of passion.

Annual Register; S. Walpole, *Hist. of Eng.*; McCarthy, *Hist. of Our Own Times.*

[O. B.]

Chartley Manor, in Staffordshire, was at one time the place of Mary Queen of Scots' imprisonment. In 1585—86 she was at her own request removed here from the care of Sir Amyas Paulet at Tutbury. Chartley was well known to Walsingham's spy Gifford, and this afforded the latter exceptional facilities for copying the treasonable correspondence of the captive queen.

Chatham was a village of small importance till the establishment of a dockyard and naval arsenal in the time of Queen Elizabeth, when preparations were being made to resist the Spanish Armada. The dockyards were improved under Charles I. and the Commonwealth, and the fortifications strengthened after the attack of the Dutch in 1667. These were enlarged and strengthened between 1757 and 1808, and during the nineteenth century Chatham was rendered one of the most important dockyards and strongest naval fortresses in the world.

Chatham, William Pitt, 1st Earl of (*b.* Nov. 15, 1708, *d.* May 11, 1778), was the grandson of a former governor of Madras, who had returned to England to buy estates and rotten boroughs, one of which, Old Sarum, he represented in Parliament. His son Robert succeeded him, and sat in turn for the two boroughs of Old Sarum and Okehampton. Of Robert Pitt's two sons, William was the younger. He was educated at Eton and at Trinity College, Oxford, but he left Oxford, without taking a degree, to travel on the Continent on account of the gout, to which he was throughout his life a victim. He came back from his tour to find his father dead and himself but slenderly provided for. As a profession he chose the army, and obtained a cornetcy in the Blues; but his family interest in 1735 procured for him the seat of Old Sarum. In April, 1736, the Prince of Wales married Augusta, Princess of Saxe Gotha; and it was on the address which was presented to the king on this occasion that Pitt took the opportunity of delivering his first speech, which made a deep impression on the House. This impression was soon justified, as he became so troublesome to the government, that Sir Robert Walpole dismissed him from the army. The Prince of Wales, however, recompensed him by making him his Groom of the Bedchamber, from which position he could in security declaim against the peace policy of the ministry. In 1742 Walpole resigned; and it was for some time doubtful who would succeed him. Pitt seems to have made overtures to Walpole, which the retiring minister rejected. In the new government that was formed under Carteret, Pitt was entirely left out. He vented his disappointment in the fiercest invectives against Walpole, and in advocating the most violent measures for his prosecution. All his violence failed to injure Sir Robert, now the Earl of Orford, who retired into private life, and left Pitt free to transfer his attacks to Carteret, who now held the reins. The chief object of his indignation was the prevailing method of subsidising with English money petty German States, for the benefit of the family estates of the House of Brunswick. The old Duchess of Marlborough died in October, 1744, and left Pitt a legacy of £10,000 "in consideration of the noble defence he had made for the laws of England, and to prevent the ruin of his country." But Pitt's ambition did not lie in the direction of money; and on the elevation of Carteret to the House of Lords he saw a chance of advancement. To take advantage, however, of the chance, it was necessary for him to conciliate the king; and he accordingly resigned his office in the household of the Prince of Wales, and by the exertions of the Pelhams, against the king's wishes, he was appointed early in 1746 to the post of Paymaster of the Forces. The government continued in security until the death of Henry Pelham, in 1754, threw it into confusion. It devolved on the Duke of Newcastle to form a ministry. His great difficulty was as to the leadership of the House of Commons; and the rival claims of Pitt and Fox to that office were settled by a compromise in the person of Sir Thomas Robinson, an inoffensive mediocrity. Pitt was appointed secretary of state, and Fox retired to the lucrative Pay Office; but before a year was over they had combined to render their leader so ridiculous that Newcastle was compelled to make a change. Pitt was intractable on the subject of subsidies; and the duke turned to Fox, who became secretary of state, with the entire lead of the House of Commons and the management of the funds for corruption. On the resignation of Newcastle, in November, 1756, the Duke of Devonshire succeeded him as first lord of the Treasury, with Pitt as first secretary of state and virtual prime minister. The ministry was odious to the king, who said that he was not a king while he was "in the hands of these scoundrels;" and in April, 1757, Pitt and Lord Temple were dismissed from their offices. But the contumely which Pitt had experienced from the court only served to raise him in the estimation of the country at large. The freedom of the City was granted to him; all the great towns of England

followed the example set by the Corporation of London; and "for some weeks," says Walpole, "it rained gold boxes." During his short term of office Pitt found time and courage to pass several important measures, including his bold scheme of pacifying the discontented Highlanders by embodying them in the regular army. Newcastle having failed to form a ministry, an agreement was at length arrived at between the duke and Pitt, through the mediation of Lord Chesterfield. The king, however, refused to receive Pitt as a minister, and persuaded Lord Waldegrave to accept with great reluctance the premiership. But without Pitt it was impossible for any ministry to work; and Lord Waldegrave's broke up almost before it was formed. The king was obliged to yield to necessity. Newcastle took the Treasury; Pitt became secretary of state, with the lead of the Lower House; and Fox was silenced by the gains of the Pay Office. Pitt had told the Duke of Devonshire that he was sure he could save the country, and that no one else could. And he lost no time in setting about the task. His early plans, however, were not attended with success. An expedition against Rochefort failed through the bad management of the land forces. In Germany, Cumberland was compelled to sign the humiliating Convention of Kloster-Seven. In India, the conspicuous success of Clive in some measure compensated for these misfortunes. The war was vigorously carried on throughout 1758 in every part of the globe where Frenchmen could be found; still the year was marked by no great victories on either side. But in 1759 Pitt's energy, and his tact in choosing men, were everywhere rewarded by the extraordinary successes by land and sea which marked that year of victory. These victories gave Pitt a position of extraordinary influence. He was known as the "great commoner;" and the Houses of Parliament no less than the people at large were hushed into awe and reverence by the success of his measures. But the death of George II. on October 25, 1760, changed the face of affairs; and it was clear that the new king's partiality for Lord Bute would be more powerful than the nation's love of Pitt. In March, 1761, Parliament was dissolved; and with it the ministry began to break up. Bute was made secretary of state in the place of Lord Holderness. But Pitt was determined, if possible, to save the country from a degrading peace; and he held on until finding his brother-in-law, Lord Temple, alone supported him in the council in his desire for war with France and Spain, he resigned on October 5, 1761. He had scorned all promotion and all gains for himself, but accepted a peerage for his wife, who was created Baroness Chatham. In Nov., 1762, peace was made with France; and Bute could no longer stand before the open opposition of Pitt and the fury of the nation, and in April, 1763, he resigned. A new ministry was formed out of the followers of the Duke of Bedford and those of Grenville, whose tenure of office was signalised by the persecution of Wilkes, and the still more fatal attempt to tax the American colonies. Pitt meanwhile opposed all his eloquence to the doctrine of the legality of general warrants, and pointed out the mischief of Grenville's scheme for colonial taxation. His health became very bad, and he retired into the country and took no part in the debates on the Regency Bill. This bill, however, was the ruin of the Bedford ministry; and the king resolved to be rid of Grenville's bullying arrogance. Overtures were twice made to Pitt through the Duke of Cumberland; but they failed. He retired to his estate in Somersetshire, as if bent on finally withdrawing from public life; and the Rockingham ministry was formed. In January, 1766, Pitt came up to London, and by his able assistance enabled the ministry to carry the repeal of the Stamp Act. The government was, however, too weak to stand; and in July Pitt at length consented to break with Temple, and to form a ministry without him. But he was suffering both mentally and physically: he could not stand the strain of the House of Commons; he accepted the Privy Seal, and was created Earl of Chatham. It was felt throughout the country that he had been gained over to the court; and the popularity, which had been so lavishly bestowed on him as the "great commoner," failed to follow him to the Upper House. His policy was as energetic and comprehensive as ever; but his mind was unhinged, and at last gave way so far as to incapacitate him for all public business. He was taken to Hayes, and remained there in gloomy seclusion for two years. In October, 1768, he resigned the Privy Seal, and the ministry came to an end. Soon after his resignation, Chatham's mental malady passed away before an attack of the gout sharper than usual. In July, 1769, he once more appeared at court, after a reconciliation had been effected with the Grenvilles, and in the following January he again took his place among the Lords. He had lost none of his old power, and his first speech, inveighing against the policy pursued by the government towards America and in relation to the Middlesex election, was the signal for the resignation of Lord Camden and the Marquis of Granby. The Duke of Grafton himself, wearied by the continual onslaughts made upon him, and finding it impossible any longer to prop up his falling ministry, sent in his resignation on January 22. Lord North proceeded to form a ministry after the king's own heart, which would be content to carry out the king's wishes. Wilkes and America continued to be the chief topics; North in both points

adhered to the policy of his predecessors, and Chatham continued to wage war against it. He warmly advocated the repeal of the Test Acts, for which a bill was introduced. During the greater part of 1773 he employed himself in the study of India, and became strongly convinced of the "necessity of a reformation of Indian iniquities." But as the clouds every month thickened in America, they dispelled all other thoughts, and caused him more and more to dread the application of coercion to the colonists. The Boston Port Bill heightened his alarm; and in May, 1774, he appeared in Parliament "to stand for England and America." In Jan., 1775, he moved an address to the king, praying him to adopt a conciliatory policy towards America by removing the forces from Boston, and he followed up this motion by presenting to Parliament a plan for the prevention of civil war. The object of his conduct was, as he himself briefly expressed it, "to secure to the colonies property and liberty, and to ensure to the mother country a due acknowledgment on the part of the colonies of their subordination to the supreme legislative authority and superintending power of the Parliament of Great Britain." As long as there was any hope of the attainment of these two ends, Chatham was as warm an advocate as anyone for granting liberty to the colonies; but when the news of the capitulation of Burgoyne came in Dec., 1777, followed almost immediately by the announcement of the alliance of America and France, it became clear that the Americans would be content with nothing short of entire independence; and Chatham was as firm in his opposition to this concession as he had been zealous in favour of granting them liberty and justice. At this point Chatham broke away from his long agreement with Rockingham's party, and carried Shelburne with him. On April 7th, 1778, he made his last speech in Parliament; and the effort was too much for him. He was carried to Hayes, and there died on May 11th. A monument was raised to him in Westminster Abbey at the expense of the nation. Lord Chatham was essentially a war minister. It has been said of him that whenever a cannon in Europe was fired he required to know the reason. The epitaph on his monument in Westminster Abbey says, truly enough, that during his administration Great Britain was exalted "to a height of prosperity and glory unknown to any former age."

F. Thackeray, *Hist. of Wm. Pitt, E. of Chatham* (2 vols., 1827); *Chatham Correspondence* (4 vols., 1833—40); Albemarle, *Rockingham and his Contemporaries*; Almon, *Anecdotes and Speeches of Chatham* (1792); Massey, *Hist. of Eng.*, vols. i., ii.; Adolphus, *Hist. of Eng.*, vols. i., ii.; Walpole, *Hist.*, vol. i.; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*

[W. R. S.]

Chatsworth, in North Derbyshire, the property of the Cavendish family, was in 1570, 1578, and 1581 the prison of Mary Queen of Scots. It was subsequently garrisoned by the Roundheads in 1643, and by the Cavaliers two years later.

Cheke, Sir John (*b.* 1514, *d.* 1557), is well known as the tutor of King Edward VI., whose education he undertook in conjunction with Sir Anthony Cook. In reward for his services he was made Provost of King's College, Cambridge, and a Privy Councillor. On the accession of Mary, Cheke was imprisoned for the sympathy which he had shown for the cause of Lady Jane Grey, from whom he had accepted the office of Secretary of State. On his release he went abroad and settled at Strasburg, but, having gone to visit Sir John Mason at Brussels, was captured on the way, and sent to England, where he was confined in the Tower. Cheke, who was a zealous Protestant, and "one of the most godly men of those days," was kept in confinement until hard usage wrung from him a renunciation of his real convictions. He was then released, but is said to have died of shame at his recantation. He was a voluminous and able writer, and did much for the literature of England. Besides being the tutor of King Edward VI., he was the tutor of William Cecil, Lord Burleigh. He was one of the earliest and greatest of English Greek scholars of the Renaissance; and in particular set himself to reform the corrupt pronunciation of his time. His fame was still living at Cambridge in Milton's days, and the poet refers to him in Sonnet XI.:—

"Thy Age, like ours, O soul of Sir John Cheke,
Hated not learning worse than toad or asp,
When thou taught'st Cambridge and King Edward Greek."

Strype, *Life of Cheke*; Fuller, *Worthies*.

Chester was probably a Roman military station, as its Celtic name, "Caerleon Vawr," would seem to attest. It is called *Deva* in the Roman geographical writings, and would seem, at any rate, to have been a trading-place of importance. In 894 it was captured by the Danes, who were, however, forced to surrender it to the English. It was a place of considerable importance as being the frontier town of the Welsh Marches. The Conqueror established an earldom of Chester, and Hugh Lupus, his nephew, became its palatine. He built the castle and founded the abbey of St. Werburgh. In 1237 the earldom was seized by Henry III., and has since been a royal appanage. In 1300, Edward, Prince of Wales, received the homage of the Welsh princes at Chester; and here for a time Henry IV. held Richard II. captive. The city suffered severely in the plagues of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and especially in 1602—5. In 1642 Charles I. arrived in Chester. The citizens were warmly Royalist. From July, 1643, until 1646, the city was continuously besieged or blockaded by the

Parliamentarian forces, and at last honourably surrendered in February of the latter year. Great riots occurred on the occasion of the visit of the Duke of Monmouth in the year 1683. Chester was created a bishopric by Henry VIII. in 1541, and its fine abbey church of St. Werburgh became the cathedral.

Chesterfield, PHILIP DORMER STANHOPE, 4TH EARL OF (*b.* 1694, *d.* 1773), was educated at Trinity Hall, Cambridge. On the accession of George I., he was made Gentleman of the Bedchamber to the Prince of Wales. He sat as member for St. Germans in 1715. The division between the Prince of Wales and the court soon drove him into opposition in spite of the entreaties of his relative, General Stanhope, and he joined the discontented Whigs. [WALPOLE.] He had great expectations from George II. on his accession; but had the misfortune to offend Queen Caroline. The death of his father in the previous year removed him to the Upper House. In 1728 he was sent as ambassador to the Hague, and on his return was made High Steward of the Household, but was dismissed in 1733 by Walpole for his opposition to the Excise scheme. Forthwith he became a prominent member of the Opposition, and in 1737 made a magnificent speech against the Playhouse Bill. In 1741 he went abroad; and at Avignon met Ormonde, with whom it is said he attempted to concert measures for a Jacobite combination against Walpole. He was excluded from office under Pelham's administration; and continued in opposition, directing his attacks especially against the employment of Hanoverian troops, and the foreign policy of Carteret. At length, in 1744, the king's repugnance was so far overcome that he was made Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland. His administration of this office deserves the highest praise, and his firm government checked any tendency there might be to imitate the example of the Scotch revolters in 1745. In 1745 he was again sent to Holland, where his negotiations induced the Dutch to send troops to the campaign which terminated in the battle of Fontenoy. In 1746 he became Secretary of State. He aimed at governing the king through the latter's mistress, Lady Yarmouth, but finding he could make no progress in bringing about a peace, he resigned in 1748. He still continued to speak, and in 1751 proposed and carried out the reformation of the calendar. In 1752 he lost his hearing. In 1757 he was asked to negotiate between Pitt and Newcastle during the intrigues which led to the formation of that great ministry known by their names. In 1768 his natural son, Philip, the object of the greatest care and affection on his part, and to whom he had addressed his famous *Letters to his Son* on which his literary fame largely rests, died, and from that time Chesterfield's life was desolate and cheerless. "Chesterfield was," says his biographer, Dr. Maty, "a nobleman unequalled in his time for variety of talents, brilliancy of wit, and elegance of conversation." Lord Stanhope, referring to his political career, says that "diplomacy was especially suited to his tastes and talents. At home, his career, though never inspired by a high and pervading patriotism, deserves the praise of humane, liberal and far-sighted policy. His defects were a want of generosity, dissimulation carried beyond justifiable bounds . . . and a looseness of religious principle."

Maty's *Life*, prefixed to Chesterfield's *Works*, 2 vols., 1777.

Chevalier. [PRETENDER.]

Chevy Chase. [OTTERBOURNE.]

Cheyne, SIR THOMAS, Treasurer of the Household to Henry VIII., was appointed one of the Council of Executors by the king's will, 1547. Having served in the Scottish expedition of 1547, he was made Warden of the Cinque Ports, and in 1549 he was sent on behalf of the Council to the Emperor Charles V. In 1553 he is found in strong opposition to Northumberland's scheme of altering the succession in favour of Lady Jane Grey, and in Wyatt's Rebellion (q.v.), 1554, he did good service for the queen in Kent.

Chichele, HENRY (*b. circa* 1362, *d.* 1443), is said to have owed his education to William of Wykeham, and certainly was a student on Wykeham's foundations at Winchester and Oxford. He was frequently employed on diplomatic business by Henry IV., and in 1408 was made Bishop of St. Davids. In 1409 he was one of the English delegates to the Council of Pisa, and in 1414 was raised to the see of Canterbury. He accompanied Henry V. on his second and third expeditions to France, and crowned Queen Catherine. Chichele has been greatly blamed for inciting Henry V. to go to war against France, and it was generally believed that the French war was encouraged by the clergy, to divert popular attention from the wealth, luxury, and corruption of the Church. But this view rests on no historical basis, though it is not improbable that Chichele and the other bishops did lend their sanction to the king's ambition. Chichele is also accused of being a persecutor, but it would seem that his aversion to the Lollards was political rather than religious; for that sect was regarded as hostile to the dynasty, and a foe to all social order as well as to the Church. During Henry VI.'s reign, Chichele seems to have confined himself almost entirely to his clerical duties. In 1437 he founded All Souls College at Oxford, and in 1443, attended by four of his suffragans, visited Oxford, where he was received with great honour, and opened the college and consecrated the chapel. In the

same year he wrote to the Pope, saying that his age and infirmities rendered him unable to discharge the duties of his office, and praying that he might be allowed to resign his archbishopric. Before his intended resignation could be accomplished he was removed by death. Chichele boldly resisted the pretensions of the Pope, who was desirous of getting the Statute of Præmunire repealed, and when the papal party retaliated by accusing him of avarice, the barons, the bishops, and the University of Oxford came forward to bear testimony to the merits of the archbishop.

Chichester, Arthur, Lord (*b.* 1563, *d.* 1625), was Lord-Deputy of Ireland from 1604 to 1614, when he became Lord High Treasurer. It was under his government that the Plantation of Ulster was carried out. One result of the colonisation of Ulster was the possibility to summon an Irish parliament in which the representatives of the native Irish should be in a permanent minority. This parliament met in 1613, for the first time in twenty-seven years, and at once broke into open discord. The subjects in dispute were referred to the King, and in February, 1614, Chichester was commanded to return to England to give an account of the state of the country. On his return to Ireland in the same year instructions were given him to recur to the policy of driving the Irish by persecution into the Protestant church. Chichester, however, obtained their practical modification, and some approach was made to an understanding between the Irish Roman Catholics and the Government. In August, 1614, the King ordered the dissolution of the Parliament, and three months later Chichester was recalled. Though no reason was publicly given for his recall, there are grounds for believing that the real motive lay in his opposition to any new attempt to persecute the Roman Catholics. He was, however, on his return treated with every show of honour, and was made Lord Treasurer of Ireland, a post more dignified than influential. The lands of Sir Cahir O'Doherty of Innisowen were granted to Chichester, and formed the bulk of the large estates left by him to the present representatives of the family, the Marquises of Donegal.

Chichester, a cathedral town, is built on the site of a Roman settlement, and is generally identified with Regnum mentioned in the *Itinerary* of Antoninus. It appears to have been a place of some trade. The town was destroyed by Ella, and restored by his son, Cissa, from whom it received its modern name. The see was originally at Selsey, and was removed to Chichester in 1083. The cathedral was built upon the site of a monastery of St. Peter. Begun in 1091, it suffered more than once from fire, and its different parts show many periods—Norman, Early English, Decorated, and Perpendicular. The building suffered much at the hands of the Parliamentary troops which were quartered in it. The city was incorporated in 1213. The town was Royalist in the Civil War, but in December, 1642, was surrendered to the Parliamentarians after an eight days' siege. It was recaptured by the Royalists in the following December, but had again to surrender to Waller a month later after a siege of seventeen days. Among the prisoners of war was the famous Chillingworth, who died here, and lies buried in the cathedral.

Chief Justice. [Justice.]

Childers, Hugh Culling Eardley (*b.* 1827, *d.* 1896), was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, and went to Australia in 1850, and was inspector of schools in Melbourne in 1851. Later he was made secretary to the education department and emigration agent at the port of Melbourne, and in 1852 became auditor-general and a member of the Legislative Council. The following year he was collector of customs and a member of the Executive Council. He was the first Vice-Chancellor of Melbourne University. In 1857 he returned to England as agent-general for Victoria. He was elected member of Parliament for Pontefract in 1860, and was on the royal commission on penal servitude in 1863. In 1865 he was Financial Secretary to the Treasury, and appointed First Lord of the Admiralty and Privy Councillor in 1868. He resigned office in 1871. In 1872 he became Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, and Secretary of State for War in 1880, and produced a successful scheme of army reform in the following year. He was appointed Chancellor of the Exchequer in 1882, and in the following year formulated a great scheme for reducing the national debt (q.v.). In 1886 he became Home Secretary, and supported Mr. Gladstone's Home Rule Bill. The state of his health precluded him from becoming a candidate at the General Election of 1892.

Chilliauwalla, The Battle of (Jan. 13, 1849), was fought during the second Sikh War. After an interchange of shots from the Sikh and English pickets, Lord Gough gave the word to attack the position of Shere Sing at three in the afternoon. General Campbell [Clyde] moved forward his division in two brigades. His own victoriously advanced to the front, seized and spiked the guns; but the second was torn to pieces by a fire of grape and musketry, and the attack would have failed had not General Campbell advanced rapidly to the rescue, and captured the guns which were pouring in this deadly fire. Sir Walter Gilbert's two divisions were successful on the right, but not without serious loss. The cavalry brigade under Brigadier Pope got entangled in trees and brushwood, and owing to some mistake, retreated, but the

left brigade, under Sir Joseph Thackwell, behaved with great gallantry. The result was that when darkness put an end to the struggle Lord Gough found himself master of unknown ground in the dark, and uncertain as to the whereabouts of the enemy, after a victory which was the nearest possible approach to a defeat. He was compelled, therefore, to withdraw to Chillianwalla. [SIKH WARS.]

Chillingworth, WILLIAM (*b.* 1602, *d.* 1644), was educated at Oxford, and obtained a fellowship at Trinity College. By the efforts of a Jesuit, John Fisher, he was converted to the Roman Catholic communion. Chillingworth's conspicuous abilities made him an important convert, and the Jesuits determined to find him employment. In 1630 he went to the college of Douay, where he was urged to write an account of the motives which led him to make his religious change. He undertook the task, but felt it his duty to weigh afresh the arguments in favour of the Protestant religion, and Laud, then Bishop of London, began a series of letters to Chillingworth, for whom he had acted as godfather. The result was that in 1631 Chillingworth left Douay and returned to Oxford, where he pursued his theological inquiries with an impartial mind. In 1634 he again declared himself to be a Protestant, and wrote a statement of the reasons which induced him to adopt the Roman Catholic faith, together with a refutation of them. He became, in 1638, Chancellor of Salisbury and Prebendary of Brixworth. In the Civil War he accompanied the King's forces, though his heart sank within him to see "publicans and sinners on the one side, against Scribes and Pharisees on the other." He took an active part in the operations at the siege of Gloucester, and was taken prisoner at the capture of Arundel Castle. Being very ill, he was allowed to remove to the palace of Chichester, where he died. He was the author of a famous tract, called, *The Religion of Protestants: a Safe Way to Salvation*, first published in 1638, and very frequently reprinted.

Chiltern Hundreds, THE, as the hundreds of Bodenham, Desborough and Stoke, in Buckinghamshire, are called, have attached to them a Stewardship, the holder of which office was charged with the duty of keeping down the robbers who infested the woods of the Chiltern Hills. At the present time the office is used for an interesting purpose. As a member of the House of Commons cannot by parliamentary law resign his seat unless he becomes disqualified either by the acceptance of a place of honour and profit under the crown, or by some other cause, a member wishing to retire applies for the stewardship of the Chiltern Hundreds which is held to be such and necessarily entails the vacation of the seat. The stewardship is usually granted as a matter of course, though it has been refused in a case of bribery. As soon as it is obtained it is again resigned, and is thus generally vacant when required by a member of Parliament. This method of evading the restriction as to the resignation of a member of Parliament appears to have come into practice in the reign of George II., about 1750. The gift lies with the Chancellor of the Exchequer. In the event of two applications being made for the post at the same time, the stewardship of the manors of East Hundred, Hempholme and Northstead, is bestowed on one of the applicants.

China, RELATIONS WITH, cannot be said to have existed much earlier than the beginning of the seventeenth century, though there was, no doubt, indirect intercourse at a much earlier date between English merchants and "Cathay." For instance, the Florentine house of Bardi, which had extensive monetary dealings with Edward III., had also a considerable trade with China. The first attempts of the East India Company to establish a commercial station at Canton, in 1637, were unsuccessful, as were others made in 1668, but in 1670 a trade was opened with Formosa, and a treaty concluded. Ten years later a factory was established at Canton. After the accession of the Manchoo or Tartar dynasty, however (1679), a hostile policy, caused, perhaps, by the misconduct of the Portuguese, was adopted towards foreign traders. Trade, which had spread to several ports, was confined to Canton, and was there conducted with difficulty, owing to the dishonesty of the Hong merchants and the extortions of the mandarins. This unsatisfactory state of affairs, varied by quarrels between the East India Company, the French, and Portuguese, continued down to 1792, when Lord Macartney was sent as the first English ambassador to the court of Pekin with presents to the emperor, to place the relations between the two countries on a secure and proper footing. But though the ambassador and members of his suite were courteously treated, he was unable to effect the removal of the restrictions on trade, and Lord Amherst, who was despatched thither in 1816, was dismissed for refusing to perform the "kow-tow," or prostration, before the emperor, and thereby acknowledge his own sovereign to be but a vassal of the Chinese empire.

In 1834, when the monopoly of the East India Company expired, it was determined to send out a trade commissioner to the port of Canton. Lord Napier was the first, but he soon gave way beneath the anxieties of his position. Soon afterwards the Chinese authorities began to protest against the introduction of opium by English traders, an import forbidden by law. The irritation grew, until, in 1839, the Chinese authorities insisted on the confiscation of a large quantity

of the drug, which they burnt. This proceeding Captain Elliott, the Commissioner of Trade, seems to have considered as a declaration of war. With the arrival of the fleet from India in the following year, the *First Chinese War* (April, 1839—March, 1841) began. The island of Chusan was promptly taken, and the capital threatened. The Chinese thereupon sued for peace, but negotiations were broken off, and Hong Kong and Amoy fell, and Nanking was menaced. Thereupon hostilities were again suspended, and in 1842 Sir Henry Pottinger concluded a treaty by which the Chinese agreed to throw open five additional ports to European trade and pay an indemnity of some four and a half millions sterling, together with a million and a quarter as compensation for the destroyed opium, which sum the English merchants declared to be below their loss.

The relations between England and China continued to be fairly pacific until 1855, when the seizure of the lorcha (or cutter), *Arrow*, by the Chinese authorities, on the charge of piracy, was the cause of the *Second Chinese War* (Oct., 1855—May, 1858). The vessel was undoubtedly of a suspicious character, but she had obtained a British registration, and in consequence Sir John Bowring demanded the surrender of the captured men, which was done, but all apology was refused by Yeh, the governor of Canton. Thereupon the town was bombarded and taken by the English, the Taku forts fell in 1858, and the English commissioner, Lord Elgin, concluded a treaty at Tientsin by which transit-dues were considerably reduced, and an indemnity of four millions agreed upon. In 1859, however, the English Minister, Sir F. Bruce, was fired upon from the Taku forts while sailing up the river to carry out the ratification of the treaty at Peking, Lord Elgin was promptly sent out, together with a force under Sir Hope Grant, who was assisted by the French. The Taku forts fell, and the emperor, in order to save Peking, agreed to the ratification of the Treaty of Tientsin, with many important additional stipulations, the most important of which were that the sovereigns of Great Britain and China might, if they saw fit, appoint ambassadors, ministers, or other diplomatic agents to their respective courts, and that the British representative should not be required to perform any ceremony derogatory to him as representing the sovereign of an independent nation of an equality with China. Shortly afterwards Major Charles Gordon entered the Chinese service, and aided the government in crushing the Tai-ping rebels.

Once more (1875) the relations with England became strained, partly owing to the murder of Mr. Margary on the Chinese frontier, and partly to the refusal of the government to publish the treaties by which the British were empowered to establish a trade route from China to Burmah. At one time war seemed imminent, but was averted by the firmness and tact of Sir Thomas Wade who, in the following year, by the *Chefoo Convention*, established the rights of foreigners to travel and protection.

The chief events which have of late years brought Great Britain into contact with China are the Chino-Japanese War and the Boxer rising of 1900. At the conclusion of the Chino-Japanese War (1895) the Treaty of Shimonoseki opened four more ports, viz., Chung-King, Hang-Chow, Soo-Chow, and Sha-Tsze. Great Britain insisted that no part of the Yangtsze Basin should be alienated, but that that region must be considered as a British "sphere of influence"; and occupied Wei-Hai-Wei on an extensible lease. Generally speaking, Great Britain insisted on the policy of the "Open Door," that is, that no European country should seek to restrict the trade of any other European country with China. In April, 1900, the Boxer outbreak was signalised by riots at Pekin, and the murder of missionaries and native Christians. In June the Foreign ambassadors were besieged in the legations. The besieged garrison consisted of less than 500 officers and men, and anxiety for its safety was intensified by the fact that there were many women and children to be protected. An international force under Admiral Seymour set out to relieve the legations, but was driven back. The troops, however, occupied Tientsin in July. For eight weeks the legations held out against a series of violent attacks. In these attacks Chinese Imperial troops took part, though the Government nominally deprecated the Boxer outbreak. The legations were relieved by an international force on Aug. 13, the Chinese Court flying into the interior.

It was some months before the Powers could agree on the demands to be made in satisfaction of injuries, and to ensure future security, but these were eventually formulated on Dec. 19. They included the destruction of the Taku forts, the reform of the Tsung-Li-Yamên, and the punishment of individual offenders. A peace protocol embodying these terms was signed on Jan. 14, 1901. The total indemnity was fixed at £65,000,000, to be paid within thirty-nine years; Princes Tuan and Lan were to be banished; and six high officials were to be executed. The Japanese executed two who were in their hands, and the Chinese reported four as having been put to death in the interior. The Tsung-Li-Yamên was abolished, and replaced by another board known as the Wai-Wu-Pu. Foreign troops evacuted Peking on Sept. 17, but the legations were allowed increased guards.

In 1902 the British Government announced a change of policy as regards Wei-Hai-Wei. The place is not to be the seat of a large garrison, but to be used as a sanatorium and

for small arm naval practice. The Chinese regiment, which had been enrolled, was then reduced from 1,000 men to 400, and in 1907 was disbanded. On Jan. 7, 1902, the Court returned to Peking, and the Dowager Empress lavished attentions upon the ladies of the legations, and shed tears over the unhappy events of 1900. The formation of the Anglo-Japanese alliance on Jan. 30 was a proof of the importance which the two countries allied attach to the preservation of the integrity of the Chinese Empire and of Korea, and to the maintenance of equal rights for foreigners.

A fresh commercial Treaty was made between Great Britain and China at the close of 1902. China undertook to open four new Treaty ports, viz., Chang-Sha, Ngan-Kin, Wan-Hsien, and Wai-Chan; to accept improved mining regulations; and to adopt amended rules for the navigation of inland waters and for the protection of British trade marks in China. Also likin (a tax on inland trade levied while merchandise was in transit from one district to another, which raised nearly £2,000,000 annually for the Chinese Government, after probably twice that sum had been subtracted by local authorities for cost of collection) was abolished in return for a sur-tax on imports slightly over 4 per cent. *ad valorem*. Likin was a vexatious impost, which led to peculation as well as to annoying delays in the conveyance of merchandise from one place to another. With this Treaty signed, and with Tientsin restored to the Chinese, the relations between Great Britain and China may be said to have been placed upon a footing favourable to peace and amity. In 1908 Great Britain obtained for defensive purposes a ninety-nine years' lease of territory on the mainland, opposite the island of Hong Kong. In the same year the Wai-Wu-Pu and the British Minister arrived at an agreement whereby there should be an annual decrease in the importation of opium, which after ten years is to be imported into China no longer; that China should levy more duties on foreign imported opium; that no poppy juice should be imported into China from Hong Kong, nor any sent from China to Hong Kong; that no opium pipes should be sold in foreign settlements, and no opium dens be permitted to be established. All the Powers have given their assent to the prohibition of the importation of morphia except for medicinal purposes.

Sir John Davis, *China*; Prof. Douglas, *China*; L. Oliphant, *Narrative of Lord Elgin's Mission to China*; MacCarthy, *History of our own Times*.

Chitral Expedition, 1895. The small principality of Chitral, in the Hindu Kush Mountains, was placed under the suzerainty of Kashmir, and therefore indirectly of Britain, in 1878, by its then ruler, the Mehtar Aman-ul-Mulk. On his death in 1892 a contest arose between his two sons—Amir-ul-Mulk and Nizam-ul-Mulk—and his brother, Shere Afzul. Eventually Nizam-ul-Mulk expelled Shere Afzul and put the Amir-ul-Mulk to death, but was himself murdered (Jan. 1, 1895) at the instigation of another brother, Afzul-ul-Mulk, who then endeavoured to obtain recognition from the British Government. Dr. (afterwards Sir George) Robertson, H.M.'s political agent at Gilgit, came in to deal with the matter; but on the approach of Umra Khan, chief of Jandol, and of Shere Afzul—with whom Afzul-ul-Mulk was secretly negotiating—had to retire (Feb. 10) into Chitral Fort with his escort, comprising several British officers and about 500 Indian troops, mostly Sikhs and Dogras. From March 3 till April 23 they were besieged in the fort, a place most unsuited for defence, and exposed to most vigorous and varied attacks by a greatly superior force, against which they made a gallant resistance. Meanwhile the Indian Government had despatched a force of 14,000 men under Sir R. Low from Nowshera, and also a body of native troops under Colonel Kelly from the neighbourhood of Gilgit, where they had been road-making. These latter, after great difficulties, reached Chitral on April 23, and the siege was raised on their approach. General Low, after severe fighting with the Swatis at the Malakand Pass, sent on a flying column, which arrived at Chitral on May 10. The Indian Government, on March 22, had proclaimed to the people of Swat and Bajaur that they meant to send a force through, but not to occupy the territory permanently or interfere with the tribesmen. They made a military road through the territory, and it was eventually decided (August, 1895) to retain Chitral, as advised by the Indian Government and high authorities in India, partly on the ground that it commands certain passes from Badakshan, and so might be of strategic value in case of a Russian invasion of India. By the agreement negotiated by Sir Mortimer Durand with the Amir of Afghanistan in 1893, Chitral, with Bajaur, Swat, and the neighbouring states of Indus-Kohistan, were assigned to the British sphere of influence, the Amir securing Asmar and Kafiristan, the latter of which he subdued in 1895–96.

Chivalry, This word, which variously meant "horsemanship," "knighthood," "a fully-armed array of horsemen or knights," "the knightly ideal of conduct," and other things akin to these, in its widest application embraced the whole brotherhood of trained, approved, and dedicated men of the sword, who had undertaken with elaborate and solemn ceremony to do their fighting in a peculiar spirit, on principles and with aims of a special character, as well as the whole body of laws and usages, that these select warriors were bound to observe. Defined by a friendly historian, it was "a fraternal

association, or rather an enthusiastic compact between men of feeling and courage, of delicacy and devotion," who had chosen the profession of arms and fitted themselves for it by a long and severe apprenticeship. It was an institution in which each faithful member was animated by a sentiment of conscious dignity, and regulated his life in conformity with a code of military ethics that raised a naturally demoralising occupation into a chastening discipline and ennobling pursuit. It owed to feudalism the conditions which enabled it to play its part; but it was no essential feature or direct offspring of feudalism; it was rather a corrective of the ferocity and injustice that make the chief reproach of feudal institutions.

The times of its beginning and ending, and its origin, are still controverted points among historians. But we cannot be far astray in limiting its flourishing period as an efficient and earnest motive and rule of action to the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, though its spirit and forms can be traced much earlier, and, in show at least, are perceptible much later. Mr. Freeman sees the dawn of English chivalry in William Rufus's making a certain line of conduct "a point of honour;" and the French wars of Edward III. display the glitter and affectations, the serious mockeries, that outlived the decay of real chivalry. As to its origin, some find it in the Crusades, some in the necessity of confronting the evils that harassed France in the eleventh century by "a consecration of the arms of the strong;" and some in the slow rise to ascendency of certain ideas and customs—one or two as old as the days of the *Germania*—amid the anarchy that followed the death of Charlemagne. This last seems the safest conclusion: the ceremonial with which a young German warrior assumed arms; the duty of serving on horseback laid on certain landholders in later times; and the personal attachment to a superior obligatory on an aspirant to a military career, needed but the glow of religious feeling and the sense of individual honour as the master-motive of action, to complete the chivalrous character. For the grand creation and central figure of chivalry was the knight; and it is the union in him of religious fervour and sense of duty, with a recognition of honourable obligation, devotion to all women and constancy to one, and a horror of doing anything unworthy of a true knight, that is the very essence of the chivalric idea. Yet chivalry owed to the Crusades its summons into energetic life; in Milman's words, "all the noble sentiments which, blended together, are chivalry—the high sense of honour, the disdain of danger, the love of adventure, compassion for the weak or the oppressed, generosity, self-sacrifice, self-devotion for others—found in the Crusades their animating principle, perpetual occasion for their amplest exercise, their perfection and consummation." The unit of chivalry was the knight, or chevalier, and care was therefore taken to make and keep knighthood select. In most places, though not in all, gentle birth was a necessary qualification; from his seventh to his fourteenth year the aspirant must serve in some noble or knightly household as page or varlet; he had then to choose, from among the well-born ladies of the society he lived in, some one as a special object of loyal devotion, and was allowed to receive at the altar from the hands of the priest the consecrated sword that proved him an esquire. His manifold duties as an esquire had as their general drift to make him perfect in the virtues and accomplishments of a knightly character. Having "borne him well" in his long and trying noviciate, he was "ordained" a knight with a most impressive ritual. After being bathed, and clothed in symbolic garments, he fasted for twenty-four hours, watched the arms he was to wear for a whole night in a church, confessed, communicated, had the sword that hung from his neck blessed by the priest, was armed by ladies or knights, and from one of the latter received the *accolade*. His most imperative obligations, taken on oath, were: to serve God and his prince; to uphold the weak; to be true to his word; to despise gain; to love honour; to persist to the end in any adventure he undertook; to reverence purity in women; to be faithful, courteous, and humble; and to protect maidens from danger and insult.

Chivalry had its absurd side: in its name men now and then played very fantastic tricks. Single combats, tournaments, jousts, the splendid frivolities dear to an age of empty show, were its outcome. But its nobler gifts to mankind far outweigh these; from it sprang the Knights Hospitaller and the Teutonic Order, which, along with not a little that is questionable, certainly bore excellent fruit. Above all, it set a curb on the passions of men, and thus softened the horrors of war; held up before them an elevating ideal; made active the virtues of loyalty, courtesy, respect for women, valour, justice, and veracity. Its chief bequest to mankind was the "chastity of honour which felt a stain like a wound," which still lives. It is significant, too, that the clearest English eye of the fourteenth century saw in the knight "who lovede chivalrie"

"Trouthe and honour, fredom and curtesie."

Hallam, *Middle Ages*, cap. ix., p. ii.; Milman, *Latin Christianity*, book vii., cap. vi., Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, vol. v., 481—9; Lacroix, *Vie Militaire et Religieuse au Moyen Age*; Guizot, *Histoire de la Civilisation*, 6th lecture of last course.

[J. R.]

Chivalry, The Court of, was held before the Constable and the Marshal of England for the trial of military offences, and for the

decision of questions relating to coat armour, personal honour, and the like. By 13 Rich. II., cap. 2, it is declared that this court has cognizance over all matters of this kind, except such as may be determined by the common law. The court has long ceased to be held; the last instance of its sitting being in 1737.

Chunda Sahib (*d.* 1752) married the daughter of Dost Ali, deputy of the Carnatic, and became chief minister. He was made use of by Dupleix as a pretender to the throne of Arcot against the English candidate, Mahomed Ali. In alliance with Mozuffer Jung, the French candidate to the throne of Hyderabad on the death of the Nizam-ool-Moolk (1748), he overran the Carnatic, and obtained investiture from Dupleix and Mozuffer Jung. Clive's defence of Arcot and the death of Mozuffer broke the confederacy; and Chunda Sahib surrendered to Monackjee, the Tanjorine general, who was in alliance with Mahomed Ali and the English. The general took a solemn oath to convey him to a French settlement, but immediately afterwards caused him to be assassinated, at the instigation of Mahomed Ali.

Church of England. Christianity came to Britain in the wake of the Roman occupation, and the British Church was so far organised that it sent three bishops to the Council of Arles in 314. [Church, The Celtic.] The English invaders were heathens, and British Christianity was swept westward before them. The conversion of the English was effected by missionaries from Rome in the south, and missionaries from Iona in the north. As the ritual of these two sets of missionaries differed in some points, different usages were found to be productive of confusion, till at the *Synod of Whitby* (664) the Northumbrian kingdom adopted the Roman use; and from that time England obtained ecclesiastical unity as a daughter of the Church of Rome. The work of ecclesiastical organisation was begun by Archbishop Theodore in 668, and the example of unity given by the Church was one of the chief influences to produce unity in the State. Church and State worked harmoniously together, and there were no questions to bring them into collision. The bishop sat by the side of the ealdorman in the shire court, and ecclesiastical causes were decided in the same way as others. The period of the Norman Conquest coincided with that of the ecclesiastical reforms wrought by Hildebrand on the Continent; and the influence of his ideas is apparent in the ecclesiastical policy of William I. Ecclesiastical courts were established for ecclesiastical causes, which were to be tried by canonical, not by customary, law. This change was considered necessary for the sake of a uniform system of law, to introduce more regular discipline into the Church; but it brought with it a vexatious extension of ecclesiastical jurisdiction, and led to the recognition of the right of appeal to the papal court, which ultimately proved ruinous to the authority and independence of bishops. But while making this change, William I. was careful to protect himself from papal interference by laying down three rules:— (1) That the Pope of Rome should not be recognised as apostolic, except at the king's command, and that letters for the Pope be first shown to the king. (2) That the resolutions of ecclesiastical synods should have no legal force till sanctioned by the king. (3) That no baron or royal servant be excommunicated, except by the king's consent. These regulations of William I. show a feeling of distrust about the relations between Church and State which was speedily realised. Under Henry I., Archbishop Anselm raised the question of the lawfulness of lay investiture to a spiritual office. The tenure of clerical lands was, by the growth of the royal power, assimilated to that of lay. The nomination of bishops, and their investiture with the emblems of their spiritual dignity, had passed into the hands of the crown. Hildebrand strove to check the growing secularisation of the Church; but the State answered, with some show of reason, that it could not allow of the existence of powerful land-holders who did not recognise the king as their lord. In England a compromise was at length made between Henry I. and the Pope. The king agreed that chapters should elect their bishops, but the election was to be made in the King's Court; he gave up the investiture with ring and crosier, but the bishops were to do homage for their temporalities. The crown retained the real appointment of bishops, and the rights of suzerainty over them, but abandoned its encroachments upon their spiritual dignity. Anselm showed that the Church was the only power which could withstand the tyranny of the crown. In like manner, Becket resisted Henry II.; and Bishop Hugh, of Lincoln, offered a constitutional resistance to the demands for money made in the name of Richard I. During the twelfth and thirteenth centuries the Church fought the battle of the people, while it defended its own rights against the threatening power of the king.

But though the Church succeeded in a measure in holding its own against the king, it was less successful against the Pope. The Pope, as judge in all disputed cases, gained considerable power over episcopal elections, where disputes were frequent. In 1204 Pope Innocent III. rejected the contending candidates for the see of Canterbury, proposed Stephen Langton, and confirmed his informal election without the king's consent. Gradually, the king and the Pope came to a sort of tacit understanding that they would share between them the appointment to bishoprics,

and the result was that the powers of the chapters became more and more shadowy, till they practically died away. Papal provisions and reservations over-rode the rights of patrons, and though the *Statute of Provisors* (1350, 1364, 1390) was enacted and re-enacted to check this abuse, the Pope and the king found their interests to coincide in keeping a tolerably close partnership in the disposition of patronage. Yet the *Statute of Præmunire* (16 Rich. II., c. 5, 1393), which forbade the prosecution of suits in foreign courts, gave the king a powerful weapon against the Pope, and was resented as an infringement of the papal supremacy. Papal taxation weighed heavily on the clergy, and the attempt made by Pope Boniface VIII. to exempt them from national taxation was powerless before the resolute character of Edward I. [PAPACY.]

In the fourteenth century, the results of the organisation of the Constitution by Edward I., and the steady growth of royal and papal interference with the appointment and powers of the bishops, gradually diminished the political influence of the Church, and its spiritual activity declined. The teaching of Wiclif marked dissatisfaction against the Papacy, social discontent, and, in a minor degree, desire for doctrinal change. The social side of the Lollard movement was the most largely developed, and it was this especially that led to legislation against heresy. In 1401 was passed the statute *De Hæretico Comburendo* (2 Hen. IV., c. 15, 1401). The Church lost its hold upon the people, and became more and more dependent on the Pope and the king. There was an acknowledgment of abuses on all sides, but there was no power to work a reformation. The machinery of the Church had been ruined by papal interference. Reform was possible only at Rome; but the Popes showed no inclination to undertake it. The clergy gradually put themselves more and more under the royal protection as against the Pope, till Henry VIII., freed from any power of the baronage, and willing to serve the interests of the commons, found the Church reduced to obsequious dependence on the crown. Henry VIII. quarrelled with the Papacy about one of the few points in which the papal interference with legislation was possible without the king's consent. At length he put forth the fulness of the royal power. By suppressing the monasteries, he deprived the Church of a third of its revenues. He severed the union between the English and the Roman Churches, and compelled the reluctant clergy to recognise the king as supreme head of the Church in England. He practically deprived the Church of legislative power by requiring the royal licence for all decrees of Convocation. Henry VIII. broke with the Papacy because the Papacy was an obstacle in the way of his personal gratification; but he aimed at a reformation of ecclesiastical practice and a re-adjustment of the ecclesiastical system to the needs of England as it was. Still, the breach with Rome would have been impossible to Henry VIII. if there had not been a serious breach in the European obedience to the Papacy. New theological opinions were rapidly spreading in Germany, and had already attracted the attention of scholars in England; and Henry VIII.'s wish to confine his changes to mere points of ecclesiastical organisation was impossible. Yet, so long as he lived he held the balance between the old and the new learning, and checked the progress of doctrinal change. Under Edward VI. the reforming party came into power, and Archbishop Cranmer moved forward towards the German Protestants. The steps in his advance may be traced in the history of the formularies of the English Church. [ARTICLES.] But the reforming party was a minority of the nation, and its rapid changes shocked the popular mind; it owed its political support to the selfish greed of a body of courtiers, who were willing to use the Reformation as a means of enriching themselves. Hence, the reaction under Mary was greeted with delight; but it was too complete to be permanent. The Catholicism of Mary was anti-national, and the successive failures of Protestants and Catholics under Edward VI. and Mary prepared the way for the religious settlement of Elizabeth.

Elizabeth reverted to the policy of her father, and strove to effect a compromise between the now hostile parties of the Catholics and Protestants. The Catholics held to the old formularies; the more advanced Protestants, who had been in exile during Mary's reign, had adopted the logical system of theology laid down by Calvin, and demanded that nothing should be adopted but what could be proved by Scripture to be true. Elizabeth favoured the opinion of the moderate Reformers, who held that nothing should be discarded but what could be shown from Scripture to be false. The Prayer Book of Edward VI. was revised, and two statutes were passed in 1559 which established the legal relations between Church and State. The *Act of Supremacy* required all beneficed ecclesiastics, and all laymen holding office, to take the oath of supremacy, and renounce all foreign jurisdiction. The *Act of Uniformity* prohibited the use by any minister of any liturgy save that contained in the Prayer Book, and imposed a fine on all who absented themselves from Church. The Liturgy and the Articles, under the direction of Archbishop Parker, were devised so as to retain much of the old uses, while purging them of much that might offend the Calvinistic party. The ideal of Elizabeth was comprehension uniformly enforced. It was impossible that such a scheme should be entirely successful;

yet it so far succeeded that the national feeling of England gathered round the Church, which embraced the large majority of the people. But a considerable Catholic party stood aloof; and the excommunication of Elizabeth by the Pope in 1570, the secret visits of Jesuit missionaries, and the plots in favour of Mary Queen of Scots, occasioned a rigorous persecution of the Catholics. Similarly, the Calvinistic party, or Puritans, disliked many practices of the prescribed ritual as superstitious, and disregarded them. In 1565, Archbishop Parker issued a book of regulations, known as the "Advertisements" (q.v.), which afterwards received the royal sanction. He attempted to enforce regularity in the conduct of services, and thereby only drove the Calvinists into more pronounced opposition. It is true that their spirit was narrow, and their opinions tended towards the establishment of the tyranny of an ecclesiastical democracy. Yet the persecution of Archbishop Whitgift was injudicious and ineffective. The High Commission Court, to which was entrusted the ecclesiastical jurisdiction of the crown, grew to be a means of royal tyranny.

One result of the legislation of Elizabeth was that the Church became definitely subordinate to the State; jurisdiction and legislation for the Church could only be exercised with the consent of the crown, and the rites and discipline of the Church could not be altered without the consent of Parliament. The appointment of bishops was exercised by the crown, and Elizabeth demanded that they should be crown officials, for the purpose of enforcing the ecclesiastical uniformity which she required. They became, and have to some extent still continued to be, disciplinary officers executing the law, rather than Fathers in God to their clergy. The Elizabethan bishops were not men of lofty or commanding character, and were indecorously dictated to by Elizabeth and her Council. On the death of Elizabeth there were loud demands for concessions. But James I. lectured the Puritan ministers in the *Hampton Court Conference* (1604), and agreed to a few insignificant alterations in the Prayer Book which reconciled no one. Archbishop Bancroft continued the persecution of the Puritans, and deprived many Puritan clergy of their benefices. The Puritan party became more and more identified with the party of constitutional opposition to the crown; and in the Church itself a party began to arise which insisted on the necessity of Episcopacy as a divine institution, and, by excluding Presbyterians from the Catholic Church, seemed to draw nearer to the Church of Rome. This party advocated the divine right of kings, and preached the doctrine of passive obedience. Under Archbishop Laud it attained to great influence, and aided Charles I. in his arbitrary and unconstitutional conduct. The result was that Puritanism in England combined with Presbyterianism in England, Charles I. lost his throne and his life, and the Church of England was abolished. But rigid Presbyterianism would have laid a heavier yoke on England than the rigid Anglicanism of Laud. Cromwell gathered round him the sects, especially the Independents, and saved England from Presbyterianism by advocating the liberty of each congregation. But the Puritan supremacy was intolerable to England, and the restoration of Charles II. brought back the Church of England, endeared to the people as a bulwark against Puritanism. There was some show of desire to meet the scruples of the Puritans, and a Conference was held in the Savoy Palace, 1661. But Dr. Sancroft, who presided, was of an unyielding temper, and the demands of the Puritans were unreasonable. Both parties separated in anger. A few changes were made in the Prayer Book—but they increased rather than diminished the objections the Puritans had to it. Then, in 1662, was passed an Act of Uniformity, which required all beneficed clergy not only to use the Prayer Book, and that only, but also to declare "unfeigned assent and consent to all and everything contained and prescribed in it." About two thousand of the clergy were ejected from their benefices for refusing to make this declaration. Charles II. was willing to grant indulgences to the Puritans, that he might also grant them to the Catholics. Parliament and the bishops regarded the maintenance of the Established Church as the only means of saving England from the dangers of complications in foreign politics which might come through Catholicism and the dangers of the tyranny of an organised minority in domestic affairs. The royal indulgence was opposed, and Acts against Nonconformity rapidly succeeded one another; the *Corporation Act*, the *Conventicle Act*, the *Five Mile Act*, the *Test Act*, and the Act for disabling Papists from sitting in either House of Parliament, were all passed between 1661 and 1679.

In 1664 an important change was made in the relations between Church and State. Hitherto the clergy had taxed themselves in Convocation, but it was found that they consequently were taxed more heavily than the laity. In 1664 it was quietly agreed that the clergy should be taxed in the same manner as the laity—by Parliament. Though Convocation had lost its power of making canons without the king's consent, it still could petition for redress of grievances before granting supplies. Now that it ceased to grant supplies, its proceedings became merely formal, and after giving occasion to a theological controversy in 1717, it was not again summoned for business till 1861, when it was revived. [CONVOCATION.]

The policy of Charles II. seemed to favour the Catholics, and popular suspicion led to a

persecution of the Catholics in consequence of the false evidence of a pretended Popish plot. Notwithstanding a vigorous attempt to exclude James II. from the throne, on the ground that he was a Catholic, the general desire of England for a settled government led men to accept him as king. But James II. strove to impose by his prerogative a toleration which would enable him to put Catholics in all the important offices of state. He ordered a general declaration of liberty of conscience suspending all penal laws about religion, to be read in all the churches. Seven bishops, headed by Archbishop Sancroft, petitioned the king to recall this step. They were committed to the Tower, and were brought to trial for uttering a libel against the king, and their acquittal was a sign of the public opinion against James, which led to the Revolution. The accession of William III. and Mary was largely due to the fact that the Dissenters preferred to wait for toleration from the Church rather than to accept it unconstitutionally from the king. In 1689 a Toleration Act was passed, which granted some relief to the Dissenters, but none to the Catholics. Moreover, the Revolution overturned the doctrine of the divine right of kings, which had been a tenet of Anglicanism; and Archbishop Sancroft, with three hundred others, resigned their offices rather than take the oath of allegiance to William. The sect of the Non-jurors soon died away, and Anglicanism was strong enough to resist the changes which William III., in the interests of comprehension, wished to introduce into its system. Anne showed herself favourable to the Church, and in 1704 formed the fund which is known as Queen Anne's Bounty, by giving up for the augmentation of small benefices certain ecclesiastical dues which the English crown had inherited as the heir of the papal claims. The old High Church doctrine of passive obedience was revived in a modified form, and the impeachment of an obscure divine, Dr. Sacheverell, for a sermon embodying this view, was one of the causes of the fall of the Whig ministry. The toleration given to Dissenters under William III. was diminished by the Act of 1711 against occasional conformity, and the Schism Act of 1714, which required all teachers to have a licence from a bishop. But these were the last Acts which savoured of exclusiveness. With the accession of George II. a more tolerant spirit prevailed. A yearly Act of Indemnity began to be passed in 1727 for Dissenters who held office contrary to prohibitive Acts. From this time forward there was a gradual progress in practical tolerance, and in the last thirty years of the century efforts were made, with some success, to repeal the disabling Acts. The Corporation and Test Acts were not, however, repealed till 1828, and in 1829 the Catholic Relief Bill became law.

Meanwhile, religious lethargy had invaded the Church and Nonconformists alike. This was broken by the efforts of the Wesleys and Whitfield, and their movement to Christianise the masses met with great success. It was looked upon by the Church with coldness that deepened into dislike, and Wesley's followers formed themselves into a sect known by the name of Methodists. This movement largely swelled the ranks of Nonconformity, but also awakened the zeal of the Church. Still, at the beginning of the nineteenth century, the Church was violently assailed by Nonconformists; ecclesiastical abuses were remorselessly exposed, and claims resting solely on the fact that they were "by law established" were seen by their champions to be untenable. The wave of Liberalism that carried the Reform Bill was seen to be dangerously threatening the Church itself. In the earlier portion of the nineteenth century the most active party in the Church were the revived Puritans, under Simeon and Melvill. A movement which had its seat at Oxford, and was begun by Newman, Keble, Pusey, and Hurrell Froude, revived the old High Church party. In a flow of tracts and pamphlets the leaders of this movement laboured to restore the dogmatic basis of the Church. Their propositions awakened considerable alarm, which increased when some of the leading minds, notably Newman and Ward, joined the Church of Rome. Theological activity again awakened, and questions as to the limits of comprehension allowed by the formularies of the Church of England to its clergy were raised with much frequency. When these questions had slightly subsided, another of equal importance emerged—the question of the limits allowed to the clergy in criticising the Scriptures, and of individual opinion as to their interpretation. The result of this revival of theological interests was to bring forward many points for settlement. In early times appeals in cases of dispute were decided by the Pope; after the Reformation they were decided by the king in council, and a Court of Delegates was appointed when occasion required. In 1832 this Court of Delegates was abolished, and ecclesiastical appeals were transferred to the appellate jurisdiction of the king in council. In the first heat of party feeling, the composition of this court was not much regarded; but more recently this question has become one of the chief difficulties in the relations between Church and State. Another consequence of theological differences was to show that the Church was powerless to influence the election of bishops by the crown. In 1847 objections were made on theological grounds to the appointment of Dr. Hampden to the see of Hereford; but it was found that there was no legal means of having these objections brought to trial. In 1861 the meetings of Convocation were revived, and though the

constitution of that body is not entirely representative of the clergy, it gives expression to many of their grievances. By its agency a revision of the translation of the Bible was undertaken. In 1886 a representative House of Laymen for the province of Canterbury—a body from the purview of which matters of doctrine are excluded—held its first sitting. The Church became in the nineteenth century more vigorous and more highly organised, and recognised within its body considerable variations of theological opinion. On the other hand, Nonconformists were freed from all disabilities and from all legal obligations towards the Church. An Act passed in 1868 abolished compulsory Church rates for the maintenance of parish churches, and the Burials Act of 1880 permitted Nonconformists to bury their dead in the parish churchyards with their own rites and ceremonies. In Ireland, the Established Church had never commended itself to the people, who remained Catholics, and in 1869 it was disestablished and partially disendowed.

The relations between Church and State are closer in England than in any other country. The Church, after the Reformation, drew up its own services and formularies, and is recognised by the State on that basis. It cannot alter its services without the permission of the State, and the interpretation of its formularies is in the jurisdiction of the State, while the appointment of its bishops is likewise in the hands of the State.

Bede, *Historia Ecclesiastica*; Bright, *Early English Church History*; Fuller, *Church History of Britain*; Collier, *Ecclesiastical History of Great Britain*; Blunt, *Reformation of the Church of England*; Short, *History of the Church of England to the Revolution*; Perry, *History of the Church of England from the Death of Elizabeth*; Molesworth, *History of the Church of England from 1660*.

[M. C.]

Church, The Early Celtic. Two sharply-contrasted periods are to be distinguished in the early Church history of Celtic Britain. So long as the Romans ruled in South Britain, the Christianity which gradually permeated from Gaul into the island was weak, mainly confined to the Roman settlements, and affected very little the native population. The efforts made by Ninian, Palladius, and Patrick at the conversion of the Celts outside the province had very little result; but a very remarkable ecclesiastical revolution seems to have closely followed the withdrawal of the Roman legions. A wave of religious enthusiasm, excited perhaps by reaction from the Saxon conquerors, ran through the whole Celtic portion of the island. The first impulse came, as before, from Gaul. Gallic churchmen, like Germanus of Auxerre, re-kindled the dying embers of Christianity in Britain, and led the orthodox alike against Pelagian heretic and Saxon or Pictish heathen. Monasticism, brought by St. Athanasius from the East, found in St. Martin of Tours its greatest Western exponent. From St. Martin's great Abbey of Marmoutier the monastic current flowed through Britanny into Wales and Cornwall, and thence into Ireland, where it developed itself to its extreme limits, and to Scotland, to which the monastic movement first gave Christianity. But the Saxon Conquest cut off all communication between the Celts of Western Britain and the Continent. Separated from civilisation by a wedge of heathenism, the Celtic Church gradually acquired a character of its own that marks it off sharply from the Churches of the Continent. When, in the seventh century, the conversion of the English again renewed intercourse between the Celtic Christians and the Western world, the differences between the Celtic Churches and the Catholic Christians had become so great that intercommunion was regarded as impossible, and a struggle for mastery between the two Churches set in that terminated only with the defeat of the Celts. It was not that the Celtic Christians were in any formal sense heretics. The only points that could be alleged against them were their habit of celebrating Easter according to an erroneous cycle, which the better-instructed Romish Church had abandoned, their peculiar form of tonsure, a few unimportant liturgical differences, and, with a willingness to respect the Roman Church as the *caput ecclesiarum*, a steadfast refusal to yield it that canonical obedience which the Popes had now begun to claim. But though the formal differences of the Celtic and Catholic Churches were thus few—though not on that account the less hotly contested—the difference of organisation, system, and spirit between the two Churches was of the last importance. The child of the monastic revival, Celtic Christianity had become through and through monastic. Monasticism had in many places absorbed diocesan episcopacy. Great monasteries had grown up everywhere, which faithfully reproduced the tribal characteristics of the Celtic State, whose abbots, themselves often of royal houses, exercised a jurisdiction that left nothing to the bishops save the mere maintenance of the apostolical succession. In the great abbeys of Ireland, and still more at Iona—the great foundation of Columba (q.v.), which was the source of the Christianity of Scotland and the seat of a jurisdiction practically episcopal over its dependent Churches — the swarms of bishops were, despite their higher rank in the Church orders, subject to the jurisdiction of the abbot, who was generally a mere presbyter. As centres of education, of Church worship, of spiritual life, of an extreme asceticism, and of all ecclesiastical jurisdiction, the monasteries enjoyed a far-reaching influence. Their intimate relation to the tribe enabled them to permeate the whole life of the nation with a real, if irregular, spiritual enthusiasm. The sixth

and seventh centuries were the great period of the Welsh and Irish saints, of the earliest Welsh literature, of successful resistance to the English, to whose conquests a limit was at last set. Heathenism was driven out of Celtic Britain. When Augustine and Paulinus failed, Aidan from Iona succeeded. At least half of the conversion of England is due to the Columban monks. On the Continent Celtic missionaries carried their own usages and planted their own monasteries. Columba founded Luxeuil, in the Vosges, St. Gall the great abbey called after him in Upper Swabia. In Gaul, Italy, and Germany a new wave of religious enthusiasm was excited by the strange missionaries from Britain. [Abbot; Monasticism.]

But the monastic Church of Celtic Britain, though fertile in saints and missionaries, had a fatal weakness in its want of definite organisation. Even in Wales, where the functions of abbot and bishop were generally conjoined—the founders of the great Welsh monasteries were also founders of the Welsh sees (St. David, for example)—the work of discipline and supervision which belonged to the bishop could be very imperfectly performed by a recluse who chose the remotest solitudes for his abode. Efficient in exciting religious emotion, the Celtic Church failed in its more regular and routine duties. The monks were better missionaries than parish priests. A society that aimed at abjuring the world could not thoroughly make its influence felt in the world. Shut up in an extreme corner of the universe, rigidly opposed to all external influences, its doom was sealed when the triumph of Wilfred at Whitby and the alliance of Oswy of Northumbria and Theodore of Canterbury expelled the Celtic customs from Britain. Henceforth confined to the north and west of the island, the monastic Church lost, with its capacity for expansion, its powers of vitality. It was affected by two opposite influences from without and from within. The triumph of the Roman party in England gave the secular clergy a position side by side with the Celtic regulars. The ascetic impulse which had established the monasteries continued so far that monasticism itself was no sufficient expression of the severe spirit of renunciation that saw in the life of the solitary anchorite the highest expression of spiritual emotion. Even the tribal connection which in the first flow of the movement had done so much service to the monasteries ultimately proved a snare. The secular aspect of the tribe began to assert itself, and an abbey whose head was an hereditary official soon became a monastery simply in name. As the abbey had earlier absorbed the tribe, so the tribe now absorbed the abbey.

Thus assailed from within and without, the monastic Church could offer no efficient opposition to the strong reaction in favour of communion with Western Christendom, even at the expense of a loss of the national usages. In 634 the Southern Irish, in 692 the Northern Irish, accepted the Roman Easter. On the death of Adamnan (704), an effort to introduce the Roman customs into Iona itself led to a schism in that monastery. In 717 the Columban monks were expelled from the kingdom of the Picts. In the middle of the eighth century the Welsh gave up the Celtic Easter. Formal schism was thus ended, but it was centuries before the monastic peculiarities of the Celtic Churches entirely disappeared. The Danish invasions, the English overlordships, both had their effect, yet it was not until the days of Matilda, wife of Malcolm Canmore, that complete diocesan episcopacy and the rule of St. Benedict were imposed on the Scots, and the Culdees (q.v.) reduced to the position of canons regular. In the same way the Norman kings reorganised the Church of Ireland on a territorial, instead of a tribal, basis. Wales, where the Celtic Church had never developed so far, where diocesan episcopacy always continued in a way, gradually became subject to Canterbury, as well as to the English kings. The Norman Conquest imposed on the Welsh Church a foreign hierarchy, that completed the process of union. Centuries earlier the Scottish monks on the Continent had been compelled to accept the Rule of St. Benedict.

The true history of the old Celtic Church has been obscured by a cloud of fable and legend which has seen in it a Protestant witness against the errors of Rome, and a Presbyterian polity worthy of Calvin, which has regarded its characteristics as survivals of the mystic rites of Druidism, and which has found the explanation of its Easter observance in the Quartodeciman practice of the Churches of Asia.

The chief materials for the history of the Celtic Church are in Haddan and Stubbs's *Councils* and in Adamnan's *Life of Columba*. Dr. Reeve's introduction and notes to Adamnan, and Mr. Skene's *Celtic Scotland*, vol. ii., may be mentioned as leading modern authorities for Ireland and Scotland. In the *Lives of the Cambro-British Saints*, amidst much that is wild legend, something authentic may be gleaned. Rees' *Welsh Saints* is an ingenious attempt at reconstructing one aspect of early Welsh Church history. Pryce's *Ancient British Church* is a useful compendium of that portion of the subject. The essays on the *Churches of the British Confession* and *The Scots on the Continent*, in A. W. Haddan's *Remains*, are a masterly summary of the whole question. Montalembert's *Monks of the West* gives an eloquent, if often misleading, picture of the monastic aspect of the Church.

[T. F. T.]

Church of Ireland. [Irish Church.]

Church of Scotland. [Scotland, Church of.]

Church Rates, or rates levied (for the maintaining of the church and churchyard in good condition) from the parishioners and occupiers of land within a parish, are voted and assessed by a majority of the parishioners

assembled in a vestry meeting. Church rates are of very ancient origin: and as early as 970, Archbishop Elfric ordained that Tithes (q.v.) should be divided into three parts, one of which was to be set aside for the repairing of the church. This Church rate, at first voluntary, became gradually obligatory, and though up to 1817 the only method of enforcing payment was through the action of the ecclesiastical courts, it was in that year enacted that the payment might be enforced by the county justices. The objection of the Dissenters to pay these rates led to much litigation on the subject. Frequent bills were brought in for their abolition, and in 1858 a bill of Sir John Trelawney actually passed the House of Commons, but was rejected by the Lords. The opposition of the Dissenters at the vestry meetings was frequently so strong as to prevent the levying of any rate at all, and "in 1859," says Sir T. Erskine May, "Church rates had been refused in no less than 1,525 parishes or districts." [Braintree Case.] The question was settled in 1868 by the substitution of compulsory Church rates for voluntary payments. But Church rates levied under local Acts were not affected.

May, *Const. Hist.*; Lord Campbell's *Letter on the Law of Church Rates.*

Churchill, Arabella (*b.* 1648, *d.* 1730), was the daughter of Sir Winston Churchill, and sister of the Duke of Marlborough. She became the mistress of the Duke of York (afterwards James II.) and by him the mother of James Fitz-James, Duke of Berwick, and three other children.

Churchill, Admiral George (*b.* 1654, *d.* 1710), was a younger brother of the Duke of Marlborough. In 1693, when in command of a brigade, he took his nephew, the Duke of Berwick, prisoner at the battle of Landen. On the accession of Queen Anne he was placed on the Admiralty Board. He had complete ascendency over the head of the Admiralty, Prince George of Denmark, the husband of the queen, and thwarted the counsels of Admiral Rooke. In 1707 he was vehemently attacked by the Whigs for his mismanagement. On the death of Prince George he was dismissed from office (1709). "His mental constitution," says Mr. Wyon, "was the opposite of that of his illustrious relative. He was a Tory of the extreme school—virulent, domineering and foolish."

Coxe, *Life of Marlborough*; Wyon, *Reign of Queen Anne.*

Churchill, The Right Hon. Lord Randolph (*b.* Feb. 13, 1849, *d.* Jan. 24, 1895), second son of the sixth Duke of Marlborough, entered Parliament in 1874 as member for Woodstock. After the Conservative defeat of 1880 he began, as leader of the Fourth Party, to distinguish himself in debate, acquiring fame also as an effective platform orator. In Lord Salisbury's first Ministry (1885) he was Secretary for India; in the second (July, 1886) he became Chancellor of the Exchequer and Leader of the House of Commons. On the 23rd of December, in the same year, he resigned, never to take office again.

Churchill, The Right Hon. Winston L. S. (*b.* 1874), eldest son of Lord Randolph Churchill (q.v.). He served in the Spanish War with Cuba and the Malakand Field Force, and went as a war correspondent to South Africa during the Boer War (1899–1902). He was elected to Parliament as a Conservative in 1900, but dissociated himself from Mr. Chamberlain's Fiscal Policy and joined the Liberals. He became Under Secretary for the Colonies in 1906, and was appointed President of the Board of Trade in 1908.

Churchwardens are parish officers who are charged with the duty of looking after the condition of the parish church, of providing what is necessary for the celebration of the sacrament and the services, of summoning vestries, and of superintending church matters generally. They are usually two in number, and are chosen by the parson and the parishioners jointly, or one by the minister and the other by the parishioners. In the great majority of cases, one is chosen by the minister and the other by the people.

Burns, *Eccles. Law.*

Cinque Ports, The, are a group of seven towns, situated in Sussex and Kent, which still possess, in some degree, their old and peculiar jurisdiction. The original members of the group were Hastings, Romney, Hythe, Dover, and Sandwich, to which the "ancient towns" of Winchelsea and Rye were afterwards added. They still retain the privilege of holding two courts, viz., the Court of Brotherhood and the Court of Guestling; but these exercise now only a very small part of their former functions. The Cinque Ports owe their existence as a corporate body to the fact that in our early history there was no standing navy. Hence, whenever invasion was threatened or contemplated, it was necessary to rely mainly on the services of the seaboard towns. It was the Cinque Ports that contributed largely to the defeat of Eustace the Monk in 1217, and four years later we find the same body summoned before Hubert de Burgh for piracy against the men of Calais. In 1242 Henry issued orders to the officers of this corporation to prey upon French merchants and travellers—an order whose terms they enlarged upon, to the hurt of their fellow-countrymen. By this time, then, we may consider the Cinque Ports to be a recognised institution, with its own officers and warden, and in this capacity its members espoused the cause of De Montfort, and were summoned to send "barons" to the Parliament of 1265. Local historians have claimed for these barons a position higher than that of the borough

members, or even the knights of the shire. It is not, however, till the reign of Edward I. that we have absolute proof that the Cinque Ports possessed a charter. But, on the other hand, the terms of Edward's charter speak definitely of certain rights possessed by this body in the time of Henry II., and more vaguely of others dating back through almost every previous reign to that of the Confessor. And we may consider Edward I.'s charter, though somewhat enlarged by later sovereigns, as a fair summary of the privileges of the Cinque Ports. By the terms of this charter the Cinque Ports were to have criminal and civil jurisdiction within their limits; exemption from all taxes, aids, and tollages; the right of assembling in their own parliament at Shepway, near Hythe, for the purpose of making by-laws; and several other privileges, including the right of regulating the Yarmouth fishery and fair. In return for these concessions, they were to furnish the king at call with fifty-seven ships for fifteen days each year, and there is at least one instance where they had to victual the ships supplied by another town (London). The officer in command of the ships furnished by the Cinque Ports was called the Warden; and under Edward I. the Warden of the Cinque Ports acted as admiral of the fleet from Dover to Cornwall.

The Cinque Ports continued to be the main strength of our navy till the time of Henry VII. In the reign of this king we find signs that they had already fallen, or were falling, under the ordinary taxation of the kingdom, though they are still allowed to deduct £500 from their own share of any tenth or fifteenth levied on the counties of Sussex and Kent—a privilege which Elizabeth confirmed as a reward for their services against the Armada. The Charters of the Cinque Ports were surrendered to the crown in 1685, and most of their peculiar privileges and obligations were abolished by the Reform Act (1832), and Municipal Corporations Act (1835).

Jeakes, *Charters of the Cinque Ports; Great and Ancient Charter of the Cinque Ports;* Lyons, *History of Dover.*

[T. A. A.]

Cintra, The Convention of (Aug. 30, 1808), was an agreement made at the beginning of the Peninsular War between the French and English after the battle of Vimiero. The conditions would have been much more favourable to the British had not the timid caution of Sir Harry Burrard and Sir Hew Dalrymple prevented Sir Arthur Wellesley from following up the advantage gained in the battle. An advance was cautiously begun towards Lisbon; and almost immediately an envoy was sent by Junot to treat. Terms were drawn up, subject to the approval of the English admiral, and this he would not give. Negotiations were accordingly begun afresh, while the English advanced still nearer to Lisbon. Junot on his side threatened to fire the public buildings of Lisbon; and the threat had the effect of hastening on the negotiations. Finally, the Convention of Cintra was signed at Lisbon, the terms being that the French troops should evacuate Portugal, and should be transported to France in English ships. After some trouble it was also decided that the Russian fleet in the Port of Tagus should pass into the hands of the English. Much indignation was felt in England on the news of the convention, although four months previously it would have been hailed with delight. Burrard, Dalrymple, and Wellesley were ordered home to take their trial, and Sir John Moore was appointed to the command in the Peninsula.

Napier, *Peninsular War.*

"Circumspecte Agatis" was the title of a writ or statute issued by Edward I. in 1285, defining the duties of the ecclesiastical courts, and fixing the boundaries between the temporal and spiritual jurisdictions, thus putting a stop to the gradual encroachment of the ecclesiastical courts in matters of which the cognisance belonged to the crown. By this statute breaches of morality, such as adultery and false swearing, are assigned to the Courts Christian, together with questions of tithes, mortuaries, or battery of a clerk.

Cirencester is situated on the site of an important Roman military station, named Corinium. It was captured by the Danes in 878. An abbey of some importance was founded by Henry I., and a fine church built in the fifteenth century. During the Civil War the town was held by the Parliamentarians, and captured by Prince Rupert in 1642, and surrendered again to the Roundheads, in 1643.

Cissa (*d.* 520?) was the son of Ella (q.v.), whom he is said to have succeeded in 517. His name is traced in Chichester (Cissaceaster) and possibly in Cissbury Camp.

Cistercians, The, were a religious order, an off-shoot of Benedictines, founded in 1098 at Citeaux. The order owed much to its second abbot, Stephen Harding, an Englishman, who enjoined especially the strictest adherence to the austere Benedictine rule, from which the Benedictines themselves had long departed. It was Stephen Harding also who, at the chapter of the order in 1119, established the system of government which allowed a large amount of independence to each abbey, under the supervision of the general chapter of the order. The order became very popular all over Western Europe, and in no country more than in England. They first settled at Waverley, in Surrey, in 1129, and from thence spread all over England. Their houses were very numerous, especially in Yorkshire. [Monasticism.]

J. H. Newman, *Cistercian Saints of Eng.*, 1844; *Annales Cisterciences*, 4 vols, Lyons, 1642.

Ciudad Rodrigo, The Siege of, during the Peninsular War, January, 1812, was the opening operation of Wellington's campaign of 1812. The fall of the works was hastened, in spite of many natural and artificial obstacles, on account of the approach of Marmont with a relieving force. On the 13th the Santa Cruz convent was taken; a well-organised sally, however, delayed the bombardment; but on the evening of the 14th it was begun, and in the confusion that arose, the 40th Regiment seized the convent in the suburbs to the east of the town. The bombardment was kept up almost continuously, till on the 18th the great breach became a wide gap. On the 19th, soon after seven o'clock, the assault was begun: the *fausse-braye* was cleared by the stormers; but the French, driven back, held their ground behind the retrenchment, and wrought great havoc among the British. Meanwhile, the attack at the smaller breach had been made with reckless impetousity, which carried the *fausse-braye;* and sweeping onward, led by Major Napier, the light division dashed into the narrow opening, and at the point of the bayonet broke down all resistance, until they had gained a foothold in the town. Then part of the light division, driving all before them, fell upon the flank of the defenders at the great breach, and by their overthrow made a way for the entrance of the storming party; while the rest of the light troops cleared the streets and houses in the town. The town very soon became the scene of the wildest excesses and frenzied disorder. The loss of the allies was 90 officers and 1,200 soldiers.

Napier, *Peninsular War*; Clinton, *Peninsular War*.

Civil List, The, is a sum of money granted annually by Parliament for the support of the royal household, and the personal expenses and bounty of the sovereign. It originated in the reign of William and Mary, and at first comprised the payment of civil offices, and pensions. Its amount was fixed at £700,000 (£400,000 being derived from the hereditary revenues of the crown and £300,000 from the Excise duties). This continued to be the nominal sum—although frequent debts were incurred—until the reign of George II., when it was increased to £800,000, being further raised in 1777 to £900,000; this sum, however, proved quite inadequate for the necessary expenditure, and debts on the Civil List had continually to be paid throughout the whole of the reign of George III.; and it was found advisable to remove from the list many charges, such as salaries of state officers and the like. On the accession of William IV. these extraneous charges were further reduced, and the Civil List fixed at £510,000, a sum which included a pension-list of £75,000. The Civil List paid to Queen Victoria by 1 Vict., c. 2, amounted to £385,000. The Civil List paid to the King by 1 Edward VII., c. 4, amounts to £470,000; total, with annuities and pensions for members of the Royal Family, £543,000.

May, *Const. Hist.*

Civil Wars. [Barons' War; Roses, Wars of; Rebellion, Great.]

Claim of Right, The, passed by the Scottish Estates in April, 1689, declared that James VII. had forfeited the crown for various offences committed against the constitution of the kingdom and the privileges of the subjects, and that no Papist could ever in the future rule over Scotland; it further declared the necessity of frequent Parliaments, and the burdensome nature of prelacy. It was, in fact, a statement of the terms on which the Scottish crown was offered to William of Orange. [Convention of Estates.]

Claimants of the Scottish Crown in 1291. On the death of the Maid of Norway (1290), the last of the descendants of Alexander III., a number of competitors for the Scottish crown appeared. Chief amongst them were John Baliol, Robert Bruce, and John de Hastings, the descendants of three sisters, daughters of David, Earl of Huntingdon. Baliol claimed as the *grandson* of the *eldest* sister, Bruce as the *son* of the *second*, and Hastings, as the *son* of the *youngest* daughter, claimed *one-third* of the kingdom, contending that it was divisible like other inheritances. This disputed succession Edward I. determined to settle, and accordingly summoned a conference of Scottish and English nobles to meet at Norham, May, 1291. It was there determined to accept Edward's appointment as lord paramount, and to appoint commissioners to decide upon the merits of the claimants. Forty were named by Baliol, forty by Bruce, and twenty-four by the English king. In June, 1292, these commissioners, after much deliberation, reported in favour of Baliol, saying that "By the laws and usages of both kingdoms, in every heritable succession the more remote in one degree lineally descended from the eldest sister, was preferable to the nearer in degree issuing from the second sister." Edward accordingly declared John Baliol king.

Besides these three chief, there were ten minor, competitors: Nicholas de Soulis, the grandson of Marjory, natural daughter of Alexander II., whom he declared to have been legitimatised; Florence, Earl of Holland, great grandson of Ada, daughter of Prince Henry, and sister of William the Lion; Robert de Pinkeny, great grandson of Marjory, daughter of Prince Henry; William de Ros; Patrick, Earl of March, and William de Vesa and Roger de Mandeville, the descendants of illegitimate daughters of William

the Lion; Patrick Salythly, son of an illegitimate son of William; John Comyn of Badenoch, who claimed as the descendant of King Donald Bane; and Eric, King of Norway, who claimed as the heir of his daughter, the Maid of Norway. None of these claims were of any validity, and they were not pushed to an open trial.

Claims, The Court of, was established in 1662, in accordance with the first Act of Settlement to examine the case of all dispossessed Irish proprietors. It decided very largely in favour of the natives, and very soon such large grants were made to the Duke of York and others, that it became impossible to provide for any other claimants. Thus, after it had heard about 600 claims its labours came to an end, and the second Act of Settlement, 1665, became necessary.

Clanricarde, Ulick Burke, or De Burgh, 1st Marquis of (*b.* 1604, *d.* 1657), was so created in 1645. Though a Roman Catholic, he continued faithful to the king all through the Rebellion of 1641 (q.v.). His sympathies were largely with the insurgents, but he refused the supreme command they offered him. At court, in 1647, he was able to combine his loyalty with his attachment to the ancient faith, and began to take a prominent part in affairs. When, in 1649, Ormonde left the country, he made Clanricarde Lord Deputy, who in 1650 induced the Irish to reject the terms offered them by Parliament. He continued to hold out for some time longer, but was finally compelled to surrender to Coote on the usual terms of personal freedom, and the restoration of part of his estates. He was succeeded by his cousin as Earl of Clanricarde, the marquisate dying with him as he had no issue. At the Restoration all his estates were at once restored to his heirs. His *Memoirs Concerning the Affairs of Ireland from 1640 to 1653* were published in 1722.

Clare, Gilbert de, Earl of Gloucester (*d.* 1295). [Gloucester.]

Clare, John, Earl of. [Fitzgibbon.]

Clare Election (July, 1828) was the famous contest in which Daniel O'Connell was, after five days' polling, returned against Mr. Vesey Fitzgerald, a supporter of Catholic Emancipation, but a Protestant, who was seeking re-election on becoming President of the Board of Trade. O'Connell was the first Catholic returned to Parliament since 1690. He owed his election to the "forties;" the £50 freeholders and the gentry without distinction of political opinion voting to a man for his opponent. When he was elected he refused to take the oaths; but after the Catholic Emancipation Bill he was re-elected without opposition, and took his seat April, 1829.

Clarence, George, Duke of (*b.* 1449, *d.* 1478), was the third son of Richard, Duke of York, and brother to King Edward IV. After the battle of Wakefield and the death of his father, he was taken to Flanders for security, but returned to England in 1461, on the accession of Edward IV. He was made Lieutenant of Ireland for seven years in 1462. Being greatly vexed at the king's marriage, he intrigued with the Earl of Warwick against him, and, in 1469, married Warwick's eldest daughter, Isabel, contrary to Edward's wishes, at Calais, whither he had retired with Warwick. In 1470 Edward fell a prisoner into their hands, and for a time Clarence and Warwick had everything their own way. But the escape of the king and the defeat of the Lincolnshire insurgents, whose avowed intention it was to place Clarence on the throne, changed the aspect of affairs, and Clarence and Warwick had once more to flee to Calais. Thence they invaded England towards the end of the year, landed in Devonshire, and soon found themselves at the head of a large army. Edward was again obliged to flee from the kingdom. Warwick with Clarence entered London, and re-crowned Henry VI. But Clarence was playing a double game. When Edward IV. landed at Ravenspur and marched southwards, Clarence was in correspondence with him, and when Edward advanced towards London, Clarence marched out and joined him, and fought against his old confederate at Barnet. But Clarence soon quarrelled again with his brother. He claimed the inheritance of Warwick as the husband of Isabel, and was unwilling to divide the earl's possessions with Richard of York, who married the second daughter, Anne. On the death of Isabel, Clarence was anxious to marry Mary of Burgundy, but the marriage was prevented by Edward IV. A violent quarrel ensued. A gentleman of Clarence's household was condemned for using necromancy against the king. Clarence interfered with the execution of the sentence, and was impeached by the king in person before the House of Lords. He was condemned to death in 1478, and was made away with secretly in the Tower. According to a well-known story, which is not supported by authentic evidence, he was drowned in a butt of malmsey wine.

Clarence, Thomas, Duke of (*b.* 1389, *d.* 1421), was the second son of Henry IV. In 1401 he was made Lieutenant of Ireland, and in 1412 created Duke of Clarence. He played an important part in the French wars of Henry V.'s reign, and in 1421 he was defeated and slain at Beaugé by a combined force of French and Scots. He married Margaret, daughter of Thomas Holland, Earl of Kent, and widow of John Beaufort, Duke of Somerset, but left no issue.

Clarendon, Assize of. [Assize.]

Clarendon, The Constitutions of (1164), received their name from the royal hunting-lodge of Clarendon, near Salisbury, where they were enacted. They were the outcome of the determination of Henry II. to settle the relation between Church and State in matters of jurisdiction. The ecclesiastical courts which had been separated from the national courts by William the Conqueror had gradually extended their jurisdiction, and their pretensions had been favoured by the anarchy of Stephen's reign. Now, however, that justice was once more fairly administered in the civil courts, it became an absolute necessity to assert the supremacy of the State over clergy and laity alike, the more so since the ecclesiastical courts had shown themselves unable to perform the work they had undertaken. Many other points connected with the relations between Church and State had to be settled, such as questions of advowson and excommunication, of election to bishoprics, and of ecclesiastical appeals, and on all these points the Constitutions are very firm in insisting on the rights of the crown. "They are," says Bishop Stubbs, "no mere engine of tyranny or secular spite against a churchman: they are really a part of a great scheme of administrative reform, by which the debateable ground between the spiritual and temporal powers can be brought within the reach of common justice, and the lawlessness arising from professional jealousies abolished." The Constitutions were drawn up by a committee of bishops and barons, the Justiciar, Richard de Lucy, having the chief hand in them. Their purport is as follows:—

1. Any controversy concerning advowson or presentation to livings to be tried in the king's court.

2. Churches in the royal demesne not to be given away in perpetuity without the king's leave.

3. Clerks accused of any civil offence to be brought before the king's court, and there to claim their benefit of clergy.

4. No archbishop, bishop, &c., to leave the realm without the king's consent.

5. Excommunicated persons not to give excessive bail.

6. Laymen not to be accused, save by certain legal accusers and witnesses, in presence of the bishop. If those who are arraigned are such that no one is willing or dares to accuse them, the sheriff shall, on demand of the bishop, cause twelve lawful men of the neighbourhood to swear before the bishop that they will declare the truth in that matter according to their conscience.

7. No tenant-in-chief to be excommunicated or to have his lands put under interdict without the king's leave.

8. Appeals shall be from the archdeacon's court to the bishop, from the bishop to the archbishop, and no further (that is, to Rome) without the king's leave.

9. If a dispute arise between a cleric and a layman, whether a fief is held by ecclesiastical or lay tenure, it shall be settled by the declaration of twelve lawful men, in the presence of the king's justice.

10. A man refusing to appear before an ecclesiastical court shall not be excommunicated till an officer of the king has inquired into the matter.

11. Archbishops, bishops, &c., shall hold their possessions of the king as baronies, and answer for the same to the king's justices, and do suit and service and observe all the king's customs, except in cases of life and limb.

12. When an archbishopric, bishopric, &c., in the royal demesne shall be vacant, it shall remain in the king's hand, and he shall receive from it all the revenues and proceeds.

13. If any of the barons refuse justice to an ecclesiastic, the king shall give him justice.

14. The chattels of those who are in forfeiture to the king shall not be detained in a church or churchyard.

15. All pleas concerning debts are to be tried in the king's court.

16. The sons of villeins are not to be ordained without the consent of their lords.

It is important to notice that the mention of a jury in clause 6, and of the principle of recognition by twelve lawful men in clause 9, are the earliest instances of such mention in anything like statute laws, though, no doubt, the practice of such recognitions prevailed long before this date. [Bec.et.]

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, i. 525. The Acts are given in Stubbs's *Select Charters*, p. 137.

Clarendon, Edward Hyde, 1st Earl of (*b.* Feb. 18, 1609, *d.* Dec. 9, 1674), son of Henry Hyde of Dinton, Wilts., entered Magdalen Hall, 1622, the Middle Temple, 1625. When the Short Parliament was summoned, Hyde, who had obtained considerable reputation as a lawyer, was elected member for Wootton Bassett. In the Long Parliament he represented Saltash, and took a prominent part in the attack on the maladministration of the last twelve years. Legal abuses, such as the extraordinary courts, the ship-money judgment, the misconduct of the judges, and other causes which had brought into contempt "that great and admirable mystery the law," met with his chief attention. He shared in the earlier portion of the proceedings against Strafford, and his name is not among the list of those who voted against his attainder. But the question of Church government led to his separation from the popular party, and brought him into connection with the king. In the autumn of 1641 he became, though without any official position, the confidential adviser of Charles, and the real leader of his party in the Commons. He thoroughly disapproved of the king's attempt to seize the Five Members, but nevertheless continued in

his service, drew up in secret the royal replies to the manifestoes of the Parliament, and finally joined the king at York. His great work was the formation of the party of Constitutional Royalists, whose leader and spokesman he was, and he now succeeded in persuading the king to abstain from unconstitutional action, and take his stand on his legal rights. Thus he gave the king a policy, and gathered round him a party. In the spring of 1643 he was knighted, made a Privy-Councillor, and appointed Chancellor of the Exchequer. It was by his counsel that the king summoned the Parliament which met that autumn at Oxford. In all negotiations he was the king's chief agent and adviser, and the Parliament recognised his importance by excepting him from pardon. When, in 1645, the Prince of Wales was sent into the West of England, Hyde accompanied him as one of his council, and also accompanied him in his flight from the advance of Fairfax, first to the Scilly Isles, then to Jersey (April, 1646). In September, 1648, the outbreak of the second Civil War, and the rumour of an expedition to England called him to Holland to join Prince Charles, but in the spring of the next year he was sent as ambassador to Madrid, and remained in Spain till 1651. At the end of 1652 he rejoined the young king, and from that time till the Restoration acted as his chief minister, being promoted in 1658 to the dignity of Lord Chancellor. During these years he managed the king's finances, conducted his negotiations with foreign courts, and carried on a constant correspondence with the disaffected in England, which survives in the collection entitled the *Clarendon State Papers*. At the Restoration he drew up the Declaration of Breda, and it was by his suggestion that the king, instead of attempting to arrange the terms on which he should be restored, referred them unreservedly to the future judgment of Parliament. The king's return placed him at the head of the administration; he was elected Chancellor of the University of Oxford, and created Earl of Clarendon (April, 1661). His daughter's (Anne Hyde) marriage with the Duke of York, which had at first seemed to endanger, in the end confirmed, his power. In his domestic policy he tried to maintain the balance of the Constitution against both king and Parliament. He opposed the attempt to convert the king's Declaration of Indulgence into law (1663). It was afterwards charged against him that, when he might have secured for the king a revenue which would have made the king independent of Parliament, he preferred not to do so. "He had no mind," says Burnet, "to put the king out of the necessity of having recourse to his Parliament." On the other hand, when the Cavalier majority of the House of Commons wished to repeal the Act of Indemnity (1662), he set his influence against it, and kept the king to his promises. "He often said it was the making those promises had brought the king home, and the keeping them must keep him at home." When Parliament introduced the principle of appropriation of supplies (1665), and the system of auditing expenditures (1666), it was against his advice that the king yielded to them. In ecclesiastical matters he aimed at restoring the state of things which had existed before 1640. The Declaration of Breda had held out to the Nonconformists promises of comprehension and indulgence which were not observed. Clarendon, after some hesitating attempts at a compromise in favour of the Presbyterians, urged the re-establishment of the old ecclesiastical system in all its rigidity, and supported the enactment of the Corporation Act (1661), the Act of Uniformity (1662), the Conventicle Act, and the Five Mile Act (1665). Abroad, the alliance with France, which began under Cromwell's rule, was continued under Clarendon. He favoured the Portuguese match (1662) and negotiated the sale of Dunkirk (1662). He opposed the war with Holland (1665), but continued in office, and was made responsible by public opinion for its mismanagement. He had already been unsuccessfully impeached by the Earl of Bristol (1663). In August, 1667, he was dismissed from the Chancellorship, and two months later the House of Commons decided on his impeachment. The charges brought against him were corruption, the intention of introducing arbitrary government, and treachery in the late war. In obedience to the king's command, Clarendon fled to France. Parliament summoned him to return and stand his trial, and as he did not do so, sentenced him to exile for life. He therefore remained in France until his death, which took place on December 9th, 1674. As a statesman Clarendon was honest, and constant to his principles. His attachment to the Church never failed, and his influence with both his masters was always used to prevent changes in its government or discipline. "He did really believe the Church of England the most exactly formed and framed for the encouragement and advancement of learning and piety, and for the preservation of peace, of any church in the world." For the Constitution he had "a most zealous esteem and reverence; and believed it to be so equally poised that if the least branch of the prerogative was torn off or parted with, the subject suffered by it and that his right was impaired; and he was as much troubled when the crown exceeded its just limits, and thought the prerogative hurt by it." During his first exile he wrote the first seven books of the *History of the Rebellion* and portions of the three subsequent books (1646—1648). His object was to explain to posterity the success of the Rebellion, and "to vindicate the memory of those few who out of duty and conscience had opposed

and resisted that torrent," *i.e.*, to justify the Constitutional Royalists. The rest of the *History of the Rebellion* was written during the second exile. Clarendon at first (1668—70) set to work on an Autobiography in which he recounted his life down to the Restoration, and related over again much that he had written in the History. He then changed his mind, and decided to unite the two works, incorporating portions of the *Life* in the earlier work, and also using it to form the latter books of the History. Thus the *History of the Rebellion* consists of two parts, written at two periods; the first composed with the intention of writing a history, the second with the intention of writing a biography. Of these parts the first is the most valuable and the most accurate. The *Continuation of the Life* is an apology for Clarendon's administration, written in 1672 for the information of his children. The *History of the Rebellion in Ireland* was written to vindicate Lord Ormonde.

History of the Rebellion, 1702; *Life*, 1759; *History of the Rebellion in Ireland*, 1712; *State Papers*, 1767; Lister, *Life of Clarendon*, 1838; *Calendar of the Clarendon State Papers*, 1869.

In the first edition of the *History of the Rebellion*, edited by Sprat, Bishop of Worcester, some small alterations were made in the text; these were in part restored in the edition of 1826, and the original text was exactly printed in 1849. [C. H. F.]

Clarendon, Henry Hyde, 2nd Earl of (*b.* 1638, *d.* 1700), was the son of Charles II.'s great minister. In 1685 he was appointed Lord Privy Seal. At the end of the year he was appointed Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland. He found himself completely eclipsed in that country by the influence of Tyrconnel and (as he was a sincere Protestant) his alarm was great when several Roman Catholics were sworn of the Privy Council. He, nevertheless, submitted to Tyrconnel's dictation, and when James threatened to dismiss him for his reluctant compliance in the reform of the army and administration, he wrote humble letters of apology. He was, however, dismissed in 1687, shortly after his brother, Rochester. He was invited to the consultation in aid of the Seven Bishops. When the Declaration of the Prince of Orange was published, he told the king that he had had no part in summoning him to England. He was much grieved at hearing that his son, Lord Cornbury, had deserted James, but at length joined the Prince of Orange at Salisbury. Finding that he was coldly received by William, he soon resumed his Tory principles, and endeavoured to persuade the Princess Anne to insist on her rights to the throne. He took part in the Jacobite plots of 1690. Before setting out for Ireland William sent warning to him through his brother, Rochester. He was subsequently arrested by order of the Privy Council. He again engaged in Jacobite plots, and letters from him to James were seized among Preston's papers. He was confined in the Tower for six months, but afterwards suffered to go free. On the death of Queen Mary he lost his influence with the Princess Anne. The remainder of his life was spent in obscurity.

Clarendon, Sir Roger (*d.* 1402), was a natural son of the Black Prince. He was a personal attendant of Richard II.; and in 1402, on a rumour that Richard was still alive, attempted to raise a rebellion, but was seized and executed.

Clarendon Code, The, is the name given to the four Acts passed during Lord Clarendon's administration, directed against Nonconformists—viz., the Act of Uniformity, the Corporation Act, the Conventicle Act, and the Five-Mile Act.

Clarkson, Thomas (*b.* 1760, *d.* 1846), was born at Wisbeach, and educated at St. Paul's School, and St. John's College, Cambridge. In 1785 he carried off the Latin Essay, the subject being, "Is it lawful to make men slaves against their will?" He was so thoroughly convinced by what he read on the subject of the horrors of the slave traffic, that he resolved to devote all his energies towards its abolition. Clarkson began with indefatigable zeal to prosecute inquiries at every port. The result of his researches he embodied in a pamphlet, entitled, *A Summary View of the Slave Trade.* Most of the leading men among the Whigs encouraged the movement, and Pitt, in 1788, supported a bill for mitigating the horrors of the Middle Passage. Clarkson's next publication was an *Essay on the Impolicy of the Slave Trade.* When the French Revolution broke out, he went over to Paris to try to induce the National Assembly to set an example to the world by introducing real equality for both white and black men. So unceasingly did he labour that in 1794 his health completely broke down, and he had to cease from all active work. He occupied his enforced leisure in writing a *History of the Abolition of the Slave Trade*, which appeared in 1808, the year after the Act for its abolition had passed through Parliament. In 1823 he was appointed one of the vice-presidents of the Anti-Slavery Society, which had just been formed. To Clarkson's exertions is the abolition of the slave trade in large measure due, since it was his researches which enabled Wilberforce to bring such convincing proofs of its horrors before Parliament.

Clarkson's *Memoirs*; Wilberforce's *Life*.

Classes, The Act of (1649), passed by the Scotch Estates, disqualified four "classes" of men from sitting in Parliament or holding office for various periods. The classes consisted of the enemies of the Covenant, Malignants, those who had entered into the "Engage-

ment" with Charles I., and persons of immoral life.

Claverhouse. [GRAHAM, JOHN.]

Cleanse the Causeway (1520) was the name given to a street fight in Edinburgh, between the partisans of the Douglas family and the followers of the crown and the Hamiltons. The Douglases overpowered their antagonists, and drove them from the streets; hence the name of the combat, in which the Earl of Angus, the head of the Douglases, slew Sir Patrick Hamilton, brother of the Earl of Arran.

Cleargrits, THE, was the name given to the advanced liberal party in Canada, about 1850, who opposed the preponderant influence of the French Canadians and demanded representation by population. They were at different times joined for a short period by discontented members both of the conservative and liberal parties.

Clergy is the general name given to the body of men set apart in England for the performance of public worship. Christianity in England was at first monastic, and churches were chiefly served by monks. [CHURCH, THE CELTIC.] The clergy were maintained by the offerings of the people or by the lords. The ecclesiastical organisation of Archbishop Theodore began from the top and was diocesan; but it spread downwards, and parishes were formed on the basis of townships. The Levitical ordinance of giving a tithe to God was first recommended, and in 787 was enacted by ecclesiastical councils which had the authority of witenagemots. At first this tithe went to the bishop, who distributed it into four parts: one for himself, one for the fabric of the church, one for the poor, and one for the incumbent. It was, however, frequently given by the lords of lands to monasteries, and so the system of appropriation began. The appropriators were bishops, monasteries, or spiritual corporations who received the tithe, and paid only a portion which they deemed sufficient to the *vicar* or curate who discharged the spiritual duties of the parish. Where the parson received the endowments of his office he was styled *rector*. This system of appropriation led to the growth and wealth of monastic orders, and to an inadequate provision for the parochial clergy. Its prevalence in England rendered easy the transferrence to Henry VIII. of ecclesiastical revenues which were held by appropriators in this anomalous way.

In early times the clergy were the civilisers and educators of England. Their system, their councils, and their learning made them powerful in influencing the growth of the organisation of the state. After the Norman Conquest their status became more definite, as everything else became more definite likewise. The growth of the canon law into a regular system, and the establishment of ecclesiastical courts gradually led to clerical exemptions from ordinary jurisdiction, which produced disorders. Henry II. strove to remedy this by the Constitutions of Clarendon; but criminous clerks were still handed over to ecclesiastical tribunals if they claimed Benefit of Clergy (q.v.), a privilege which was not entirely abolished till 1830.

The tenure of Church property was regulated by the concordat between Henry I. and Anselm, which established the obligation of homage on all temporalities. This led to the taxation of Church lands on the same footing as lands held by other barons. The taxation of the spiritual revenue of the clergy was attempted by John, but was withstood. The claim of the Pope to tax the clergy for a crusade gradually helped the king to break down clerical immunities on this head. The crown demanded grants from the spirituality, who considered these demands in Convocation. In this way the clerical assembly took part in secular business, and the clergy became more definitely organised into an estate of the realm. They were recognised as such by Edward I. in his Parliament of 1295, to which he summoned the proctors of chapters and of the parochial clergy. But the clergy preferred to tax themselves in Convocation, and therefore did not form a clerical estate. Probably they considered that they were sufficiently represented by the lords spiritual. [CONVOCATION.]

The clergy in the Middle Ages were a wealthy body. Their share of indirect taxation was nearly a third of the whole amount. Their landed estates were spread over England, and their revenues from tithes and offerings were still greater. The monastic orders especially were good farmers, and did much to bring the soil of England under cultivation. The clergy were mild landlords, and stimulated the national industry. The numbers of the clergy were very large, and they were taken from every class of society. Even villeins sought ordination as a means of obtaining freedom. But the wealth of the Church was unequally divided. Pluralities were common, and many of the higher clergy were devoted to the business of the State. Parishes were not well served, in spite of the number of clergy. Very many of them were chaplains, or were endowed by private persons to say masses for their dead. Abuses grew up in proportion as the mechanism of the English Church was broken down by Papal interference, and appeals to Rome rendered futile the authority of the bishops. Till the beginning of the thirteenth century the clerical order was amongst the most resolute supporters of natural liberties against the crown. The growth of clerical corruption gave weight to the attacks of the Lollards upon the clergy, and the clergy finding themselves

threatened made closer alliance with the crown. Yet the clergy, though ready to unite in defence of their own privileges, never made a compact political power. They were divided amongst themselves. The regular clergy opposed the seculars, the monks disliked the friars, Dominicans were set against Franciscans. In current politics the clergy were as much divided as the nation. They represented the education of the country, and their influence was spread into every class. Their moral influence was not so good. The excessive number of clergy, their wealth and idleness, rendered them on the whole frivolous. The obligation of celibacy was frequently evaded by concubinage, for which in some cases licences were purchased from bishops.

After the Reformation the wealth of the Church and the number of the clergy were greatly diminished. The connection with the Papacy ceased, and the clergy became closely united with the crown. Ecclesiastical courts were not, however, abolished; and under Elizabeth a new court, the Court of High Commission, was created for the purpose of exercising the powers of the royal supremacy. Elizabeth used the bishops as State officials for the purpose of reducing to uniformity the body of the clergy. The clergy were allowed to marry, but were ill-provided for, and no longer had an intellectual superiority over the laity. In the struggle against Popery on one side and Puritanism on the other, the clergy became more and more firm adherents of the royal prerogative. The State, in its desire for internal unity, recognised no other religious system save that of the Church of England, and refused to extend its limits. At the same time the Court of High Commission was used to sanction oppressive proceedings on the part of the crown. The Great Rebellion destroyed monarchy and Church alike, and at the Restoration the clergy returned as staunch Tories. Even the avowed intention of James II. to re-establish Romanism did not, in the eyes of some of the clergy, justify the Revolution. Nearly four hundred followed Archbishop Sancroft in resigning their benefices rather than take the oath of allegiance to William III.

The clergy of the seventeenth and the early part of the eighteenth century as a body were poor, and very many of the incumbents laboured with their own hands. Ecclesiastical incomes were still very unequally divided, and there was a great difference between the wealthy and learned clergy and the ordinary incumbents, who were on the same level as their people. The first attempt to raise the position of the poorer clergy was made by Queen Anne, who resigned the claims of the crown on annates and first-fruits, dues levied by the Pope on benefices which had passed into the hands of the crown. Out of these dues was formed a fund, known as "Queen Anne's Bounty," for the augmentation of small livings. From this time the average position of the clergy has slowly increased. In 1836 a body called Ecclesiastical Commissioners was established for the improved management and distribution of the revenues of the Church. The number of clergy attached to cathedrals was reduced, and the surplus revenues are applied to the increase of small benefices. In the same year the Tithes Commutation Act converted tithes into a rent-charge upon the land; and so ended the numerous disputes between the clergy and their parishioners which the system of tithes encouraged.

From the reign of Anne the clergy ceased to have any direct political importance. In 1717 the sittings of Convocation were practically suspended. Since Anne's reign no bishop has held any office of State. During the eighteenth century the clergy were not zealous in the discharge of their duties, till a new stimulus was given to religious zeal by the Wesleyan movement. The clergy were content to rest on their position as officers of a Church "by law established," and there were many scandals in reference to simoniacal appointments. The Tractarian movement of 1833 did much to deliver the Church from Erastianism, and to develop the zeal of the clergy. In 1838 the Pluralities Act did away with many of the abuses caused by the non-residence of wealthy clergymen at the benefices whose revenues they received.

Politically the clergy have been gradually deprived of exclusive privileges, and the State has removed all the disabilities which it had formerly placed on those who were not members of the Established Church. The clergy are now subject to the same jurisdiction as laymen in all civil matters. As regards their orthodoxy, their morals, and the conduct of their ministrations, they are subject to the jurisdiction of their bishops and to the law of the Church. The procedure of the Bishops' Court is regulated by the *Church Discipline Act*, 1840. Appeals from this court were formerly made to a Court of Delegates appointed by the king; but in 1832 this was transferred to the king in Council. [CHURCH.]

Admission into the clerical body is given by episcopal ordination. Candidates must have reached the age of twenty-three, must prove themselves fit in character, education, and orthodoxy, and must show that they have a definite sphere within which they can exercise their clerical functions. By canon law, ordination conferred an indelible character on the recipient, and a clergyman could not relinquish the priesthood. The *Clerical Disabilities Act* (1870) provides that a clergyman may execute a deed of relinquishment, which is to be recorded by his bishop in the diocesan registry. After this registration, the priest or deacon is incapable

of officiating as such, and loses all his rights as a clergyman.

To enable the clergy to discharge their duties more efficiently, the State exempts them from certain civil responsibilities. They cannot be compelled to serve on a jury or to hold any temporal office. Ecclesiastical revenues cannot be seized in payment of debts, but are subject to *sequestration*, *i.e.*, the churchwardens pay the sum due out of the profits of the benefice, after making provision for the performance of the services of the Church. On the other hand, the clergy labour under certain disabilities owing to their spiritual avocations. They are prohibited from trading, and may not sue for debts due from commercial transactions. In 1800 they were declared incapable of being elected members of the House of Commons.

Stubbs and Haddan, *Councils*; Wilkins, *Concilia*; Stubbs, *Constitutional History*, ch. xix.; Perry, *History of the Church of England*; Short, *History of the Church of England*; Blackstone, *Commentaries*, book iv. [M. C.]

"Clericis Laicos" are the opening words of the famous Bull issued by Pope Boniface VIII., forbidding the king to take, or the clergy to pay, taxes on their ecclesiastical revenues. The result of this was that, in 1297, Archbishop Winchelsey refused to agree to a money grant, whereupon Edward I. outlawed the clergy, and confiscated the estates of the see of Canterbury. Upon this, many of the clergy gave in; but the archbishop still held out, till eventually a compromise was made, whereby Winchelsey promised that if the king would confirm the charters, he would do his best to obtain money from the clergy, the Pope having declared that his prohibition did not affect voluntary grants for purposes of national defence. [Confirmatio Cartarum.]

Cleveland, Barbara Villiers, Duchess of (*b.* 1640, *d.* 1709), was the daughter of Lord Grandison, and wife of Roger Palmer. About 1659 she became one of Charles II.'s mistresses. In 1662 her husband was made Earl of Castlemaine, and it is as Lady Castlemaine that his wife is generally known. Her beauty and strong will gave her immense influence at court, while in the number of her intrigues she almost eclipsed the king. In 1670 she was created Duchess of Cleveland, and shortly afterwards left England for France, where she spent the rest of her life. In 1705 she married Robert (Beau) Fielding; but the marriage was subsequently annulled, on the ground of the husband's having committed bigamy. Of her sons by Charles II., the eldest became Duke of Cleveland, the second Duke of Grafton, and the youngest Duke of Northumberland.

Hamilton, *Memoirs of Grammont*; Pepys, *Diary*; Evelyn, *Diary*.

Clifford, John, Lord (*d.* 1461), was the son of Thomas, Lord Clifford, who fell in the first battle of St. Albans. He was a strong Lancastrian, and took part in the battle of Wakefield, after which, in revenge for his father's death, he killed in cold blood the young Earl of Rutland, son of the Duke of York. In 1461 he was defeated and slain at Ferrybridge.

Clifford, Thomas, Lord (*b.* 1630, *d.* 1673), descended from an old Catholic family, highly distinguished himself by his bravery in the Dutch War of 1665, and in 1666 was made a Privy Councillor. He joined the Cabal ministry in 1667, and took a prominent part in the Treaty of Dover, and in advocating the war with Holland. In 1672 he was made Lord High Treasurer and a baron. In 1673 the passing of the Test Act compelled him, as a Catholic, to resign his office, and shortly afterwards he died. Clifford was one of the most zealous Catholics at court, and a strong advocate of tolerance of all religious opinions. [Cabal.]

Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*

Clinton, Edward, Lord (*b.* 1512, *d.* 1585), an able commander and astute diplomatist, was, in 1550, appointed Lord High Admiral of England, having in the previous year held the post of Governor of Boulogne. On the accession of Elizabeth, he was confirmed in his office of Lord High Admiral, though he had just before shown some want of energy whilst commanding the fleet in the expedition against Brest, 1558. He subsequently became a trusted adviser of Elizabeth, and in 1569 did much to suppress the rising in the North. In 1572 he was created Earl of Lincoln, and in the same year sent to Paris to ratify the treaty with France. His policy was strongly anti-Spanish

Clinton, George (*b.* 1739, *d.* 1812), Vice-President of the United States, entered Congress May 15, 1775, and voted for independence. In 1776 he was a deputy to the New York Provincial Congress. He was appointed brigadier-general, and defended Forts Montgomery and Clinton against Sir H. Clinton, Oct., 1777. He was chosen Governor of New York in 1777 and 1795, and Vice-President of the Union 1804—12.

Clinton, Sir Henry (*b.* 1738, *d.* 1795), a grandson of the sixth Earl of Lincoln. On the prospect of a rupture with the American colonies, he was sent out with Howe and Burgoyne in command of reinforcements. He distinguished himself at Bunker Hill, and was soon afterwards despatched to Charleston. He was appointed commandant of Long Island. He did not, however, hold it long, as he was compelled to capitulate to Gates. In January, 1778, he was appointed commander-in-chief in America, and was fairly successful in this position. In 1780 he made an expedition to South Carolina and captured Charleston, and at one time had almost won back the Carolinas and Georgia. This cam-

paign was stained by his tampering with General Arnold to induce him to deliver up West Point—a transaction which cost Major André's life—he failed also to succour Cornwallis. Circumstances which would have tried a much greater general than he, were opposed to him, and he was superseded. On his return to England a pamphlet war of mutual recriminations ensued between the two generals. He was afterwards Governor of Limerick, and in 1793 was transferred to Gibraltar, in command of which post he died in December, 1795.

Bancroft, *Hist. of America*; Gordon, *American Revolution*; Clinton's *Narrative*, 1782, and *Observations on Cornwallis's Answer*, 1783.

Clinton, Sir Henry, G.C.B. (*d.* 1829), entering the army in 1787, first saw active service, as aide-de-camp to the Duke of York, in the campaigns of 1793—4 in the Netherlands. On his return to England in 1795, he was appointed lieut.-colonel of the 66th, and proceeded to the West Indies to join his regiment. There he served under Sir Ralph Abercromby, and was present at most of the expeditions against the different islands. On his return from the West Indies, he served under Lord Cornwallis in Ireland, as his aide-de-camp, and was present at the surrender of the French invading force at Ballinamuck. In April, 1799, he was attached to Lord William Bentinck on a mission to the Austro-Russian army in Northern Italy, and was present at the battles of Trebia and Novi, and the siege of Alessandria. Being afterwards appointed to join Suwarof, he was with him throughout the enterprising campaign in Switzerland. On his return to England he was appointed adjutant-general in India, where he served under Lake at the battle of Lasswaree, and where he remained until the spring of 1805. In 1806 he commanded the Guards in Sicily, and held Syracuse from December, 1806, to the following November. He was then appointed to the command of a brigade in Sir John Moore's expedition to Sweden, and on his return became adjutant-general to the army in Portugal, in which capacity he was present at the battle of Vimiero. Almost immediately afterwards, he accompanied Sir John Moore through the Spanish campaign and the retreat to Corunna. His next employment was in Ireland, where he remained two years, until he found a more congenial sphere in the command of a division under Wellington. He rendered conspicuous service at Salamanca, was left in command on the Douro when Wellington advanced to Madrid, and was present at the siege of Burgos. For his services he received the thanks of Parliament, and obtained promotion, but continued to serve in Spain, and was present at nearly all the battles and sieges in the north of Spain and the south of France. His last public services were rendered to the country at Waterloo, where he commanded a division of infantry. During the peace that followed, he had no opportunity of displaying his great tactical abilities.

Napier, *Peninsular War*; Rose, *Biographical Dict.*

Clive, Robert, Lord (*b.* 1725, *d.* 1774), was the son of an obscure country gentleman of good lineage, but small fortune. He had been sent to India in the capacity of a writer in 1744, and was present at the surrender of Madras to Labourdonnais in 1746. The counting-house was little adapted to his genius, and he soon exchanged the pen for the sword. Having obtained an ensign's commission, he distinguished himself in the operation before Devicotta, where he attracted the admiration of Major Lawrence (1749). He was also present at the disastrous siege of Pondicherry, under Admiral Boscawen. By this time, the success of the confederation which Dupleix had aroused against the English had rendered the French masters of all South India. Clive successfully persuaded Mr. Saunders, Governor of Madras, to allow him to undertake the celebrated expedition to Arcot, which, by dividing the forces of the enemy, saved the English garrison cooped up in Trichinopoly. Clive's defence of Arcot laid the foundation of the British Empire in India. After fifty days, the troops of Chunda Sahib raised the siege. A series of successes, culminating at Trichinopoly, led to the surrender of the French general D'Auteuil to Chunda Sahib, and this in its turn brought about the recall and disgrace of Dupleix. After the capture of Coulong and Chingleput—two strong places in the Carnatic—Clive returned to England, in 1752, with his health greatly impaired. He was received with great distinction by the Company and by the ministers, and on his return to India was appointed Governor of Fort St. David. In 1756 Clive was entrusted with the task of revenging the tragedy of the Black Hole of Calcutta (q.v.) on Surajah Dowlah. With Admiral Watson in command of the fleet, he soon recovered Calcutta, and forced the nabob to treat for peace. But no sooner had Clive been called away than Surajah Dowlah began to intrigue with the French. It was evident that the English power was in serious danger unless a prompt blow were struck; and Clive, after entering into negotiations with the nabob's discontented subjects, utterly defeated the native army at Plassey (1757). Meer Jaffier was appointed to the government of Bengal; but his fellow-traitor, Omichund, whose services had been secured by a forged promise of £300,000, received nothing. From the new nabob Clive obtained for the Company a concession of the land 600 yards around the Mahratta Ditch, and the zemindary rights of the country lying to the south of Calcutta. The victory of Plassey was followed by the assassination of Surajah Dowlah; the reconstitution of the

government of Calcutta, with Clive at its head; the rout of the invading army of Ali Gehur, the heir of the Mogul Empire (1759); and the return of Clive to England, in 1760. On his return, he was received with great distinction by all ranks, and honoured with an Irish peerage. In 1765 he returned once more to India, as Governor of Bengal, pledged to reform the luxury and corruption of the civil servants of the Company—who had made large fortunes by the cruellest extortion—and to settle the disturbed affairs of Bengal. He put an end to these practices by enforcing the laws prohibiting the acceptance of presents from the natives; while, at the same time, he raised the pay of the civil service by appropriating to this purpose the proceeds of the salt monopoly. The Nabob of Moorshedabad [MEER COSSIM] was pensioned off, the dewanny of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa was obtained for the Company by imperial firman, and a mutiny in the army was successfully quelled. In 1767 Clive finally returned to England, with his health shattered by severe attacks of disease, when his enemies in the India House tried to impeach him for corrupt practices; but the House of Commons passed a resolution that "Robert Lord Clive had rendered great and meritorious services to his country." Broken, however, by the pressure of bodily and mental suffering, he put an end to his existence in November, 1774. [INDIA; EAST INDIA COMPANY.]

Mill, *India*; Macaulay, *Essays*; Gleig, *Life of Clive*; Sir J. Malcolm, *Life of Clive*. [B. S.]

Clontarf, THE BATTLE OF, was fought on Friday, April 23, 1014. Brian Boru (q.v.) and his son, at the head of the Irish of Munster, Connaught, Meath, and Ulster, were opposed to the Ostmen (q.v.) of Ireland, reinforced by their countrymen from the Baltic and the Orkneys, and supported by the Leinster Irish. The result was a victory for Brian; but both he and his son fell in the fight. The Danes are said to have lost 6,000 men, and they never became formidable to the native Irish after this defeat.

Niala Saga; *Annals of Innisfall.*

Clontarf, MEETING AT. A monster meeting in support of the Repeal of the Union was to be held on this historical spot on Oct. 8, 1843. The government issued a proclamation for its prevention, and military precautions were taken. O'Connell (q.v.) and the priests exerted themselves to keep the people from assembling, and succeeded, in spite of the short notice given. But it thus became evident that O'Connell would not fight, and thus the Repeal movement collapsed.

Annual Register (1843); May, *Const. Hist.*

Close Rolls, THE, are certain Records of the crown containing letters, mandates, &c., of a private nature. They begin in 1204, and treat of an infinite variety of subjects. They are of very great importance in the thirteenth, fourteenth and fifteenth centuries as containing materials for local and family histories, and also as shedding light on many obscure parts of our national annals. The Close Rolls of John and the first eleven years of Henry III. have been printed by the Record Commission under the editorship of Sir T. Hardy.

Closter-Seven, THE CONVENTION OF (1757), was one of the incidents of the Seven Years' War. In July, the English commander, the Duke of Cumberland, was defeated at Hastenbeck by the French. Hameln, Göttingen, Hanover, Bremen, and Verben were occupied by the French. Cumberland retired under Stade, but his communications with the Elbe were soon cut off. He therefore accepted the mediation of the King of Denmark, and on Sept. 8 signed a convention with the Duke of Richelieu. The terms were, that the assailing troops, such as those of Hesse and Brunswick, should be sent home, and that the Hanoverians under Cumberland should pass the Elbe, and be dispersed into different quarters of cantonments, leaving only a garrison at Stade. The convention was very violently denounced in Prussia, and in England it was generally looked upon as extremely disgraceful. But perhaps Cumberland took the wisest course under the circumstances. The French were in vastly superior force, and his own army was ill-disciplined and not to be depended on in any way. The convention was not rigidly kept on either side, and was subsequently, at the suggestion of Pitt, repudiated by the English, and the Hanoverian army equipped afresh.

Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; Lecky, *Hist of Eng.*

Clovesho was the place where synods were held in Anglo-Saxon times. There have been numerous conjectures as to its situation, but it may perhaps be identified with Cliffe-at-Hoo, in Kent, though it is also said to be a place nearer London.

See, for the discussion of the subject, Mr. Kerslake's pamphlet *On the Supremacy of Mercia.*

Club, THE, was a name given to the Parliamentary majority of the Scotch Parliament, 1689, who used to meet in a tavern in Edinburgh to concert their measures against the government. The Club, which was composed of various elements, including Tories, discontented Whigs, and men of other political creeds, soon attained considerable power, and proved an immense hindrance to the government. In 1690 its chief members, Annandale, Ross, and Montgomery, began to intrigue with the Jacobites, the result being the revelation of the Montgomery plot.

Clyde, COLIN CAMPBELL, LORD (*b.* 1792, *d.* 1863), entered the army at an early age, and first saw service in the Peninsular War. He received his lieutenant-colonelcy in 1832, and in the Chinese War in 1842 went out in

command of his regiment, the 98th. In the Sikh War of 1848—9 he obtained considerable distinction, was wounded at Chillianwallah, and largely contributed to the victory of Goojerat. In the Crimean War he was in command of the Highland Brigade, and greatly distinguished himself at the Alma, after which battle he received the personal thanks of Lord Raglan. On the morning of the battle of Balaclava, the Highland Brigade, under Campbell, was entrusted with the defence of the British landing-place, and the repulse of a squadron of Russian cavalry was one of the results of the day's fighting. In July, 1857, Sir Colin Campbell was ordered to India to assume command against the mutineers. Leaving England at twenty-four hours' notice, he arrived at Calcutta on Aug. 13, and hastily collecting what troops he could, he marched on Lucknow, the relief of which city was effected with consummate skill and generalship. One after another the rebel strongholds were reduced, and Sir Colin's talents as a commander-in-chief were hardly more conspicuous than his tact and temper in the difficult position in which he was placed. On the complete suppression of the Mutiny by this able general and his brilliant lieutenants, Campbell was raised to the peerage, and received the thanks of both Houses of Parliament, with a pension of £2,000 a year. He was created a field-marshal shortly before his death.

Kaye, *Sepoy War*; Kinglake, *Invasion of the Crimea*.

Cobbett, William (*b.* 1762, *d.* 1835), the son of a Surrey farmer, was born at Farnham. After spending some years as a solicitor's clerk and a private in the army, he went to America in 1792, and opened a bookseller's shop in Philadephia. Here he issued a series of pamphlets under the title of "Peter Porcupine." In 1801 he returned to England and set up a morning paper, in which he warmly supported Mr. Pitt. This failed, and he afterwards started the *Weekly Register*. At first he was patronised by the ministry, but in 1805 he became an eager Radical, and a formidable opponent to the ministry. In 1810 he was prosecuted for some remarks on a military flogging, and imprisoned for two years, but still continued to write. It was at this time that he issued *Twopenny Trash*, a series of papers wherewith he harassed the administration. In 1817 he again settled in America; but returned in 1819 and took an active part in the trial of Queen Caroline. He also unsuccessfully contested Coventry and Westminster. Renewing his attention to agriculture, he took a farm, and attempted to introduce Indian corn as a staple article of English produce, but the project proved a failure. In 1831 he was prosecuted for publishing a libel with intent to rouse discontent in the minds of the labourers. In defending himself he made a defiant speech, declaring that "the Tories had ruled the country with rods, but the Whigs scourged it with scorpions." The jury disagreed and he was discharged. In 1832 he was returned to the Reformed Parliament for Oldham. The exertion of speaking on the Marquis of Chandos's motion on agricultural distress on May 25, 1835, and remaining late to vote were too much for him. He went down to his farm early next morning, and died three weeks afterwards. He was a most prolific and popular writer, and the vigour of his style and his extraordinary mastery of the resources of the language have been deservedly praised. Among his works are the *Parliamentary History to 1803*, in 12 vols., a well-known and useful compilation; the *Political Register*; *Cottage Economy*; and a translation of Marten's *Law of Nations*.

There is a good sketch of Cobbett in Lord Dalling, *Historical Characters*.

Cobden, Richard (*b.* 1804, *d.* 1865), was born at Midhurst, in Sussex, and became early in life a traveller for a cotton firm, settling in Lancashire. In 1830 he started a business in partnership with some of his relatives. He was highly successful in his new sphere of work, and travelled abroad in Greece, Turkey, and the United States, in the interest of the house to which he belonged (1834—35). On his return from the latter country he addressed several letters on economical and political subjects to the *Manchester Times*, strongly advocating the theories of his later years, peace, retrenchment, non-interference, and free trade. Meanwhile the Anti-Corn-Law League had been established at Manchester (1838), and when Mr. Cobden and Mr. Bright joined its ranks, they roused its energies to the full. At the election of 1841, when Lord Melbourne made his appeal to the country in favour of a fixed duty on corn, Mr. Cobden was elected member for Stockport. He now had every opportunity of advocating his views; and at last Sir Robert Peel declared himself in favour of the repeal of the Corn Laws (1845) and repealed them the following year. Sir Robert Peel on this occasion paid a just tribute to Mr. Cobden's efforts. While absent on the Continent, Mr. Cobden was returned for the West Riding of Yorkshire (1847). He had before this refused to join Lord Russell's ministry, but offered a strong opposition to the Derby government of 1852, and the Coalition cabinet of Lord Aberdeen. He condemned the war with Russia entirely; and in this matter, though he succeeded in causing a dissolution of Parliament by carrying a vote condemning the proceedings of Sir John Bowring in China, his course was so distasteful to his constituents that he did not offer himself again for the West Riding, and remained out of Parliament till 1859, when he was elected, in his absence, for Rochdale. In 1860 he negotiated the commercial treaty with the French; but always steadily refused

to take office. To his latest years he continued an ardent advocate of free trade, and was one of the few English politicians who, in the early years of the American Civil War, were steady supporters of the Northern States. He died on the 2nd April, 1865.

J. Morley, *Life of Richard Cobden*; W. Robertson, *Life and Times of John Bright*.

Cobham, Eleanor, was first the mistress and then the wife of Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, to whom she was married in 1426. She was the daughter of Reginald, Lord Cobham. In 1441 she was arraigned on a charge of treason and witchcraft, and it appeared that two of her accomplices had by her orders constructed a waxen image of King Henry VI., which they gradually melted before a fire, it being expected that the king's life would waste away as the image was acted upon by the heat. In the event of Henry's death, the Duke of Gloucester, as the nearest heir of the house of Lancaster, would have succeeded to the throne. For these crimes Eleanor Cobham was compelled to do public penance in the streets of London, and was imprisoned for life.

Cobham, William Brooke, Lord (*d.* 1598), was Warden of the Cinque Ports when Bailly's treasonable letters were captured in 1571; by his connivance, Leslie, Bishop of Ross, was enabled to change the packet before it was laid before the Council. In 1578 he was sent on a mission to the Low Countries, in conjunction with Sir Francis Walsingham, and again in 1588 with Lord Derby, Sir James Croft, and Sir Amyas Paulet, as his companions. He was subsequently created Lord Chamberlain.

Cobham, Lord. [Oldcastle.]

Cochrane, Robert, a stonemason, was the favourite and principal adviser of James III. of Scotland, whom he is said to have instigated to murder his brother, the Earl of Mar. On Mar's death, Cochrane obtained a grant of his estates, a circumstance which roused the Scotch nobles to fury. No audience could be obtained with the king except through his favourite. He was hanged, together with some other favourites of the king, at the bridge of Lauder, by Archibald "Bell-the-Cat," in 1482.

Cochrane, Thomas. [Dundonald.]

Codrington, Christopher (*b.* 1668, *d.* 1710), was born in Barbadoes, and having served with distinction in Europe, being present at the siege of Namur, was rewarded with the post of Governor of the Leeward Islands. In 1703 he planned and carried out the attack on the French at Guadaloupe.

Codrington, Admiral Sir Edward (*b.* 1770, *d.* 1851), entered the navy in 1783, and was present at the battles off the De Croix and Trafalgar; he accompanied the expedition to Walcheren; and was employed off the coast of Spain co-operating with the Catalonian patriots during the Peninsular War. During the war with the United States which followed, he was promoted to the rank of rear-admiral. In 1815 he was nominated a K.C.B., was promoted to the rank of vice-admiral, 1821, and was appointed commander-in-chief of the Mediterranean squadron, 1826. It was in this capacity that he took the leading part in the battle of Navarino, Oct. 20, 1827. In reward for this, Codrington was advanced to the dignity of the Grand Cross of the Bath; while from the Emperor of Russia he received the Grand Cross of St. George; and from the King of France the Grand Cross of St. Louis. But at home opinions were divided as to the necessity of what the Duke of Wellington called "an untoward event," and Sir Edward was thought to have been unduly influenced by his Philhellenic ideas; he was recalled in April, 1828. He obtained the rank of full admiral, and was appointed in 1839 commander-in-chief at Portsmouth. In 1832 he had been elected for Devonport in the Liberal interest, and was re-elected in 1835 and 1837; but resigned his seat upon taking the command at Portsmouth.

Coggeshall, Ralph of, wrote a chronicle extending from 1066 to 1224. The earlier part is a compilation from various sources, but from 1187 this chronicle is important and valuable. Beyond the fact that Ralph was Abbot of Coggeshall from 1207 to 1210, and resigned in the latter year on account of ill-health, nothing is known of him.

Ralph of Coggeshall's *Chronicle* is published in the Rolls Series.

Coinage. The Britons first learnt the art of coining from the Gauls about a hundred years before the invasion of Julius Cæsar. The Gaulish native coinage at this era consisted chiefly of rude imitations of the gold staters of Philip II. of Macedon, which almost from the time that they were struck, or say from about B.C. 300, began to have a currency in that country. These copies passed over into Britain, and were again in their turn copied still more rudely by the Britons. The coins of Philip which thus afforded a prototype to both the Gaulish and British coins, represented upon one side the laureate head of Apollo (or possibly Arês or Heraclês), and on the reverse a two-horse chariot or biga. The British imitations of these pieces are so rude that at first sight no resemblance between the original and the copy can be detected. The barbarous artists, unable to copy the head, have represented it by only a few lines and dots, and have at last confined their attempts at copying to the hair and the laurel wreath. On the reverse, the chariot and charioteer have almost, or totally disappeared, and the horse

is barely recognisable. At first the British currency was entirely of gold, but a short time before the Roman invasion, silver, copper, and tin coins were also issued. These began by being imitations of the gold coinage, but afterwards copied the silver and other metal coins of Gaul. The British coins were at first entirely without legend; but about the time of the Roman invasion names began to appear upon them. Some of these names are otherwise known to history, as is, for example, Cunobelinos, the Cymbeline of Shakespeare. Although Cæsar's invasion did not immediately affect the political condition of the country, a tendency to imitate the Roman civilisation (which was beginning to take a firm hold in Gaul) set in in Britain, and of this there is abundant evidence on the coins. The Macedonian type gradually disappears, and we have designs copied from the contemporary Roman coinage.

After the subjugation of South Britain by the Romans, the regular imperial series was substituted for the native currency, the British towns of mintage being Londinium and Camulodunum (Colchester). The last Roman coins struck in Britain were probably some which bear the name of Magnus Maximus the usurper, and which were apparently issued in A.D. 383.

From this time forward a considerable interval occurs. Doubtless, Roman coins were still current in Britain, though as time went on they must have diminished in numbers. Then came the rise of the Saxon currency. The first coins issued by the Saxons seem to have been some small silver pieces usually called *sceattas*, weighing twenty grains, and bearing generally no name, whose precise date, on this account, it would be very hard to determine. Those of the sceattas which are probably the latest are some which have Runic letters, and which can be dated in the middle of the seventh century. While we are speaking of these coins it is the proper place to notice a series of copper pieces, very like the sceattas in size and shape, which were confined altogether to the kingdom of Northumbria, and which belong to a rather later period than the sceattas, namely, to the eighth and part of the ninth centuries. They are called *stycas*.

We then come to the coin which long remained almost the sole money of the English, with the insignificant exception of a few gold coins, which were struck from time to time. This was the *penny*. It was copied from the silver *denarius*, which in the course of the eighth century, and under the Carlovingian dynasty had come to supplant the gold currency of the Merovingian time. The penny, like the Carlovingian denarius, was a thin and flat silver coin, weighing some twenty to twenty-four grains; the full weight being twenty-four, whence the twenty-four grains which make up our pennyweight. The usual type of the penny showed on one side a rude head or bust, intended conventionally to represent that of the king, whose name was written round the head, while on the reverse, the piece showed some device, most frequently a form of cross: around this device was written the name of the moneyer, *i.e.*, the fabricator of the coin, and of the town in which the piece was made. The pennies begin with Offa, King of Mercia (A.D. 755—794), and they continue (with trifling exceptions) the sole English coins until the reign of Edward I. (1272).

The student must be placed upon his guard against confounding the actual denominations of coins with the denominations of *money of account*. In early times calculations were constantly made in money of account which was unrepresented by any coined pieces. This was a reminiscence of the days when money was computed altogether by weight. In fact, it may be said that the name of almost every coin which has ever existed has denominated a weight before it denominated a coined piece (*e.g.*, the Greek *stater*, the Jewish *shekel*, &c.). The Saxon money of account was of two kinds. One was derived from their weight system, which was a combination of the Roman and a non-Roman Teutonic system, and whose chief denominations were the *pound* and the *mark*. The second money of account was simply taken from the Roman (or Byzantine) gold coin, the *solidus*, which in English was called the *shilling*. We frequently read of sums computed in pounds, marks, and shillings. Occasionally a solidus in gold was actually struck. The value of these moneys of account relative to the current coin has remained unaltered. The pound contained twenty shillings, or 240 pence; the mark two-thirds of the pound, or 160 pence. The mark eventually fell out of use, leaving the three forms of money by which we still compute—the pound (liber), the shilling (solidus), and the penny (denarius). From these Latin names come our symbols, £, s., d.

The Norman Conquest produced at first no material alteration in the English coinage. The penny continued to be the sole currency down to the reign of Edward I. The pennies of the first two Williams were as varied in their types as those of any previous monarch; but after these reigns the types diminished rapidly in number, and from the time of Edward I. downwards, through many subsequent reigns, this coin was made upon one uniform pattern, which showed on the obverse a full face crowned, and on the reverse a long cross; the whole displaying a distinctly architectural design. The *groat* (first coined in the reign of Edward I.) was in type almost identical with the penny. The next important change was made by Edward III., who introduced a gold currency into England. For a long period in the Middle Ages—that is to say, from the beginning of the ninth century to the

middle of the thirteenth—the gold coins in use in Western Europe had been supplied by the Emperors of Byzantium, whence these pieces acquired the name of *bezants*. Florence and Venice, in the course of the thirteenth century, instituted a gold currency of their own, and this example was speedily followed by other countries of Europe. Henry III. had made the experiment of a gold coinage by striking gold pennies worth thirty times as much as the silver coins; but this was only an experiment. Edward III. introduced a regular gold currency, first of *florins* (named after the gold coin of Florence), and afterwards of *nobles*, so called on account of the fineness of their metal. In value they were equal to eighty pence—*i.e.*, to half a mark. The noble represented on one side the king in a ship (an allusion to the victory of Sluys), and on the other a highly ornamental cross. *Half* and *quarter nobles* were issued at the same time. The type was slightly altered by Edward IV., who replaced the reverse cross by a sun, and on the side of the ship placed a rose, from whence his pieces got the name of *rose nobles*. They were also called *ryals* (royals). Silver having declined in value in comparison to gold, the rose nobles were now worth ten shillings, and to represent the older value of half a mark a new piece was struck, having on one side the figure of St. Michael trampling upon Satan, and on the other a ship bearing a cross. This coin was called the *angel noble*, or, more shortly, the *angel;* its half was the *angelet*.

Further changes of importance are to be noted in the reign of Henry VII. In the gold currency, the *pound sovereign* was added to the pieces already in circulation. This coin, which was larger than any previously struck and current for twenty shillings, represented upon the obverse the king enthroned, and on the other side the royal arms over a rose. Shillings were now first struck, and the type of the groat was changed from a front to a side face. Henry VIII. struck some double-sovereigns, as well as half-sovereigns, and *crowns*, or quarter-sovereigns, in gold, and he issued a new type of noble (not continued in subsequent reigns) called the *george noble*. It nearly resembled the angel, but displayed St. George in place of St. Michael on the obverse. This king is unfavourably distinguished as the first who persistently debased the coinage of this country. The debasement continued during the two following reigns; but in the reign of Elizabeth the coinage was restored to its former purity. Edward VI. first struck the *crown* and the *half-crown* in silver, as well as the *sixpence*. In the reign of Mary we have sovereigns, rose nobles, angels, half-angels, half-crowns, shillings, groats, pence, and the divisions of the penny; but in the reign of Elizabeth we find the highest complement in the number of its denominations which the English coinage ever attained. It now consisted of no less than twenty distinct kinds of coin, viz., *in gold*, of the sovereign, half-, quarter-, and half-quarter-sovereign, rose noble or ryal, angel (now equal to a half-sovereign), angelet and quarter-angel, crown and half-crown; *in silver*, of the crown, half-crown, shilling, sixpence, groat, half-groat, three-penny, and three-halfpenny pieces, the penny, the three farthings, the half-penny, and farthing. Queen Elizabeth also struck coins for the use of the East India Company, which may be reckoned the beginning of the English colonial coinage. In the reign of James I. there was no substantial alteration, though some of the above denominations were changed, and some abandoned. The sovereign was now generally known as the *broad*, and this name was continued through the reign of Charles I. and through the Commonwealth. Charles I. struck some pieces of the value of three pounds, and subsequently, during the scarcity of gold which he experienced during the Civil War, he melted plate and coined it into silver pieces of the values of twenty and of ten shillings.

From the accession of James I. until the reign of Charles II., considerable fluctuations took place in the value of gold, and therefore in the value of the chief gold coin. At one time the broad was worth as much as thirty shillings. In the reign of Charles II. it became fixed to the somewhat arbitrary value of twenty-one shillings, and as the gold from which the money of this reign was made came chiefly from the Guinea coast, the highest gold coins of this period acquired the name of guinea-pounds, or of *guineas*. Henceforth, until nearly the end of the reign of George III., the guinea entirely replaced the sovereign, and the gold currency, from the reign of Charles II. to George III., uniformly consisted of pieces of five, two, one, and half guineas. In 1817 George III. reintroduced the sovereign, and the guinea was abandoned. Copper coins were first made in 1672, and replaced by bronze in 1861. £5 and £2 pieces, in gold, and a silver four-shilling piece were added in 1887, when new designs were placed on all the coins in honour of the queen's jubilee.

The coinage of Scotland began at a much later date than did that of England. With the exception of a few rude pennies, we have no Scottish money until the reign of David I., about the year 1124. The first coinage of Scotland followed as closely as possible the types of the English money, consisting, like the English coinage, at first exclusively of *pennies*, and about the end of the thirteenth century (David II.) of the penny and the *groat*. The *noble* was likewise introduced by David II., but not continued in subsequent reigns. But after her long struggle for independence had come to an end, Scotland began to issue a series of new denominations, which we will briefly mention in the

order in which they were introduced. Robert II. coined gold pieces called from their types, *St. Andrew* and *Lion* (having the shield of Scotland upon one side), and equal respectively to a half and a quarter of the noble. These two names and types were afterwards united for one piece. James I. struck a coin called *demy*, and equal in value to half an English noble. In the reign of James III. were issued the first coins in base silver, or billon, and of a very low value, which went by the names of *placks* and *half-placks*. The Scottish coinage was now completely separated from the English, though some of the nominal values were still retained. The actual values of the Scottish currency deteriorated so rapidly that when, in the reign of James VI. (I.), the coinages of the two countries had to be brought into agreement, the Scottish shilling was found to be worth only one-twelfth of the English shilling. Therefore, when we read of a certain number of shillings Scots, we may pretty generally reduce that to the same number of pence in English reckoning. In the reign of James III. we notice the introduction of two new gold coins, the *rider*, which shows the king on horseback, and the *unicorn*, on which that animal is holding a shield. Divisions of these pieces and of the St. Andrew were struck. Two other gold coins, not differing much from these in value, but different in type, belong to the reign of James V.—viz., the *ecu*, or crown, giving (as the name implies) the shield of Scotland on the obverse, and the *bonnet* piece, where the king's bust is represented in a square cap. The same prince coined a billon piece, known as the *bawbee*, a corruption from *bas pièce* in Scottish French. In the reign of Mary we have a number of new coins, which by their names show an approach to the contemporary English coinage —viz., the *twenty shilling* piece, the *ryal* in gold, the *testoon*, equal in value to an English sixpence, and a billon piece called *hardhead*. A separate Scottish coinage was continued in the reigns of James I. and Charles I., but the coins were more and more assimilated to the English type.

The Irish coinage calls for little remark. The Danish kings of Ireland in the tenth and eleventh century struck pennies, some of which bear the names of known kings. The first coins struck after the Anglo-Norman Conquest were issued by John while still a prince, and governor of Ireland. Henceforward the Irish coinage follows that of England, with these differences—that it contains no gold coinage, nor the higher denominations of silver, and is generally of a more alloyed metal. The harp for Ireland and the three crowns are the most distinctive types. The principal Anglo-Irish mint places were Dublin and Waterford. Edward IV. struck a considerable Irish currency, and at various mints, Dublin, Cork, Drogheda, Limerick, Trim, Waterford, and Wexford. During the period that James II. remained in Ireland, after his flight from London, he issued a coinage of bronze, generally called gun-money, which assumed the denomination of coins of corresponding size and type in silver. On the accession of William and Mary this coinage fell to its metal value, that is to say, a nominal value of £22,500 was bought back for £640.

The Rev. R. Ruding, *Annals of the Coinage of England*; Ed. Hawkins, *The Silver Coins of England*; J. Evans, *The Coinage of the Ancient Britons*; Dirks, *Les Anglo-Saxons et les Sceattas*; R. W. Cochran Patrick, *Records of the Coinage of Scotland*; J. Lindsay, *The Coinage of the Heptarchy*; id., *The Coinage of Scotland*; id., *The Coinage of Ireland*; Aquila Smith, *Irish Coins of Edward IV.*; C. F. Keary, *The Coinage of Western Europe from Honorius to Charlemagne*.

[C. F. K.]

Coke, Sir Edward (*b.* 1552, *d.* 1634), Chief Justice of England, was born at Mileham, in Norfolk. After leaving Cambridge, he became a member of the Inner Temple, and was called to the bar early in 1578, when his extraordinary ability speedily became manifest. Appointed Recorder of Norwich, 1586, he fulfilled the duties of his office with such acuteness that, in 1592, he was made Recorder of London, and in the same year Solicitor-General. As Speaker of the House of Commons, in 1593, he distinguished himself by the flowery nature of his addresses to Elizabeth, and a few months later became Attorney-General, in which capacity he conducted the prosecution, for the crown, of the Earls of Southampton and Essex (1601). In 1603, Coke, who had received the honour of knighthood from James I., was the crown prosecutor at the trial of Sir Walter Raleigh, on which occasion he displayed unfeeling harshness and arrogance. Three years later Sir Edward Coke was engaged to prosecute the conspirators in the Gunpowder Plot, and displayed great ability in his management of the case. Shortly afterwards he became Chief Justice of the Common Pleas, and, in 1613, was transferred to the King's Bench and made a Privy Councillor. His enemies were, however, many and powerful; Lord Chancellor Ellesmere, Buckingham, and Sir Francis Bacon were his implacable foes, and in 1616 Coke refused to assist the court by giving judgment for the king in the case of Commendams, and thus gave them an opportunity to procure his downfall. The Chief Justice was removed from his office on the charge that in his reports of decided cases he had introduced several things in derogation of the royal prerogative. The enmity of Bacon continued, but Coke, by the alliance of his daughter with a brother of Buckingham, regained some small share of the royal favour, and was subsequently one of the managers of Bacon's impeachment. In 1621 he entered Parliament, where he speedily drew upon himself the hostility of the court by his

opposition to monopolies, and by his determined assertion of the power of Parliament. At the end of the year he was imprisoned in the Tower, but was released after a few months, and continued to take an active part in Parliamentary affairs, whilst, in 1628, he originated and carried the Petition of Right (q.v.). Sir Edward Coke's reputation as a lawyer and as a judge was unequalled in his age. As the author of the celebrated *Reports*, 1600—1615, and the *Commentary upon Littleton*, 1628, he is still a writer of the greatest importance to those who would know anything of the history of English law and practice. [F. S. P.]

Coke, Roger, was the author of a work called *Detection of the State of England during the Four Last Reigns*, Lond., 1697, which is of some historical value.

Coke, William, in 1552, was made a judge of the Common Pleas. He is said to have been one of the witnesses to the will of Edward VI., altering the succession in favour of Lady Jane Grey; but there is some doubt as to whether he actually signed the document. He died 1553.

Colchester, generally identified with the Roman Camulodunum, was one of the most important Roman stations in England. Immense quantities of Roman relics have been found here. It was an important centre under the kings of the West Saxon line, and was strongly fortified by Edward the Elder. It appears in Domesday as a place of considerable importance. In 1218 it was taken by Louis of France. The town enjoyed considerable trade all through the Middle Ages. During the Great Rebellion it was captured by the Royalists under Lord Goring in 1648. Fairfax besieged it for eleven weeks, and finally took it. The abbey was a Benedictine foundation, instituted in the reign of Henry I., and suppressed in 1539. The town returned two members to Parliament from 23rd Edward I. to 1885, when the number was reduced to one. It received a charter from Richard I. in 1089.

Colchester, Charles Abbot, Lord (*b.* 1757, *d.* 1829), was educated at Westminster, and Christ Church, Oxford, and attained much practice at the bar. He entered Parliament in 1795, and strongly supported the Seditious Meetings Bill. In 1801 he was appointed Chief Secretary for Ireland. In 1802 he became Speaker of the House of Commons, in which capacity he gave a casting vote against Lord Melville in 1805. He strongly opposed the Catholic Relief Bill, effected several important improvements in the mode of managing business in the House, resigned his seat in 1817, and was raised to the Peerage.

Colet, John (*b.* 1466, *d.* 1519), Dean of St. Paul's, was the son of Sir Henry Colet, and was educated at Magdalen College, Oxford. About 1493 he went to the Continent, and studied Greek in Italy and Paris, making the acquaintance of Erasmus and other scholars. Returning in 1497, he lectured at Oxford on Divinity and Greek. In 1505 he was made Prebendary and Dean of St. Paul's. Between 1508 and 1512 he founded and endowed St. Paul's School. Colet was one of the most effective of the teachers of the "New Learning" in England in the early part of the sixteenth century, and one of the most earnest of the knot of churchmen who aimed at the reformation and purification of the Church of England without actually separating from Rome.

F. Seebohm, *The Oxford Reformers.*

Coleman, Edward (*d.* 1678), was secretary to the Duchess of York. He was a Roman Catholic, a convert from Protestantism, and a busy intriguer, who corresponded secretly with the French court. He was one of the first accused by Titus Oates of complicity in the Popish Plot. His papers were seized, and he was arrested. In his possession were found letters addressed to Père La Chaise, Louis XIV.'s confessor, in which he asked for money to be employed in giving "the greatest blow to the Protestant religion it has received since its birth," together with other expressions of a similar character. These were considered to be conclusive proofs of his guilt. On his trial Oates and Bedloe bore witness against him, and he was executed.

Colepepper, John, Lord (*d.* 1660), after having spent many years abroad in foreign service, returned to England, and was elected to the Long Parliament, where he distinguished himself by his vigorous opposition to monopolies. In 1642 the king made him Chancellor of the Exchequer, and he acquired great influence in the royal councils. On the outbreak of the Civil War he joined the king, was made Master of the Rolls in 1643, and a peer in 1644. He accompanied Prince Charles to Holland, where he remained till the Restoration, when he was reinstated as Master of the Rolls, but died very soon afterwards.

Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion.*

College, Stephen (*d.* 1681), known as "the Protestant joiner," was a citizen of London, celebrated in Charles II.'s reign for his intemperate zeal against the Roman Catholics. In 1681 he was sent to Oxford by Shaftesbury to watch the proceedings of the court party during the session of Parliament. While at college there, he distinguished himself by inventing a "Protestant flail" for beating out the brains of Papists, and by writing coarse rhymes against the king. He was indicted in London on a charge of high treason, but the bill was thrown out by the grand jury. Subsequently he was tried in Oxford, found guilty of a conspiracy to seize

the king, on the evidence of Dugdale and other informers, and executed.

Collier, JEREMY (*b.* 1650, *d.* 1726), was rector of Ampton, in Suffolk, and in 1685 was appointed lecturer at Gray's Inn. He was a zealous partisan of the Stuarts, and was committed to Newgate for writing against William III.; he was, however, released without trial. But having granted absolution to the prisoners executed for the Assassination Plot (q.v.), he was obliged to leave the country. Returning to London, he wrote several works. In 1698 he produced his *Short View of the Immorality and Profaneness of the English Stage*, in which he attacked Dryden and other dramatists of the day. The book was widely read, and had considerable effect in bringing about the gradual reformation of the stage. Collier also produced, among other works, an *Ecclesiastical History of Great Britain*, which involved him in a controversy with Burnet.

Collingwood, CUTHBERT, LORD (*b.* 1750, *d.* 1810), was born at Newcastle-on-Tyne, and was very early sent to sea. In 1774 he served under Admiral Graves in America, and led a party of seamen at Bunker Hill. In 1776 he proceeded to the West Indies, where his promotion was rapid, as he stepped into each place vacated by Nelson, and in 1780 he accompanied Nelson in the expedition against San Juan, where his strong constitution stood him in good stead among the pestilential marshes. During the three next years he did good service in the capture of French merchantmen, and on peace being concluded in 1783, rejoined Nelson in the West Indies. In 1786 he returned to England, but did not long remain idle; and on the 1st of June, 1793, he greatly distinguished himself, though his services were passed over by Lord Howe. In command of the *Excellent*, he was present at the battle of St. Vincent, and took more than his share of the hard fighting. After this he was employed in blockading the enemy's ports, but managed to obtain a short holiday in 1798. The next year he was made a rear-admiral, and was appointed to serve in the Channel fleet under Lord Bridport, by whom he was shortly afterwards despatched with reinforcements to Lord Keith in the Mediterranean. In May, 1802, he obtained a year's quiet enjoyment with his family, and was then sent off to join Admiral Cornwallis off Brest. In 1804 he was engaged in the blockade of Cadiz, until the union of the French and Spanish fleets compelled him to retire. But he soon resumed his position, and only left it to join Nelson's fleet in its pursuit of Villeneuve. In command of the *Royal Sovereign* he was second in command to Nelson at Trafalgar, and, leading one division of the fleet, was the first to engage the enemy. On Nelson's death the command devolved on Collingwood, who has now been acquitted of any blame for not having saved more of the enemy's ships after the battle. He was at once raised to the peerage with a life pension of £2,000 per annum. He continued actively employed in annoying the French coast, and guarding the relations of England with the countries bordering on the Mediterranean. So unremitting were his exertions, that they produced a disease which finally, on March 10, 1810, killed him almost at his post, and before he could reach England. He was of all the able captains of his day second only to Nelson, nor was he less beloved by his men for his gentle consideration and his daring courage.

Collingwood's *Life*; James, *Naval Hist.*

[W. R. S.]

Colonies, THE, may be said to date from the time of the enterprising navigators of Queen Elizabeth's reign—such as Gilbert and Raleigh (q.v.), by whom the infant colony of Virginia was first planted, in 1587—but it was not until the persecutions of James I. and Charles I. drove many Puritans to seek an asylum in New England that colonisation became at all general amongst Englishmen. Henceforward the colonies on the Atlantic seaboard of North America increased rapidly, absorbing the settlements of other nations, such as the Dutch on the Hudson, the Swedes on the Delaware, and, finally, the French on the Mississippi. [COLONIES, THE AMERICAN.] When these colonies seceded from England in 1783, a new area for colonisation in temperate climates had already been opened up by the discovery of Australia. [AUSTRALIA.] The town of Sydney was founded in 1787, and the progress of the various settlements of the Australasian group has been continuous since that time. Another group of colonies are those which have been acquired by conquest from other powers, chiefly France, Spain, and Holland. Of these the most important is Canada (q.v.), conquered in the Seven Years' War (1757—63), and the islands of the West Indies, many of which were acquired in the same war, and the Cape of Good Hope, taken in the war of the French Revolution (1793—1815). The term Colony is used somewhat loosely to include the various dependencies (whether true colonial settlements or not) administered by the department of the Secretary of State for the Colonies. They may be classed roughly as:—

(1) Agricultural colonies, where cultivation of the soil and sheep-farming is the chief source of wealth — such as the Australian colonies and those of British North America.

(2) Plantation colonies, "where the main object of those who go to them is to plant and rear certain vegetable productions which abound in hot climates only, and which are of great value in European markets"—such as Ceylon, the West Indian colonies, and Mauritius.

(3) Trading colonies—such as Singapore.

(4) Naval or military stations, such as Malta or Gibraltar, which are considered colonies.

The class of penal colonies which existed at an early period no longer remains.

Colonies may be subjected to a further division, according to the means by which they were acquired :—

(1) Colonies obtained by conquest or cession, legislation for which is absolutely vested in the crown, until a representative assembly has once been granted, in which case the crown cannot legislate further, though the colony is still subject to the Imperial Parliament. The law in conquered or ceded colonies remains as it was, unless altered by the sovereign in council.

(2) Settled colonies, acquired by occupation when uninhabited. Although such colonies become the property of the crown, the crown has no power of legislation by virtue of its prerogative, but can only act by orders in council. It must be remembered that a ceded colony is not bound by Acts of Parliament passed before its cession; nor is the colony bound by Acts made after its acquisition, unless the Act is intended to embrace all British colonies, or the colony is specially named.

British colonies are officially divided into three classes :—

(1) *Crown colonies* are ceded or conquered colonies, where the crown has the entire control of legislation and of the officials.

(2) *Colonies with representative institutions, but without responsible government*, where the crown retains only a veto on legislation.

(3) *Colonies having both representative institutions and responsible government*. Such institutions and government were introduced first into Canada in the year 1847, owing to Lord Durham's report. "In colonies with responsible government, the control of all public departments is practically placed in the hands of persons commanding the confidence of the legislature; and the ministers are responsible to the legislature, as in England. The Home Government has in such cases no control whatever over any official except the governor, though the crown retains a veto on legislation. By the adoption of the principle of responsible government," says Sir T. Erskine May, "a colonial constitution has become the very image and reflection of Parliamentary government in England. The governor—like the sovereign, whom he represents—holds himself aloof from and superior to parties, and governs through constitutional advisers who have acquired an ascendency in the legislature." The English constitution, in fact, is generally the type of the colonial governments, which have a governor acting as viceroy of the crown, an Upper Chamber either appointed by the governor or elected by a limited suffrage, and a Lower Chamber, corresponding to the House of Commons, and like it retaining the exclusive privilege of originating money bills. The transactions of such colonies with the Home Government are chiefly confined to foreign and commercial affairs. The former are managed by the Colonial Office; while for the latter purpose the various colonies have commissioners in London called Crown Agents or Agents-General. The colonies administer justice by their own courts of law, but an appeal lies from all colonial supreme courts, except those of Canada, to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council.

R. M. Martin, *British Colonies;* Creasy, *Constit. of Britannic Empire;* Sir E. May, *Const. Hist.;* Merivale, *Colonisation;* Sir G. C. Lewis, *Govt. of Dependencies;* A. Todd, *Parl. Govt. in British Colonies;* Dilke, *Problems of Greater Britain;* Lucas, *Historical Geography of the British Colonies* (in progress). See also the articles on the various colonies.

Colonies, The African. [South Africa.]

Colonies, The American, were for the most part founded in the seventeenth century. The North American continent was first discovered in 1497 by John Cabot, to whom a patent was granted by King Henry VII.; but the first attempts at colonisation were made by the Spaniards in 1521 and onwards, on the coast of Florida, whither the French followed them in 1562. The French also soon after 1535 began to make settlements in the North, over Canada, Cape Breton, and Nova Scotia, then called Acadia. Nova Scotia was seized by England in the War of the Spanish Succession (1701—1713), and Canada in the Seven Years' War (1757—1763). [Canada.] The first abortive attempt at English colonisation was made in 1578 by Frobisher; then followed two by Sir Humphrey Gilbert (1579 and 1583), and two by Sir Walter Raleigh, the first of which, in what is now North Carolina, was for a little while successful. At length, in 1607, the London Company despatched an expedition which effected the first permanent English settlement in North America on the James River in Virginia.

The thirteen colonies which afterwards formed the United States are usually divided into three groups—those of Virginia, New York, and New England.

(1) The Virginia group. *Virginia*, a name given by Raleigh to one of his unsuccessful attempts at colonisation in honour of Queen Elizabeth, at first had a very struggling existence. It was kept alive chiefly by the exertions of a hardy adventurer, John Smith,* who explored the country, and made friends with the Indian chief Powhatan, the theme, with his daughter Pocahontas, of some romantic stories. Fresh immigrants soon began to strengthen the colony; it grew rich by the sale of tobacco, and in 1619, the Virginian House

* *The Adventures and Discourses of Captain John Smith*, by John Ashton.

of Burgesses assembled for the first time. The next few years witnessed some dangerous struggles with the Indians, in which the colony suffered greatly until the submission of the savages in 1646, which was confirmed by a great treaty at Albany in 1684. In 1624 James I. dissolved the London Company, and Virginia became a crown colony; but soon afterwards the valuable monopoly of the import of tobacco to England was secured to Virginia and the Somers Islands by proclamation. Its position under the Commonwealth was one of practical independence. Fortune changed, however, with the Restoration, when Charles II. restricted the commerce of the colony by Navigation Acts, while the Assembly, which was extremely Royalist, persecuted Nonconformists and limited the suffrage. Finally the whole of Virginia was handed over for thirty-one years to Lord Colepepper and Lord Arlington. From these causes sprang a rebellion, known from its leader as "Bacon's Rebellion," in 1675, which was crushed two years later by Sir George Berkeley. Lord Colepepper was made governor for life, and the position of the colonists during the remainder of the Stuart period was disastrous. After the Revolution, however, Virginia recovered her prosperity, and the separate history of the colony consists chiefly in a series of disputes between the governors and the assemblies. *Maryland*, named after Queen Henrietta Maria, was originally part of Virginia, but was made into a separate colony by charter in 1632, when it became the property of a Catholic, Lord Baltimore, under a most liberal constitution, equality being conceded to all Christian creeds. Its condition was one of great prosperity until Clayborne, a man of republican sympathies, opposed the authority of Lord Baltimore, and threw the colony into confusion, which lasted for ten years until 1660. Under William and Mary, the colony passed into the hands of the crown, and Roman Catholicism became illegal; but in 1716 it was restored to the descendants of its founder, now become Protestants. *The Carolinas* were so called in the first instance by the French settlers in honour of Charles IX. of France, and North Carolina was the scene of most of Raleigh's attempts at colonisation, being then part of Virginia. The name was given to them afresh by Charles II., in whose reign it was granted by charter to proprietaries, and a constitution known as the "Grand Model," prepared for it by Locke and Shaftesbury. It was, however, found unworkable; the colonists took matters into their own hands, divided themselves into two governments, began to import negro slaves, and to treat the Indian tribes with great brutality. Finally, in 1729 the proprietors sold their rights to the crown. *Georgia*, originally part of Carolina, was founded by Colonel Oglethorpe, with some government assistance, as a refuge for insolvent debtors and persecuted Dissenters whom he rescued from English prisons. Its religious ideas were strongly influenced by the advent of some Moravian settlers, and by the visits of the two Wesleys and Whitfield. In 1739 Oglethorpe invaded the Spanish colony of Florida without success, and the counter attack also failed. Slavery was introduced into the colony about 1750, and two years later it was annexed to the crown.

(2) The New York group. Of these *New York* and *New Jersey* have a common history. They were in the first instance Dutch colonies. Delaware Bay was discovered by Henry Hudson in 1609, and a settlement made at Albany in 1615. Soon New Amsterdam, at first a trading station, became a permanent town, and the island of Manhattan was bought from the Indians. After a struggle for existence with the English colonies, with the Indians, who nearly destroyed them, and with the Swedes, whose settlement, "New Sweden," was annexed in 1655, the state and city of New Amsterdam became very prosperous. In 1664, however, the country was granted by Charles II. to James, Duke of York; it surrendered to Sir Robert Holmes without a struggle; New Amsterdam became New York, and the district between the Hudson and Delaware New Jersey. For a few years the Dutch recovered it again, but it was finally ceded to England in 1674. James II. united New York and New England under the governorship of Sir E. Andrews, but at the Revolution he was driven out, and the connection dissolved. The rights of the proprietors in New Jersey were bought by the Quakers in 1682, but surrendered to the crown in 1702. *Pennsylvania*, a district originally occupied by the settlement of New Sweden, was also purchased from Charles II. by William Penn in 1682, when its capital, Philadelphia, was founded, and a treaty concluded with the Indian tribes. Soon afterwards a boundary dispute arose with Maryland, which terminated in the cession, in 1701, to Penn of the tract on the south of the Delaware, which was known as the Delaware Territory, and which was attached to Pennsylvania, though with a separate legislature, till 1776, when Delaware declared itself an independent State. After the English Revolution Penn's proprietary rights were confiscated.

(3) The New England group. This was so named by John Smith, who made one of the two early and unsuccessful attempts to found a settlement there. In 1620, however, some Puritan Nonconformists, known as the "Pilgrim Fathers," sailed from England in the *Mayflower*, and, landing in Plymouth Bay, effected a permanent occupation. Their relations with the Indians were on the whole friendly, and fresh settlements were made, viz., *New Hampshire* (1622), *Massachusetts in* 1628, *Rhode Island*

by Roger Williams (1631), and *Connecticut* colonised from Massachusetts from 1633 and onwards. This last settlement involved the New Englanders in two Indian wars, which resulted in the defeat of the Pequod and Narragansett tribes. The northern colonies were subjected by Charles I. to severe restrictions, but in 1643 formed themselves into a federation known as *The United Colonies of New England*, which proved the germ of the present United States. Massachusetts soon proved itself the most powerful of the four colonies, and in 1676 crushed the Indians in a great war called, after the chief of the Wampanoags, "King Philip's War." New England was severely oppressed after the Restoration by Andros and other governors; Massachusetts forfeited her charter in 1684, but with the Revolution better times came. In 1690 the Massachusetts government instigated a war for the conquest of Canada, which lasted with a long interval after the Peace of Utrecht (q.v.) down to the close of "King George's War," *i.e.*, the War of the Austrian Succession. Such was the origin of the thirteen American colonies, of which it may be said that the southern, where slave-labour was universal with the exception of Georgia, were in the main aristocratic, and the northern sectarian and democratic. Their constitutions varied considerably, but as a rule they consisted of a house of assembly elected by the burgesses, or freemen, reinforced frequently by nominees of the proprietaries, a council nominated, as a rule, by the governor, but in Massachusetts by the freemen, and a governor appointed in crown colonies by the king and proprietors, in the others by the council.

Before the commencement of the Seven Years' War in Europe, a border warfare known as the "French and Indian War" broke out in America, during which occurred the occupation of the Ohio valley by the French, who built there Fort Duquesne, and the defeat of General Braddock and George Washington when they advanced against it, 1755. War was not formally declared until 1756, when the newly-built Fort William Henry was taken by the enemy. Towards the end of the war, however, fortune changed, and the great success of Wolfe in Canada was anticipated by the capture of Fort Duquesne (subsequently re-named Pittsburg) in 1758 by General Forbes supported by Washington. After the Peace of Paris (1763), the Virginians defeated the Ottawas and their allies in the last great war waged by the colonists against the Indians.

It is impossible here to do more than just hint at the events which from that date tended to embitter the relations between the colonies and England. There were, in the first place, the *Navigation Laws* (1657—1660), by which the colonies were prohibited from procuring a large number of articles except from England and, after the Treaty of Utrecht, from Spain, and laid duties on the export of articles from colony to colony. These laws were largely evaded by smuggling, and in consequence Grenville in 1764 enforced them with great severity, and by a *Revenue Act* laid heavy duties on various imports, including wines. The *Stamp Act* (1765) followed, which imposed duties ranging from ½d. to £10 on printed publications, but it was received with such outcry and riots all over America, that it had to be repealed in the following year, while a *Declaratory Act* at the same time insisted on the dependence of the colonies on the king and Parliament of Great Britain. This conciliatory policy did not continue long. In the same year the New York Assembly was suspended for refusing to supply stores to the royal troops in obedience to the *Quartering Act*, and Charles Townshend's fatal *Revenue Act*, imposing import duties on paper, glass, tea, and other articles followed in the next year. War was from that moment inevitable; the Massachusetts Assembly was dissolved in 1768 for refusing to rescind a letter of protest, and there was a collision between the citizens of Boston and the British troops, known as the "Boston Massacre," in 1770. Lord North's *Tea Act* (1770), which removed the restrictions except that on tea, postponed the war for awhile, but the rejection of Dunning's petition for the removal of Hutchinson from the governorship of Massachusetts by the English government was followed, in consequence of the burning of the tea ships in Boston harbour, by the *Boston Port Act*, the spark which set the incendiary forces of a century ablaze. [BOSTON PORT ACT; AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE, WAR OF; UNITED STATES, RELATIONS WITH.]

Bancroft, *Hist. of America*; J. Doyle, *The English in America*; Heming, *Enquiry into Colonisation*; Belknap, *Hist. of New Hampshire*; *Massachusetts Historical Collections*; Clarkson, *Memoirs of William Penn*; Stanhope, *Hist. of England*; Macaulay's Essay on *Chatham*; Ludlow, *War of American Independence*. [L. C. S.]

Colonies, THE AUSTRALIAN. [AUSTRALIA.]

Columba, ST. (*b.* 521, *d.* 597), was a native of Gartan, in Donegal; he was the son of Feidlhim and Ethne, both of Irish blood royal. Educated for the Church, he founded, in 545, the monastery of Derry, and subsequently established many churches in Ireland. The victory of the heathen king, Brude MacMaclen, over the Scots of Dalriada, in 560, led, three years later, to the mission of Columba, undertaken for the purpose of converting the Picts: though another account ascribes the departure of Columba from Ireland to his action in bringing about a battle between two Irish tribes. Columba landed in Iona 563, receiving the grant of the island from Conal, King of Dalriada, or, as some think, from Brude, the Pictish monarch; here

he founded his church, which became for 150 years the national Church of Scotland. The Columban church, always intimately connected with the Church of Ireland, was in some points of doctrine and ceremonial opposed to that of Rome, to which it owed no allegiance. [CHURCH, THE CELTIC.] After two years spent in the establishment of his monastery, Columba, in 565, went on a mission of conversion to the court of Brude, King of the Picts, at Inverness; having won over the monarch to the new faith, he proceeded to establish monasteries throughout the Pictish territory. In 575 he caused Aidan, King of Dalriada, to assert his position as a king, independent of the Irish Dalriads; the remaining years of his life were chiefly spent in founding churches amongst the southern Picts. Shortly before his death, which took place in June, 597, he revisited Ireland. The clouds of tradition and romance in which the facts of his life are enshrouded render it somewhat difficult to estimate his true character; he is called by his biographer Adamnan a man of contrasts, "at once tender and irritable, rude and courteous, grateful and revengeful." The verdict of Mr. Skene may be quoted:—"He was evidently a man of great force of character and determined zeal in effecting his purpose, but he could not have been the object of such tender love and implicit devotion from all who came under the sphere of his influence if the softer and more amiable features pictured in the earlier descriptions of him had not predominated." In later years, part of his relics were removed to Kells, in Meath, and part by Kenneth MacAlpine to Dunkeld.

Adamnan, *Life of St. Columba* (Reeves's ed., 1857); Forbes, *Kalendar of Scottish Saints*; Skene.

Columbia, BRITISH, was formerly part of the Hudson's Bay Territories. It rose into importance owing to the discovery of gold there (1858—1861) and the consequent influx of settlers. It was created a crown colony in 1858. In 1866 Vancouver's Island and Queen Charlotte's Islands were incorporated with it, and in 1871 the whole district was formed into a province of Canada (q.v.). The government, which, like those of the other provinces of the Dominion, is subject to the central authority at Ottawa, consists of a lieutenant-governor and a legislative assembly of thirty-eight members.

Combermere, STAPLETON COTTON, 1ST VISCOUNT (*b.* 1773, *d.* 1865), took part in the last Mysore War. He served with distinction through the Peninsular War, was commander of all the allied cavalry after 1810, and decided the fortune of the day at Salamanca by a grand cavalry charge. In 1814 he was for his services created Baron Combermere. In 1817 he was made Governor of Jamaica. In 1825 he was appointed commander-in-chief in India, and accomplished the reduction of Bhurtpore at the close of the Burmese War. He was created Viscount Combermere of Bhurtpore, Feb., 1827.

Commendams. On the vacancy of a benefice, it was sometimes customary to assign it to the care of a bishop, to be held *in commendam* until a proper person could be found on whom to bestow it. This system was employed for the purpose of evading the law against pluralities, and was frequently abused. In 1616 occurred the famous *Case of Commendams*, when an action was brought against Neile, Bishop of Lichfield, for holding a living, *in commendam*, to which it was alleged he had been illegally presented by the king, whose general prerogative of granting a commendam was disputed. The case is famous for the subserviency of the judges, who, having made some slight effort to resent the king's attempt to obtain a verdict favourable to himself, subsequently sued for pardon on their knees. Sir Edward Coke's opposition to James's unconstitutional act entailed his dismissal shortly afterwards.

Commendation. [FEUDALISM.]

Commerce. The history of English commerce is naturally divided into two parts —the progress of navigation and the routes taken by traders. But for the sake of convenience and brevity they must be taken together in the present article.

The chief objects of mediæval maritime enterprise were the fisheries and the trade with the East. The former were principally in the hands of the Dutch and English; the latter, as far as Europe was concerned, in those of the Venetians, Genoese, and Florentines. Fish was a far more important article of diet in the Middle Ages than it is now. It was prescribed during certain times of the year or week by religion, and it supplemented as well as varied the coarse salted food of our ancestors in winter. The principal ports engaged in this trade were Yarmouth and the neighbouring towns for herrings, and Scarborough for cod. There were also extensive salmon fisheries in the Thames, the Tweed, and the Severn, barrelled salmon being an important, though comparatively expensive, article of diet. In the early part of the fifteenth century, *i.e.*, before 1436, Bristol mariners, by the use of the mariner's compass, reached Iceland by the Irish Channel and Atlantic, and successfully competed with their Scarborough rivals. Bristol gained considerable opulence by this trade, and during this century became the second city of the kingdom for opulence and numbers. The magnificent church of St. Mary Redcliffe was the gift of a rich Bristol merchant in this century.

The trade of England during this period was very considerable, and was doubtlessly much assisted by our possessions in France. The English claimed, by virtue of the situation

of the port of Calais, to have the control of the narrow seas, and, as long as they held Normandy and Guienne, with the suzerainty over Britanny, could regulate traffic along the coast from Flanders to Bayonne. Hence the efforts which the Lancastrian kings made for the maintenance of Henry V.'s conquests had a commercial as well as a military purpose. The Emperor Sigismund told Henry V. that Dover and Calais were the keys of the Channel, and should be kept as the special strength of England. The trade with the Baltic and the coasts of Scandinavia and Denmark was in the hands of the Hanse towns, which were closely connected with London, where a powerful corporation called the Alderman and Merchants of the Steel-yard, had important privileges from the thirteenth century till towards the close of the sixteenth. When the English occupation of Normandy was gone, English commerce was seriously affected by the numerous corsairs which hid in the Breton ports, and, after the loss of Guienne, this part of France was similarly affected by the decline of trade with England, and vainly strove, by the revolt of 1453, to renew its old relations with the English crown and people. The commercial relations between England and Portugal were intimate. But after the war with France was practically over, and Louis XI. left no means untried to conciliate Edward IV., the coasting trade of England became again extensive and profitable, for we learn from a remarkable treatise of the time that the English mercantile marine had nearly all the carrying trade of the coast, while that of France was unimportant. The writer, a Frenchman, therefore recommends a stringent navigation law.

In the fourteenth century the produce of the East was conveyed to Europe by three routes at least: two by land, a third mainly by sea. The two land routes started from Bagdad, one passing through Mesopotamia to Antioch, the other through the highlands of Armenia to Trebizond. The third was to Aden, up the Red Sea, then by a short land journey to the Nile, and down the Nile to Cairo and Alexandria. This road ultimately superseded the others. Central Asia, owing to the gradual advance of the Turks, and finally the conquest of Constantinople and the fall of the Greek empire, became impassable for commerce, and the only road which remained open was through Egypt, where heavy tolls were exacted, though not so as to entirely spoil the trade. The goods brought from the East, chiefly spices, which were eagerly purchased by all who could afford them, were carried through Italy, across the Alps, and down the waterways of the Rhine, the Upper Danube, and their affluents, enriching the towns of Lower Germany and Flanders. It is possible that some Eastern produce still found its way into Europe by the Caspian, Astrachan, and Russia, and that the early opulence of Novgorod was due to this commerce.

Meanwhile, the avenues of trade with the East were being closed up, and the Western nations began to be alarmed at the risk of being excluded from the use of products which had become necessaries to many. Maritime enterprise had been stimulated by the example of the Portuguese and their successful explorations of the African coast. Simultaneously, Vasco da Gama, under the patronage of the King of Portugal, and Columbus, under that of Ferdinand and Isabella, strove to find a waterway to the East, and so escape from the flow of barbarism which had nearly destroyed commerce. At the close of the fifteenth century, Vasco da Gama achieved the Cape passage; Columbus, the discovery of the New World. The Pope granted to Portugal and Spain, in an age when no one disputed his authority in the matter, the dominion over their discoveries, and exclusive privileges of trading thither. The result in the New World was the Spanish conquest and the establishment of Spanish monopoly. In the East, factories were established, especially on the western side of Hindostan, which, after the union of the crowns of Spain and Portugal, became also part of the vast Spanish empire. These discoveries were made only just in time. In less than twenty years after the voyages of Columbus and Da Gama, Selim I. conquered Egypt, annihilated what little trade was left by this route, and ruined the prosperity of the Italian and free German cities.

The sea route was for a long time costly and unprofitable. It was protected by a monopoly—due to the papal grants. It was in the hands of a small power, which, after a brief period of extraordinary activity, showed signs of early decay. From these discoveries the English were excluded, owing, amongst other causes, to the timid avarice of Henry VII., to the respect still entertained for the Pope's authority, and when that was discarded, to the fear of the Spanish power. Hence, in the middle of the sixteenth century an attempt was made to develop trade in another quarter. In the year 1553 Sir Hugh Willoughby attempted a North-East passage, with three ships. Two were driven into a desert harbour of Lapland, and the commanders and crews frozen to death. The third reaching Archangel, its commander had an interview with Ivan the Terrible, and obtained for his employers the charter of the Russian Company. The first map of Russia was published in 1560 by an agent of this company; but for a long time the operations of the company were trivial. Similar attempts were made to open up a trade with the Levant and Morocco. These were distinct advances, though as yet without decisive results. In the reign of Henry VIII.

—as we learn from one of his statutes, regulating the price of freights, and directing what should be the goods transported to various countries—it appears that Malaga was the furthest port to which at this time the English ship-master ventured. It is plain that England had fallen far behind other nations in the extent and activity of her mercantile marine.

The resuscitation of English enterprise was due to Frobisher, Davis, and Drake, especially to the last. In 1579 Elizabeth entered into an alliance offensive and defensive with Holland, and thus informally declared war against Spain. Two years before this, Drake had set out on his famous voyage. His distinct purpose was the plunder of Spanish commerce, and he probably started with the queen's concurrence, certainly with her connivance. In those days it was very difficult to prevent private warfare, especially when the object of such warfare was opulent, and possessed of lucrative privileges, held under what had now become a discredited authority, and was wholly unable to defend those privileges by a blockade or a police of the seas. The practical exclusion of all ships but those of one nation from both ancient and new markets explains, though it may not justify, the buccaneering exploits of Drake and his followers. It was the only way intelligible to the wild spirit of the time of breaking in upon a monopoly, when England declared war against Spain and Spain had added the possessions of Portugal to her own. The commerce and factories of the East became lawful prize to the English and the Dutch. The latter were early successful, and established an Indian empire in the Archipelago. But the English built up their commerce with the East very slowly; and after many reverses, Elizabeth granted charters, towards the conclusion of her reign, to the Levant and East India Companies, and made considerable sacrifices of revenue in order to foster their early efforts.

When the rupture with Spain was imminent, England began to plant colonies in North America, Raleigh being the pioneer of those settlements. But they were practically private adventures. The settlers found neither fertile localities abounding in mineral wealth nor opulent kingdoms, the plunder of which would enrich monarchs as well as soldiers of fortune, such as were Mexico and Peru. The settlers in the English plantations had to contest their occupation with vigorous, poor, and resolute savages, who had probably dispossessed and annihilated a wealthier and more civilised race. The later settlers of New England planted themselves on sterile land, and in a climate of extremes. The struggle for existence, as we know, was severe, and a long time elapsed before these settlers could acquire a few comforts. They became, indeed, the nucleus of a vast empire, the opulence and resources of which already are beyond parallel, and will be beyond rivalry at no remote date. But for a long time they were weak and profitless to England.

After many disappointments, the East India Company began to prosper. During the reign of Charles II. its profits from trade were very large, and the fortunes of many a noble and wealthy family were founded on East India stock and the sales of its imports. Like every similar institution, in the extraordinary period of stock-exchange and stock-jobbing activity, which became a frenzy from the Revolution to the collapse of the South Sea Scheme, the East India Company had its rivals for privilege and monopoly. The Parliament had taken from the crown the right of giving patents for exclusive trade, and had assumed the power itself. The crown was not unwilling to transfer the odium of such grants from itself to the Parliament, especially as the companies were perfectly willing to assist the financial embarrassments of the government by loans on favourable terms, or even by the handsel of large sums down in return for concessions. Nor is there any doubt that much of the corruption of Parliament was due to votes bought by those who were eager to obtain the lucrative monopoly of a Parliamentary title. The habit of gambling in companies' shares was greatly furthered by the almost unlicensed practice of offering lotteries on every conceivable subject.

The theory of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries was that the development of commerce was of supreme importance to the community, and that commerce was best secured by monopoly. But monopoly in the existing condition of commercial Europe was to be secured only by war—an improvement, indeed, on the old system of buccaneering, but for a long time accompanied by it. James was too timid to make war on any pretext. Charles could not rely on his subjects, even if he had possessed the means whereby to carry on a warlike policy. But Cromwell consulted the impulses of his age and race when he declared war against Spain. He demanded trade with the Spanish colonies, and religious freedom for English settlers in such colonies. His demands were refused, and he seized Jamaica (intending to seize Cuba), in the Antilles, and Dunkirk, on the Flemish coast. He intended to control the narrow seas, and to found an empire in the West. He defeated the Dutch, humbled them and broke their prestige, and designed to ruin their trade by his Navigation Act. And had Cromwell lived to the natural span of human life, instead of dying in his fifty-ninth year, he could assuredly have founded an English empire in the Gulf states, and have expelled the Spaniards, nearly two centuries before Canning's famous boast was

uttered, that he had called the New World into being in order to redress the balance of the Old.

The commerce of England grew rapidly during the first half of the eighteenth century. Wild speculation was checked by the losses of the South Sea scheme, capital was accumulated, agriculture prospered, and the pacific policy of Walpole and Fleury aided progress. The Seven Years' War, avowedly carried on by England in order to secure commerce by conquest, had, and continues to have, lasting effects on mankind. It gave India and North America to the English race and to English civilisation. But it also brought with it the refutation of the old commercial doctrine that war makes trade and conquest secures trade. England sought to impose part of the charges of the war on the American colonies, and the War of Independence followed. The East India Company found that they could not live and pay dividends on trade, though they clung to their monopoly, and therefore they began to pay dividends out of the tribute of conquered races.

It was supposed that after the loss of the American colonies English commerce had sustained a fatal blow. The leading Americans of the Revolution thought so. The great majority of public men in England held the same opinion. But in a short time it was found that the United States were better customers than the Plantations were. The fact is, commerce, unless it be violently prevented from seeking its own career, has no preference beyond what is suggested by cheapness and convenience. Besides, the latter part of the eighteenth century was an age of practical invention. Watt made the steam-engine a power. The invention of Arkwright increased the handiness of man ten or twentyfold. There is a story that this man offered, if his patents were continued to him, to defray a moiety of the extraordinary charges of government in England. The story is perhaps an exaggeration, but it has a basis of truth. It implies that the consuming power of mankind was enormously increased by invention, and that this consumption was supplied by the machinery of trade and commerce; for it is manifest that Arkwright looked for his customers beyond the wants of his own countrymen. But even more important than invention was the great boon of commercial freedom granted in 1846. The advocates of Free Trade may regret that their views are not accepted by all civilised nations. But they know that the members of every community wish to sell, and that, though the laws may limit their choice in buying, they must buy in order to sell. The effects of the commercial freedom which we have adopted are that we always buy in the cheapest market, not only by choice, but perforce, as those who restrain themselves have to give more and take less, and that the mercantile marine of this country is of unexampled magnitude.

Sanuto, *Gesta Dei per Francos*; *The Libel of English Policy*; *Débats des Hevaults d'Armes*; Schanz, *Englische Handelspolitik*; Macpherson, *History of Commerce*; Porter, *Progress of the Nation*; Cunningham, *English Industry and Commerce*.

[J. E. T. R.]

Commissaries, The Court of, for Scotland, was an ecclesiastical court created in 1563, "to fill up the gap caused in the administration of civil justice" by the abolition of the Consistorial Court. It dealt with divorce cases, sentences of excommunication, and other ecclesiastical matters.

Commissions are instruments issuing from the crown, and delegating authority to particular persons to perform certain acts. Thus, in military matters a commission is, properly speaking, the document issued to every military officer, authorising him to perform duties on behalf of the state. *Commissions of array* were royal warrants authorising barons and others to raise men for the purpose of exercising and training them in war. [Military System.] Among the permanent bodies of commissioners, who perform regularly duties delegated by the crown, are the Commissioners in Lunacy, who are required to supervise the care of lunatics, and the Justices on the Commission of the Peace. [Justices.] *Royal Commissions* are frequently issued to small bodies of persons—members of either House of Parliament, and others—empowering them to inquire into the operation of laws, into alleged grievances, or social, economic, or educational matters; generally with a view to future legislation. They are empowered to collect evidence, and to examine witnesses, though not on oath; and their proceedings are recorded and usually published in the form of a report.

Commissioners, Royal, are appointed by the crown, on the address of the Houses of Parliament, to the effect that the judge who has tried any election petition has reported the prevalence of corrupt practices. They inquire into the matter; and on their report the action of Parliament in the way of disfranchisement or prosecution is based. Such Commissions were established in 1853.

Committee. [Parliament.]

Common Lands are unenclosed and uncultivated spaces, not held in individual ownership, where the neighbouring landowners and tenants enjoy certain rights of *pasturage*, of *turbary*, or cutting turf for fuel, and sometimes of *estovers*, or the liberty of taking wood for the furniture or use of a house. These rights are, in all probability, of very ancient origin, and are probably a survival of the old Germanic system of

common pasturage on the *folkland*, or public land. As, however, from the time of Alfred the folkland became, for the most part, royal demesne, and large estates were formed, the idea of individual ownership tended to supplant that of common ownership. This change was completed by the feudal lawyers, who held commons to be the wastes of manors, and minutely defined the rights of common pasturage. It was either *appendant*, as belonging to the occupiers of arable land, or *appurtenant—i.e.*, founded on a special grant—or *because of vicinage*, or *in gross*. The common lands being regarded as the property of the lord of the manor, he claimed the right of enclosure. This was resisted by the freehold tenants, and the *Statute of Merton* (1235) allowed the owner to enclose or approve against common of pasture, but only provided that he could show that there was left common sufficient for such as were entitled thereto. When the customary right of copyholders became recognised—*i.e.*, about the time of Henry IV.—they also claimed rights of pasturage, and resisted enclosures. The inhabitants of villages, however, had not this privilege, and as late as 1603 the claim of the people of Stixwold, in Lincolnshire, to exercise rights of pasturage in the waste of the manor was overthrown by the courts of law. Under the Tudors the practice of enclosures, together with the still more oppressive plan of converting arable land into pasture-land, became a crying evil. Bacon commented upon it in the *History of Henry VII.*; it was one of the causes of the formidable insurrection in the eastern counties in 1549; and Bishop Latimer, in his famous *Sermon of the Plough*, preached before the court of Edward VI., denounced the nobles as "enclosers, graziers, and rent-raisers." One or two attempts were made to check these practices. Henry VIII. ordered the houses which had been pulled down to be rebuilt, and limited the number of sheep on each farm to 2,000; and the Protector Somerset appointed a Royal Commission "for the redress of enclosure." Such efforts, however, were of no avail, and complaints were frequent throughout the reigns of Elizabeth and of the Stuarts.

Gradually the Statute of Merton came to be regarded as obsolete, and it was thought necessary to obtain the sanction of Parliament for enclosure. The first Local Enclosure Act was passed under Anne, and since then the permission of the legislature has generally been regarded as a necessary preliminary to enclosure. Between 1700 and 1845 some 4,000 of these Acts were passed, and 7,175,000 acres of land enclosed, whereby the class of small yeomen became almost extinct. The legislation on the subject, which was consolidated in 1801, provided that the consent of three-fourths of the freeholders and copyholders of the manor was necessary, that the common should be divided among them in proportion to their holdings, the lord being awarded one-sixteenth. He had also the power of vetoing enclosures. The *General Enclosure Act* of 1845 established a new principle, that of local inquiry through Enclosure Commissioners, so that the poor could make known their grievances; it also set apart certain portions of land for recreation and garden allotments. Passed, however, before the nation had adopted Free Trade, it tended to promote rather than check enclosure; the land set apart for recreation was miserably inadequate, and the great commons and forests were threatened everywhere. Accordingly a Society for the Protection of Rural Commons was formed by the late Mr. Fawcett, and one for the Preservation of Commons near London by Mr. Shaw Lefevre (afterwards Lord Eversley). The exertions of the former were successful in preventing the Parliamentary sanction of enclosures between 1869 and 1876, and the necessity of such a step was proved by the fact that the area of common land in England and Wales was not, as was imagined, 8,000,000 acres, but only 2,632,000. The question of urban commons was not decided until after a violent struggle in the law courts, owing to the fact that while the right of a village to its green was recognised by law, that of a town to its common was not. The crucial case was that of Epping Forest, over which the crown has several important forestal rights, which had, until about 1840, prevented enclosure. When the neighbouring landlords began to appropriate the land, an old man named Willingale resisted them on behalf of the villagers of Loughton, and his cause, taken up by the Corporation of London, resulted, in 1874, in a complete overthrow of the landlord's pretensions. Soon afterwards a Royal Commission decided that the enclosures were illegal, and that the forest should be restored to its original condition. In 1878, therefore, an Act was passed, directing that Epping Forest should be preserved for ever, open and unenclosed, for the benefit of the people of London. The Corporation of London were made its conservators—and subsequently of all common lands within twenty-five miles of London. Finally, the Commons Act of 1876 substituted regulation and improvement in place of the enclosure of common lands, and laid down the principle that no enclosure should be sanctioned by the commissioners without distinct evidence that it would be beneficial to the inhabitants generally. In Ireland and Scotland the question of common lands is not so important, owing to the fact that the comparative barrenness of the soil offers less temptation to enclosures. The first Whiteboy rising in Ireland, however, in 1692, was in great part due to this cause.

Elton, *The Law of Commons and Waste Lands*; Wingrove Cook, *Inclosures*; Brodrick, *English*

Land and English Landlords; Shaw Lefevre, *English and Irish Land Questions*; Nasse, *The Agricultural Community of the Middle Ages*; Statutes 8 and 9 Vict., c. 118, and 39 and 40 Vict., c. 56.

[L. C. S.]

Common Law may be defined as that part of the law of the land which, before the Judicature Act of 1873, was administered by those courts which were called courts of common law, in distinction to the courts of equity. It was founded on the old popular law of the nation, and has grown by the process of legislation and by the assimilation in whole or in part of other systems; just in the same way as the judicial system of the royal courts introduced after the Conquest, became part of our common law. It consists of *written laws* or *statutes*, and of *unwritten laws*, or *customs*; though the term "common law" was generally used in a more restricted sense to describe the system of customary law grounded on the recorded decisions of successive judges, as opposed to the "written" or statute law. Such decisions of judges which are preserved in year-books, reports and digests of cases, as well as certain famous law books such as the *Institutes* of Sir E. Coke, are of high authority in our courts. The application and interpretation of the statute law is entrusted to the judges. By the way in which they carry out this work the law is modified. They are, however, not free to interpret statutes as they choose, but must observe certain rules in their dealings with them; as, for instance, that all Acts of Parliament, except in cases where the effects would be manifestly absurd or unjust, and so contrary to the clear intention of Parliament, are to be interpreted according to the plain meaning of the words. For judges are not set to speculate on, but to carry out, the intentions of Parliament. In order to ascertain the meaning of a statute, the preamble, though not in itself law, may be consulted as an authority. As regards the administration of statutes, it is to be observed that no statute is of retrospective force unless the same is expressly declared; that repealed statutes are not to be taken into account except as having had force before their repeal; that general terms used after particular cases apply only to cases which are strictly *ejusdem generis;* and that all penal statutes and such statutes as relate to taxation are to be construed strictly. The statute law begins with 9 Hen. III., the Great Charter. Customary law has the same force as statute law as to the assent of the people. For *lex non scripta* "consists of those rules and maxims concerning persons and property which have obtained by the tacit consent and usage of the inhabitants of the country." Customs are either general or particular. General customs bind all men equally who are under the same conditions, though they may not have been the subjects of enactment. For a general usage, if ascertained and established, becomes part of the common law and is recognised by the courts. Particular customs are exceptional in their application. For a custom to be good it must have arisen before legal memory, which has been fixed at the first year of Richard I. This doctrine has, however, been regulated by statute (2 and 3 Will. IV., c. 71, 1 and 2). A custom must, moreover, be continuous as regards right; it must be peaceably enjoyed; not unreasonable; it must be certain, or at least such as can be ascertained; and it must be consistent or compulsory in its application. A particular custom which is contrary to general rights must be construed strictly. The customary law is declared by the judges, and their decisions collectively exhibit the common law both as regards the application of statutes and the declaration of customs.

Broom, *Commentaries on the Common Law*; Reeve, *History of English Law*. [W. H.]

Common Order, The Book of, was the service book of the Scottish Reformers, and was compiled, 1567, by Knox from a manual issued by Calvin. It long continued to be used by the Presbyterians, both in Scotland and England.

Commons, The House of, is the Lower Chamber or representative branch of the English Parliament, appointed by popular election. The peculiar feature in the constitutional position of the Commons, when they secured their place as one of the estates of Parliament, is that they had little more than a formal share in legislation; in control of the administration, only the power of petition; and no share at all in the function of justice; while almost from the first they take the chief part in the grants of taxation. This theoretic position is traceable even at the present time, when the Commons alone settle taxation, whereas their share of legislative and administrative power won by the conversion of the petition into a "bill," is only concurrent with that of the House of Lords, and the Lords retain exclusively the powers of justice. These peculiarities are due to the historical conditions of the development of the House of Commons. Another peculiarity, which only these historical conditions can explain, is the meaning which came to be attached to the word "Commons," including freeholders and burgesses at once, and which thus differentiated essentially the English Parliamentary system, both in its construction and in the course it has run, from the representative systems of other countries. Lastly, the history of the third estate brings out the original character of the members of the House of Commons as being mere delegates, and the gradual replacement of this by the higher character of senators, so that each member is not the deputy of a locality but a representative of the whole.

The word "*Commons*" (*communitates, com-*

munauté) is found in the thirteenth century often in the simple sense of the whole body of the nation. But under the influence of the French use of the word for an organised body such as the town corporations, it comes to be also used for smaller organised representative bodies, such as the county courts or the corporate body controlling the boroughs, or again, the body of tenants-in-chief. The barons at Oxford in 1258 speak of the twelve appointed *per le commun*, *i.e.*, by the baronial tenants-in-chief, to consult *pour le commun de la terre*, *i.e.*, for the whole nation. Indeed the whole constitutional struggle between classes in this century may be put in the formula of a struggle as to the practical interpretation of the word *communitas*. And for some time it seemed that the English Constitution would be cast in a mould like the French, constituted of clergy, chief tenants, boroughs; or at least that it would resemble that of Aragon (clergy, magnates, knights, towns); for each of these bodies had in England at one time an identity of its own. What, then, defeated this tendency? What common ground brought the burgesses and freeholders' class together in England alone of all countries? The answer is, the shire-moot, or county court. Here the two classes had been long used to meet and work together under royal orders, the *communitas sciræ* had contained not only freeholders from hundred and township, but also the representative burgesses from each borough, entrusting the duties laid on the shire to three or four of the more discreet knights; and after the dangerous precedent had been set aside of Simon de Montfort's dealing with the boroughs apart from their shires, from 1283 the writ for knights and burgesses alike was executed in the shire-moot. The shire had brought over the knights from the baronial body to the freeholders, and had now associated the knights with the burgesses. The only thing which threatened to keep them still separated in Parliament was the system of taxation, and when the old feudal taxation by aids, scutages, and carucages [AID] had yielded to the national taxation by subsidies and customs, it became natural for the knights and burgesses, as the representative and taxing body, to part off from the barons, and to sit together in one House of Commons, *i.e.*, about the beginning of Edward III.'s reign.

The English Parliament, then, in the fourteenth century, consisted of two "estates," the clergy and the lords, and a third body, which had more the character of a representation of localities. It had seemed not impossible under Edward I. that two other estates might be added — the lawyers and the merchants. The former would have been fatal to the Commons' acquisition of administrative supervision; the latter, fatal to their monopoly of taxation, and so to their one weapon against the crown. However, not only was this not realised, but the actually existing estate of clergy entered on the suicidal policy of escaping their position between "the hammer and the anvil"—Pope and king—by taking up a position of jealous constitutional isolation, and persisted in dropping out of the Parliamentary system. The Commons were left alone, the sole body representative of the nation, and the sole body too which could be fairly deemed able to impose a national tax. For while the making of laws and the administering of supreme justice had been the business of the king and his great council, it had been always necessary to obtain the active concurrence of the shire-moot to raise a tax. Thus the terms in which the representatives are called to Edward I.'s Parliaments are merely "to hear;" under Edward II., "to hear and consent to," as against the Lords "to treat of" the matters. But the separation of the Houses increased the powers of the representative House, as did also the appeals to them made by the contending parties of the court and the opposition baronage in 1322, 1327, 1386, 1387, 1399. Also through the reign of Edward III. the Commons felt, as their song said, that they were the "shippe's mast, That with their chattel and their good Maintained the war from first to last." And moreover, the knights of the shire were now taking up that attitude of bold, yet wary and unsleeping opposition which justifies Hallam in saying that they "bore the brunt of the battle for constitutional liberty." Thus it was almost wholly their energy which, in the battle over taxation, secured to Parliament in 1340 the sole right to direct taxation, and in 1362 to the increase of the customs; while, under Richard II., the indirect control by appropriation and audit, and the rule settled in 1401, that grants be made the last day of the session, permanently secured the principle that redress precedes supply, as the downfall of Richard II. decided against the claim of the crown to an ordaining power tantamount to the law-making power of Parliament. "The year 1341 distinctly marks the acquisition by the third estate of its full share of Parliamentary power, the Commons asserting, and the Lords allowing them, an equal share in the common demand of right and control" (Stubbs).

In legislation it had already in 1327 become the rule to say "at the petition of the Commons," instead of "by their assent." And this was made a reality—the real initiative was given to them—when in 1439 the petition was transformed into a "bill, containing in itself the form of an act," a usage which became regular under the Tudors. To the control of administration the Commons had made their first step by their great petition against grievances in 1309, and this attitude they maintained by indefatigable petitioning through the century, *e.g.*, in 1376 especially; while their being called on to

ratify the depositions of Edward II. and Richard II. strengthened their claim immensely, as did the period of regency after Edward III., and above all the fact that, up to 1437, the Lancastrian dynasty's Parliamentary title obliged the kings to subject their Council to instructions from Parliament, and to constitute it of such members as would be agreeable to the Commons. Even Edward IV. evaded rather than defied their interference. The Tudors had the confidence of their subjects, but they packed the House with creatures of the court, and introduced more than eighty new boroughs; yet, in the last resort, even the Tudors knew how to yield when the temper of the House had been dangerously stirred by anxiety as to the succession, by an ecclesiastical measure for which they were not prepared, or by some great defect in the ordinary administration, such as the abuse of monopolies in Elizabeth's reign. In the seventeenth century a common spirit animated the whole House. It was far better attended, the grant of freedom of speech became more of a reality than the warning with which it was conjoined against abuse of the grant. The old weapon of impeachment, which had proved so formidable to unpopular royal ministers in 1377, and in 1386, and in 1449, had lain unused since then, but was brought forth once more against Mompesson and Bacon in 1621, and against the Earl of Middlesex in 1624, and, as used against Strafford in 1640, gave the deathblow to ministerial reliance on crown support. No part of the Commons' work is now more thoroughly carried out than this supervision of all public departments by the machinery of motions for a resolution, motions before supply, and questions to ministers. Similarly the House, by its representative character and its hold of the purse, has long had practically the final voice in deliberation on such matters as foreign policy, and the determination of war and peace. In the fourteenth century the Commons had mostly avoided direct interference in such questions, but the failure of the French wars had roused them to more straightforward interposition, and this jealousy was afterwards revived by distrust of the action of the court. In taxation the fourteenth century had seen the sole right to impose taxes won for Parliament by the Commons, the fifteenth sees the Commons secure the fruits of this victory solely for themselves, for in 1407 it was allowed that a tax could originate only with the Commons; the Lords and the clergy in Convocation having nothing to do but practically to follow with corresponding grants. This claim they did not relax under the Tudors, though it was evaded by benevolences, and it was this which brought them first into collision with the Stuart theory of prerogative, which took nowhere a more offensive form than in the ship-money and customs duties by which it aimed at superseding the representative control of taxation. The Petition of Right (1628) and the Bill of Rights (1689) embodied this as a cardinal principle of the constitution, and it was completed by the doctrine first heard in 1671 and 1680, and finally vindicated in 1861 by their resolute action in rejecting the Lords' amendments to the Bill for Repealing the Paper Duties, that no amendment can be made in a money bill of the Commons, nor can the Lords even indirectly impose any charge. And this the language of the Acts of Parliament and of the King's Speech formally recognises. It is this principle as much as the necessity to renew the Mutiny Act, that gives the Commons control over the numbers of the standing army. But with all their sole control, and the annual Appropriation Act, and Budget, and elaborate machinery for audit and for criticism of each item, it may be doubted whether the growth of public expenditure is not beyond the power of the House, as at present constituted, to restrain. The Grand Committees established in the year 1882 may lead to some more feasible means towards this end.

In the course of their long advance to supreme power in the state, the Commons have sometimes made errors; thus they were defeated in their attempts to tax the clergy (1449) and to claim a share of the Lords' judicial powers (1400, and *Floyd's Case*, 1621), and they have abandoned the practice of forcing bills through the Lords by tacking them to a money bill; but most of all have they misjudged their dignity in the interpretation they have sometimes given to Privilege of the House. As to the elections in the shires, Acts had been passed in 1406 and 1430 to check the interference respectively of the sheriff and of others than freeholders; but the cognisance of disputed elections lay with king and Council until the Commons took notice of such cases in 1553 and 1586, and in 1604 entered on an indecisive conflict with the Chancery, since which date, however, or indisputably since the *Aylesbury Case* (q.v.) in 1704, the House has been judge of its own elections, a function it deputed to a committee from 1790, and from 1868 more honourably delegated to the judges, with marked results on the purification of the public tone in relation to bribery, as can be seen in the stringent clauses of the Bill of 1883. [Bribery.] As to privilege of members of the House of Commons from arrest, the first important case to be noticed is that when the Speaker, Thorpe, was imprisoned on an action of trespass brought by the Duke of York in 1453. But Henry VIII., in *Ferrers' Case* (1543) supported their claim, and James I. had to allow it in his first Parliament (*Shirley's Case*), and it has been allowed consistently ever since, with the exception that it has ceased to be extended to

members' servants. The House has always exercised jurisdiction over its own members by committal or expulsion, though the former expires at a prorogation, and is so far inferior to the internal jurisdiction of the Lords. The important privilege of freedom of speech was not acquired till the Lancastrian reigns, and was little respected by the Tudor kings, but under the Stuarts the release of Sir John Eliot and others (1629), and the failure of the attempt upon the Five Members (1642), led to the recognition of the principle by the King's Bench and its final enunciation in the Bill of Rights (1689). It still was found necessary, after the undignified dispute with Stockdale (1837–40), to pass an Act protecting printers of Parliamentary papers from liability to actions for libel. On the other hand, in appealing to privilege to prevent the publication of debates, the Commons had put Wilkes into the position of a representative of a just and irresistible popular demand (1771) and they have more prudently given up this pretension, as well as the inconvenient custom of excluding "strangers" at a single member's request.

The constitution and structure of the House of Commons has also a history of its own. In 1295, 37 counties and 116 boroughs were represented: the Tudor period saw the addition of two English counties with two members, and 12 Welsh counties with one member each, and more than 80 boroughs. It was not until Charles II.'s reign that the Palatinate of Durham first sent members to the House of Commons. The number of boroughs increased up to 1832, and in the interval 45 members had been added for Scotland, 100 for Ireland, and five for the Universities. After many proposals for reform, the Reform Bills of 1832 and 1868 transferred members from many boroughs to the counties, and increased the representation of Scotland and Ireland. Further alterations were made in 1885; and now the total is 670. [Reform.] In 1430 the franchise was declared to belong only to 40s. freeholders; in 1707 a property qualification for members was required; but the former was enlarged by the Bill of 1832, the latter abolished in 1858. [Election.] The original theory of the representative system under which a member was a delegate from a particular place had always tended to be tacitly dropped in favour of the wider senatorial theory that each member represents the whole Commons; and occasional endeavours in the fifteenth century to require from candidates residence as a qualification were fortunately never acted on. A greater necessity was to strengthen the independence of the House and make its representative character a reality by excluding lawyers (1372, 1404), maintainers (1350, &c.), and sheriffs (1372 and afterwards); but the "undertakers" of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and the placemen of the eighteenth century, were not satisfactorily excluded till the rule established in 1707 disqualifying pension holders, and even obliging members appointed to office to seek re-election.

But the essential defect in the Commons as a representative House up to 1832 lay elsewhere. The representative system which when first constituted in the thirteenth century was an honest reflex of the social state, failed to expand to meet the expansion of society; the villeins who were unfit for representation in 1295 had acquired practical independence before 1381; the boroughs which were worthy of representation at 1295 fell into decay as the centre of gravity of the population shifted from the south of England to the north. Thus the Commons of the sixteenth century had ceased to be a just representation of contemporary wealth and intelligence; yet reform was delayed till it was almost enforced by revolution, a pregnant lesson which statesmanship will do well to learn of history. [Parliament.]

Hatsell, *Precedents*; Hallam, *Middle Ages* and *Constitutional History*; Gneist, *Verwaltungsrecht* and *Das Self-government*; May, *Constitutional History*; Cobbett, *Parliamentary History*, and *Journals of House of Commons*; and especially Stubbs, *Constitutional History*; and May, *Treatise on Procedure and Practice of Parliament*.

[A. L. S.]

Commonwealth, The, a term formerly employed to signify the general weal, and the nation with its inhabitants, was specially adopted to designate the government which intervened between the death of Charles I. in Jan., 1649, and the establishment of Cromwell's Protectorate in Dec., 1653. After the forcible ejection of certain of its members by Colonel Pride, Dec. 6, 1648, the House of Commons consisted of eighty members. On Feb. 6, 1649, seven days after the execution of Charles, this mutilated House resolved that the House of Peers ought to be abolished, and on the next day adopted a similar resolution with regard to the office of a king. These resolutions were afterwards enlodged in Acts of Parliament, and a further Act passed enacting that the people of England and of all the dominions thereto belonging should be governed as a Commonwealth and free State (May 19, 1649); the executive was vested in a Council of State of forty-one members, re-elected by the Parliament yearly. With the exception of three or four members, this Council always consisted of members of Parliament. The average attendance of the House was about fifty, and as the most active members of the Council were also the most active members of Parliament, it was the Council which was mainly responsible for the policy of the government. There was no individual responsibility; all work being done by committees formed of members of the Council, and of the Parliament, and of both bodies united.

The Republic rested entirely for its maintenance on the army. Yet amongst the mass of officers and soldiers no desire was felt for the continued existence of the present Parliament. Before the execution of Charles a project drawn up by Ireton had been presented to Parliament, demanding its speedy dissolution, and proposing the election of triennial Parliaments, a reform of the electoral system, and a redistribution of seats. The Parliament was, however, unwilling to decree its own dissolution, and the dangers with which the new government was surrounded justified its refusal to take the question into consideration. It had to face the hostility of the Presbyterian section of the Puritan party, as well as of old Royalists and Irish Catholics. Both in Ireland and Scotland the Prince of Wales was proclaimed king of the three countries. Prince Rupert ruled the Channel at the head of some revolted ships. Foreign princes refused to recognise the Republic. Dangerous mutinies broke out amongst the Fifth-Monarchists and Levellers in the army. These, however, were quickly suppressed, by the energy and decision of Cromwell and Fairfax in dealing with the mutineers. An Act was passed to restrain the press (Sept. 20, 1649). An engagement to be true and faithful to the Commonwealth, as established without king or House of Lords, was required as a necessary preliminary to holding any office in Church or State (Oct. 12), and by a subsequent Act was rendered universal (Jan. 2, 1650). In Ireland Cromwell in nine months brought the greater part of the country again into subjection to England. The following year his great victories gained over the Scots at Dunbar (Sept. 3, 1650) and Worcester (Sept. 3, 1651) destroyed for the time all hope of a Presbyterian or Royalist reaction, and reduced Scotland to the condition of a subject province. A bill was introduced into Parliament for the union of the two countries. An Act was passed for the settlement of Ireland, which excepted from pardon all persons who had taken part in the massacre of 1643, and confiscated a large amount of land belonging to Irish Catholics (Aug. 12, 1652). A further bill was brought in for the planting of Protestant families on the land thus confiscated.

In March, 1649, the Council of State appointed Milton its secretary for foreign tongues. After the victory of Worcester, foreign princes, who before refused to recognise the Republic, sought its friendship. During the two years in which Cromwell was reducing Ireland and Scotland, the Republicans in London had raised a formidable navy—Prince Rupert, driven by Admiral Blake from the mouth of the Tagus when he sought refuge, saw his fleet dispersed and destroyed on the Mediterranean (1649). Commercial jealousy led to the passing of the Navigation Act (Oct. 9, 1651), intended to transfer the carrying trade of the Dutch to Englishmen, and in the ensuing summer to the opening of hostilities with the United Provinces. In an engagement off Dover the English under Blake were worsted by the Dutch under Van Tromp. In Feb., 1653, the hostile fleets again engaged off Portland Isle, when the Dutch were defeated and driven for refuge into the Texel.

After the restoration of internal peace the question of the dissolution of the Parliament again rose into prominence. Various Acts had been passed by which the House sought to express its regard for religion and morality, but the chief reform demanded remained unexecuted, nor did it seem probable that the government, as at present constituted, would ever have the energy requisite for the attainment of practical results in the directions required. The reform of the law, a definite settlement with regard to the Church and the appointment of ministers, the termination of the system of sequestering the estates of former delinquents, and of governing by means of committees, appeared no nearer attainment than at the time of the institution of the Republic. The impracticability of compromise between the so-called Republicans, Vane, Ludlow, and others, who sought to maintain the existing form of government, and those who were indifferent to the form the government should assume, so long as the predominance of the Puritan party was assured, led to the sudden and forcible ejection of the members from their seats by Cromwell (April 19, 1653).

From this time, Cromwell was practically at the head of the government, which was for the time carried on by a council of thirteen, including himself and eight other officers. In July, in answer to his summons, there met an assembly of 139 persons, known as the Little Parliament, or as Barebones' Parliament, from the name of one of its members, a leather-seller—Barbon, a London Baptist. It was representative of the reforming party, and was divided nearly equally between a more radical but small majority, and a large, less radical, minority. It passed Acts for the relief of debtors, for the registration of births, marriages, and deaths, and the institution of civil marriages. It also brought in bills affecting the Poor Laws and the administration of justice. It voted the abolition of the Court of Chancery. It further voted that the choice of ministers should be vested in their parishioners, and rejected by a majority of two the report of a committee in favour of the continuance of tithes. These votes on the Church question represented the triumphs of those who desired to effect the severance of Church and State. The minority, opposed to a voluntary system, took opportunity in the name of the Parliament of resigning their authority to Cromwell. The officers of the

army determined to restore the executive into the hands of a single person, and, on Dec. 16, Cromwell was installed head of the government with the title of Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland.

Calendars of State Papers (Domestic Series) during the Commonwealth, edited by Mrs. Green; Scobell, *Collection of Acts and Ordinances* made in Parliament from 1640—1656; Thurloe, *Collection of State Papers*; Whitelocke, *Memorials of English Affairs*; Ludlow, *Memoirs*; *The Memoirs and Life of Colonel Hutchinson*, by his Wife: Brodie, *Constitutional History from the Accession of Charles I. to the Restoration*; Godwin, *History of the Commonwealth of England*; Guizot, *Oliver Cromwell and the English Commonwealth*; S. R. Gardiner, *The Commonwealth and Protectorate*. For Scotland, see especially *Letters and Journals of Robert Baillie*, which extend from 1637 to 1662; and Burton, *History of Scotland*; for Ireland, Carte, *Collection of Original Letters and Papers*, and *A History of the Life of James, Duke of Ormond*, by the same author. [B. M. G.]

Compounders, The, were a section of the Jacobite party who wished for a restoration of the Stuarts, "but for a restoration accompanied by a general amnesty, and by guarantees for the security of the civil and ecclesiastical constitution of the realm." They obtained their name about 1692. The Compounders formed the main strength of the Jacobite party in England; but the more violent party or Non-Compounders were all-powerful at St. Germains. Their leader at St. Germains was the Earl of Middleton, who resigned in 1693. They were much offended by James's Declaration in 1692, and shortly afterwards recommended that James should resign in favour of his son, on his refusal to accept these conditions, part of which was the observance of the Test Oath. The remainder of their history is merged in that of the party. [Jacobites.]

Comprehension Bill, The (1689), was a scheme for the relief of Protestant Dissenters proposed by the Earl of Nottingham. A measure of similar tendency had been advocated on the occasion of the enactment of the Test Act, but had been allowed to drop. Another proposal of similar tendency, a bill to relieve Protestant Dissenters from the penalties of the 35th of Elizabeth, suffered a similar fate in 1680. Nottingham's Bill provided that all ministers of the Established Church, and members of both Universities, should be freed from the necessity of subscribing the Thirty-nine Articles, on signing a declaration that they approved, and would support, "the doctrine, worship, and government of the Church of England;" scrupled ceremonies, such as the wearing of a surplice, the sign of the cross in baptism, the admission of godfathers and godmothers to christening, and the reception of the Eucharist in a kneeling position, were left at discretion; a Presbyterian minister might acquire all the privileges of a clergyman of the Church of England on submitting to the imposition of the hands of a bishop. This bill was mutilated in the Upper House, and a petition substituted that the king would call the houses of Convocation "to be advised with in ecclesiastical matters." The Nonconformist clergy, themselves accustomed to independence, and disliking formal subscriptions of faith and compulsory uniformity, were not anxious for the passing of the measure; and so the scheme of comprehension was allowed to fall absolutely and finally to the ground.

Compton, Henry (*b.* 1632, *d.* 1713), was a younger son of the Earl of Northampton. After studying at Oxford he entered the army, but soon after relinquished the military for the clerical profession. In 1669 he was made a canon of Christ Church; in 1674, Bishop of Oxford; and in 1675 was translated to London. He incurred the displeasure of James II. by disregarding the royal order prohibiting controversial sermons, and was suspended from his episcopal functions. He joined Danby and others in inviting William of Orange to England, and took a leading part in the Revolution. He assisted in the coronation of William and Mary, but, being disappointed in his hopes of obtaining the archbishopric of Canterbury, from that time took little further part in public affairs.

Compurgation was a mode of defence allowed by Anglo-Saxon law. When a man was accused of any crime, he might, if he chose, purge himself by the oaths of twelve men, if he could find that number to swear to his innocence. After the Conquest, compurgation gradually fell into disuse, though it was specially retained as an alternative to ordeal of battle in certain chartered towns. The compurgators were not a jury, but a body of sworn witnesses to character. Compurgation was a custom common to all, or nearly all, the Teutonic tribes, and the number of compurgators required in early times varied according to the heinousness of the offence, the rank of the accused and the accuser, and in some cases reached one hundred; in England it was usually twelve.

Thorpe, *Ancient Laws*, 76; Brunner, *Schwurgericht*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Guizot, *Civilisation in France*.

Comyn, John, Lord of Badenoch, married Marjory, daughter of Alan of Galloway. He was a man of vast wealth and influence, and, on the competition for the Scotch throne in 1291, put in a claim as a descendant of Donald Bane. He had been named a regent of the Maid of Norway, and, in 1289, was one of the Scotch commissioners sent to Salisbury to confer about the marriage of the young queen to Prince Edward of England.

Comyn, John, called "the Red" (*d.* 1306), was the son of John Comyn, of Badenoch, and Marjory, sister of John Baliol. In

1298, after the battle of Falkirk (q.v.), he was chosen one of the three guardians of Scotland, and in 1302 defeated the English troops at Roslin, while in the following year he made an unsuccessful attempt to relieve Stirling. In Feb., 1304, he laid down his arms and submitted to Edward I., whom he is said to have counselled to put Bruce to death. Bruce met Comyn in the convent of the Minorites, at Dumfries, charged him with his treachery, and stabbed him, Feb. 10, 1306. Bruce and Comyn were at this time the two rival claimants for Scotland—Comyn as the grandson of Devorguilla, having the same claim which John Baliol had successfully established in 1292.

Conadh Cerr (*d.* 629) was the son of Eocha, who resigned the kingdom of Dalriada in his favour, 627. In this year Conadh fought at the battle of Ardcorran in Ireland on the side of the Irish Dalriads; and two years later was defeated at another battle in Ireland, fighting against the Cruithough and his own father, who was now apparently king of the Galloway Picts.

Confirmatio Cartarum (1297) was the name given to an important document in which Edward I., under pressure from the barons and clergy, confirmed and extended the constitutional rights established in the two preceding reigns. It was obvious that the Great Charter, in the mutilated condition in which it had been left in 1225, was not sufficient guarantee against arbitrary taxation on the part of the king. The barons accordingly drew up a series of new articles to be added to the Great Charter, and these the king was obliged to concede. The articles were seven in number:—(1) The Charters are confirmed, and are to be kept in every point without breach. (2) Any judgment given henceforth contrary to the points of the Charters aforesaid by the justices, or by any other royal ministers, to be undone, and holden for nought. (3) Copies of the Charters are to be sent to the cathedral churches of the realm, and read twice a year to the people. (4) The bishops are to excommunicate all who break the Charters. (5) The exactions by which the people have in former times been aggrieved not to be a precedent for the future. (6) For no business henceforth will the crown take such manner of aids, tasks, or prizes but by the common assent of the realm, and for the common profit thereof, saving the ancient aids and prizes due and accustomed. (7) Forasmuch as the commonalty of the realm have been sore grieved with the maltote of wools, we, at their requests, have clearly released it, and have granted for us and our heirs that we will not take such thing nor any other without their common assent and good-will, saving to us and to our heirs the custom of wools, skins, and leather granted before by the commonalty aforesaid.—The confirmation of the Charters may be held to complete the work begun at Runnymede. "It established," says Bishop Stubbs, "the principle that for all taxation, direct and indirect, the consent of the nation must be asked, and made it clear that all transgressions of that principle, whether within the letter of the law or beyond it, were evasions of the spirit of the constitution."

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; *Select Charters*, 487, *seq.*

Congé d'Elire—"leave to elect"—is a Norman-French phrase, signifying the sovereign's permission for the dean and chapter of a vacant see to proceed to the election of a bishop. In pre-Norman times, the bishops were, as a rule, appointed by the king in the witenagemot, though there occasionally occur instances of an election more or less free—as in the case of Helmstan, Bishop of Winchester (839). After the Norman Conquest, the election became by degrees canonical, though even then the election was held in the king's chapel, and so much under his influence as to be little more than nominally free; and the dispute about investiture between Henry I. and Anselm ended in a compromise, by which the sovereign was to confer the temporal power, and the election was to be made by the chapters. In 1164 a clause in the Constitutions of Clarendon mentions the custom that elections to bishoprics should be "by the chief clergy of the Church, assembled in the king's chapel, *with the assent of the king*;" whilst, in 1214, John, by a special charter, made a grant to the chapters of free canonical election, reserving, however, to the king the right of licence and approval. This charter was confirmed by Magna Charta, and again in 1351 by Edward III.; and in spite of various attempts at interference on the part of the Pope, the crown as a rule managed to secure the appointment of its nominees. In 1534, an Act of Henry VIII. provided that with the *congé d'élire* the king was also to send the name of the person he wished to be elected; and that if the election is delayed beyond twenty days after the issuing of the royal licence, or if any other than the royal nominee was chosen, the dean and chapter were to incur the penalties of Præmunire (q.v.). It was also provided that after a delay of twelve days on the part of the chapter the king might fill up the vacant see by letters patent. The method of this Act still prevails in England. In Ireland, before the Irish Church Act of 1869, the nominations were made by letters patent. [Bishop.]

Congleton, Henry Brooke Parnell, Lord (*b.* 1776, *d.* 1842), was the second son of the Right Hon. Sir John Parnell, Chancellor of the Exchequer in Ireland. His elder brother being born a cripple without the use of speech, the estates were settled upon Henry by a special Act of Parliament, 1789.

He entered Parliament in 1802 as member for Portarlington. He devoted himself, especially during his Parliamentary career, to the questions of the Corn Law Reform and Catholic Relief, and soon became prominent as a champion in the Opposition. He also published several pamphlets of some weight on these questions. He was chairman of the Finance Committee in the session of 1828. His motion, in 1830, with regard to the Civil List, on which the ministry was outvoted, produced the downfall of the Wellington administration. He afterwards sat for Queen's County for twenty-seven years, and subsequently represented Dundee, being created a peer August 11, 1841. He died by his own hand, May, 1842.

Coningsby, Thomas, Earl (*d.* 1729), was member for Leominster during the reign of William III. He was "a busy and unscrupulous Whig." He accompanied the king to Ireland in the capacity of Paymaster-General. On the departure of William to England he was created one of the Lords Justices. Together with his colleagues, he was guilty of hanging a man named Gafney, who turned informer in a murder case. He superintended and signed the Treaty of Limerick. During the next six months, by his unprincipled rapacity, and by the favour he showed to Roman Catholics, he succeeded in alienating all classes, and was recalled. In 1701 we find him voting for the Resumption Bill, although he had received considerable grants of Irish land. "He was," says Macaulay, "an unprincipled man: he was insatiable of riches; and he was in a position in which riches were easily to be obtained by an unprincipled man." After the death of Queen Anne, Coningsby was created a peer of Great Britain.

Connaught. The ancient kingdom of Connaught, originally called Olnegmacht, comprised, roughly speaking, the present counties of Galway, Mayo, Sligo, Roscommon, Leitrim, and Cavan, afterwards added to Ulster. According to tradition, when the Scoti established themselves in Ireland, their great chief, Tuathal (*d. circa* 160 A.D.), reigned over Munster, Leinster, and Olnegmacht, and in the great division of the country between his grandson Con, or Cond, "of the hundred battles," and the rival king, Mug of Munster (whence came the terms Leith-Cuinon, "Con's half," for north Ireland, and Leith-Mogha, "Mug's half," for south Ireland), the district now known as County Clare, which had originally belonged to Olnegmacht, was transferred to Munster. About this time the name of the kingdom was changed from Olnegmacht to Connaught. In the reign of King Laeghairé, Connaught was converted to Christianity by St. Patrick (about 433). In the time of the so-called Irish Pentarchy, Connaught was a fairly compact kingdom, owing allegiance to the Ard-Riagh, or chief monarch of Ireland, usually chosen from the kings of Meath. Its power was at its height in 561, when Fergus defeated the Ard-Riagh Diarmid at the battle of Sligo; but soon afterwards the kingdom split up into principalities, and continued through the Danish invasion, in which the nobles unpatriotically sided with the invader, though they afterwards changed sides and aided Brian Boru in winning the great battle of Clontarf (1014). Soon after this, the great sept of the O'Connors of Roscommon became prominent in Connaught, and began to wage civil war with the O'Neils of Ulster and the O'Briens of Munster. Turlogh O'Brien drove the reigning O'Connor from his kingdom in 1079, but Turlogh O'Connor overran the whole of Munster in 1118, and followed this up by taking Dublin. His son, Roderic O'Connor, claimed the title of Ard-Riagh of Ireland, and was crowned with great pomp in Dublin in 1166. Soon afterwards he drove Dermot Macmurrough, King of Leinster, from his kingdom, whereupon the latter sought help from Henry II. of England, and the English invasion followed. Roderic, a man of indolent disposition, made little attempt at resistance, but did homage to Henry in 1175, when the sovereignty of Ireland was reserved to him with the exception of Dublin, Meath, Leinster, Waterford, and Dungarvan. His son, Cathal, pursued the same policy on John's visit to Ireland in 1210. Henry III., however, by a great breach of good faith, granted the country, in 1225, to Richard de Burgh, and after a terrible struggle he succeeded in holding his own against the O'Connors, who were, as usual, split up into several factions; and the sept was almost annihilated in the reign of Edward II., when Felim O'Connor joined Edward Bruce, and was defeated by his kinsman Rory, supported by the Burghs and Berminghams at Athenry (1316). About the middle of the century the Burghs of Connaught, the younger branch, threw off their allegiance to the English crown, and Connaught was divided between their leaders, while they changed their name at the same time to that of Burke. The race rapidly degenerated; they adopted Irish manners and intermarried freely with the O'Connors, in spite of the Statute of Kilkenny (1367). The power of the latter revived, so that by the commencement of the reign of Henry VIII. they still claimed to be kings, and had extended their dominions to within twenty miles of Dublin. Their strength was, however, checked in the reign of Edward VI. by Sir Edward Bellingham, who built a castle at Athlone to curb Connaught. In the reign of Elizabeth the Burkes suffered a sterner punishment; they had remained quiet during the Ulster and Munster insurrections, but at last, in 1576, when the hated Sir Nicholas Malby was appointed

President of Connaught, they arose in rebellion. The whole of the country was in return laid waste by fire and sword, and the unfortunate race nearly exterminated in that and the following years. In 1560 Connaught ceased to be a kingdom, and was divided into counties by Act of Parliament. Clare, or Thomond, originally part of Connaught, was soon afterwards added to it again, but after a little while again became part of Munster. [Burke; O'Connor.] In the reign of Charles I. an *Inquiry into Titles in Connaught* was made at the instance of Wentworth, afterwards Lord Strafford, when Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland. The idea was first mooted in 1634, but was laid aside in order to conciliate the Irish Parliament. As soon, however, as they had voted the necessary supplies, Charles broke his promise of making sixty years' possession a bar to the claims of the crown, and, in 1635, issued a commission to inquire into defective titles in Connaught, wishing to dispossess the landlords and colonise the country on the plan which James I. had pursued in Ulster. After the juries had been warned what the consequences of contumacy would be, the commission went to work, and soon declared that the lands of the Burkes about Athlone—in fact, nearly three-fourths of the province—belonged to the crown. For this the foreman of the jury, Sir Lucas Dillon, was permitted to retain some of his own lands. In most cases the landlords had no title-deeds to show, and those who had were forced to pay large fines for their confirmation. In Galway alone the jury refused to find for the king; they were fined £4,000 each and imprisoned, when the sheriff, on whom a penalty of £1,000 was imposed, died. *The Transplantation to Connaught* was effected during the Protectorate. Cromwell determined, in 1653, to confine the Irish nation to the desolated province of Connaught, and declared that they must transplant themselves thither within seven months on the penalty of death. There they were to be enclosed by a cordon of soldiers, to whom a strip of land, a mile wide, running round the coast and the Shannon, was assigned. The population was now reduced by war and banishment to about 850,000, and for them 800,000 acres was set apart. By a summary process the estates of the Catholic gentry were confiscated, according to their degree of complicity in the Irish rebellion and their resistance to the Protectorate, in various proportions, from one to two-thirds, which were handed over to adventurers and Parliamentary soldiers, while they were forced to accept an equivalent across the Shannon. After the appointed time had passed, an Irish gentleman was hanged for refusing to transplant, and many hundreds, with their families, were sent as slaves to Barbadoes. Many others were removed bodily, with what they could save of their possessions, to Connaught. The utmost severity was used in the process, noble ladies, for instance, being compelled to go on foot, and all being reduced to the greatest misery. Some of the sons of the banished owners wandered about their old estates, living by outlawry and the hospitality of their fathers' tenants. A sum of £20 was laid on the heads of these "Tories," in 1657, and their extermination decreed, together with that of two other "beasts," the wolf and the priest. After the Restoration an attempt was made (1661) to soften these conditions, the result of which was that it was declared that all Catholics who were innocent of rebellion should be restored to their estates. Those, however, who had accepted lands in Connaught were forced to abide by their bargains, and of those who returned from exile but few obtained any redress.

O'Curry, *Manuscript Materials of Ancient Irish History*; Froude, *English in Ireland*, vol. i.; Cusack, *Hist. of the Irish Nation*; McGee, *Hist. of Ireland*; Haverty, *Hist. of Ireland*.

[L. C. S.]

Connecticut. [Colonies, American.]

Conservative. [Tory.]

Conservators of the Peace. These predecessors of our modern justices of the peace were persons entrusted with the duty of maintaining order and police in their counties. Dr. Stubbs traces their origin to an edict of Hubert Walter in 1195. According to this proclamation an oath against harbouring or aiding thieves and robbers was to be taken by every one above fifteen years of age. This usage dates from Anglo-Saxon times; but its execution was now assigned to special knights appointed for the purpose. In 1230 and 1252 two or three knights are appointed in each shire for the conservation of the peace, and in 1253 we find the sheriffs summoning four men, and the reeve from each township, and twelve burghers from each borough, to execute the same functions; and in the fifth year of Edward I. an officer bearing the title of "Custos Pacis," or guardian of the peace, is elected in the county courts. Conservators of the same kind were appointed to carry out the provisions of the Statute of Winchester, which deals so largely with questions of local police. Dr. Stubbs considers that these offices were originally filled by the crown, but when vacant, by election of the shire-moot. In the first year of Edward III. "good men" were appointed to guard the peace in each county, but apparently were not elected like Edward I.'s "Custodes Pacis." In the eighteenth year of Edward III. these Conservators of the Peace were commissioned to hear and determine felonies, and sixteen years later received authority to do so regularly, and they became regular officials of the crown, from whom they henceforth derive all their authority.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*

Consilt, The Pass of, near Flint, is memorable for a narrow escape of Henry II., who was surprised here in 1157 by the Welsh under Owen Gwynnedd.

Consistory Courts. [Ecclesiastical Jurisdiction.]

Consols is the usual abbreviation for the government stock, properly entitled Consolidated Bank Annuities. It originated in the year 1751, when an Act was passed consolidating several separate stocks bearing interest at 3 per cent. By the National Debt (Conversion) Act, 1888, the interest was reduced to 2¾ per cent., and provision was made for a further reduction to 2½ per cent., which took place in 1905. [National Debt.]

Constable (derived from the Latin *comes stabuli*, count of the stable) was originally an office in the Byzantine court, the name appearing in the West about 580 A.D. In England it is used in several different senses. (1) It appears to have been first attached after the Conquest to the keepers of the royal castles, *e.g.*, the Constable of the Tower, of Baynard's Castle, of Chester Castle, &c., who rapidly acquired hereditary privileges, and exercised under weak kings usurped jurisdictions in common pleas, together with oppressive powers of imprisonment, which were not finally abolished until 1403.

(2) The *Lord High Constable* appears about the time of Stephen as one of the domestic dignitaries of the court. The office existed indeed under the Norman kings, but was comparatively unimportant, and the first High Constable who is at all prominent in history is Miles of Hereford, one of the chief supporters of the Empress Matilda. The High Constable may be considered to have succeeded to the duties of the officer who, before the Conquest, was known as the Staller; he was quartermaster-general of the court and army. From the *Dialogus de Scaccario* we learn that he was also, in the time of Henry II., one of the officers of the Exchequer, where he helped the Treasurer to check the accounts of the king's household servants. As was the case with the other great offices of the royal household, the Lord High Constable had, before the end of the reign of Henry II., become an hereditary dignity, and went, together with the tenure of certain manors in Gloucestershire, and the castle of Caldecot in Monmouthshire, into the family of Bohun, through Humphrey de Bohun, who married the daughter and heiress of Miles of Hereford, and on the extinction of that line in 1372 it was held by Thomas of Woodstock (*d.* 1397), who married the heiress of the seventh Earl of Hereford. With the accession of the house of Lancaster (1399), the office ceased to be hereditary. The Earl of Northumberland was made Constable by Henry IV. in 1399, but the office was taken from him in 1403 and given to the Duke of Bedford. Subsequently the Duke of Somerset was made Constable in 1450, but there seem to have been considerable gaps between many of the appointments. The Lord High Constable, together with the Marshal, had by the time of Edward I. acquired great powers in the management of the army; he superintended the mustering, billeting, and formation of troops, took care that those who owed service by their tenure sent the proper amount of men, and during the campaign held court for the trial of military offences. In 1296, Humphrey de Bohun, Earl of Hereford, together with Bigod the Marshal, refused to take charge of an army destined for Guienne, availing themselves of the legal quibble that they were only bound to serve the king in person, and they gained their point. From this date also the judicial functions of the Lord High Constable became important; besides administering martial law, he was, with the Marshal, whose functions are by no means distinct, the presiding officer of the Court of Chivalry (q.v.), and, as such, decided questions of honour and heraldry. These powers became considerably enlarged, and tended to encroach on the jurisdiction of the courts of common law, and were strictly limited in 1389. Edward IV., however, revised and increased the illegal powers for the purpose of punishing the Lancastrians. The Lord High Constable was empowered to take cognisance of all cases of high treason, "to hear, examine, and conclude them, even summarily and plainly, without noise or show of judgment, on simple inspection of fact." Richard III. bestowed the office on Henry Stafford, Duke of Buckingham, partly, perhaps, with the idea of making it hereditary again, for Buckingham was a descendant of the Bohuns. The honour was conferred on his son Edward by Henry VII. Henry VIII., however, in 1514, finding that the fees of the office were exceedingly burdensome to the crown, discharged Buckingham from his office. Since Buckingham's discharge the Lord High Constable has only been appointed for special occasions, such as the king's coronation, and, in one single instance (in 1631), for trial by combat. The Duke of Wellington officiated as Lord High Constable at the last three coronations.

(3) The *Constables of the Hundred*, or High Constables, were officers who, under the Angevin kings, performed in a subordinate capacity some of the duties which before the Conquest were entrusted to the head man, or reeve of the hundred. In a writ of Henry III. (1252), it is provided that "one or two chief constables should be constituted in every hundred, at whose mandate all those of his hundred sworn to arms should assemble," and by the Statute of Winchester (1285) it was ordered that in every hundred or franchise there should be chosen two

or more constables to make the view of armour. They were elected by the court leet, and sworn in by the lord or his steward. In the reign of Elizabeth we find that they had the power of holding petty sessions for the hiring of servants. In 1844 it was provided that in default of appointments in the court leet, high constables might be chosen by justices at their special sessions. After the establishment and regulation of the county constabulary (between the years 1839 and 1859), high constables having become practically useless, the justices of each county were directed to consider and determine whether it was necessary to continue the office in each hundred. [HUNDRED.]

(4) The *Petty Constable*, or Constable of the Vill, may, on the analogy of the constable of the hundred, be considered as the degenerate descendant of the *tithing man*. He also was elected in the court leet until the reign of Charles II., when, in virtue of a statute passed in 1673, the duty of nominating and swearing-in constables was by degrees transferred to justices of the peace. In the reign of George II. it was provided (in 1751) that no constable could be sued without making the justice who signed the warrant a joint defendant. In 1842 it was declared that, with the exception of certain privileged classes, every able-bodied man between the ages of twenty-five and fifty-five who contributed to the poor rates, or held a tenement of the annual value of £4, was liable to serve as constable. The election of the constabulary of boroughs under the Municipal Corporations Act was placed in the hands of a watch committee in 1832, and the duties of *special constables*, who might be sworn in to keep the peace on emergencies, were regulated by legislation in 1827 and 1832.

(5) *The Lord High Constable of Scotland* can be traced back to the time of David I. In Scotland, the duties of the High Constable consisted in commanding the army while in the field, in the absence of the king, and, in conjunction with the Marshal, judging all transgressions committed within a certain distance of the king's palace, known as the *chalmer of peace*. In 1321, when Sir Gilbert Hay was made Earl of Errol, the office was made hereditary in his family. It was expressly reserved by the treaty of Union, and by Act of Parliament in 1747. It is now, however, purely honorary.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, i., ch. ii. and iii. 18. *Select Charters*; Coke, *Institutes*, iv.; Lambard, *Duties of Constables*; Stephen, *Commentaries*. Statutes 5 and 6 Vict., c. 109; 32 and 33 Vict., c. 47, and 35 and 36 Vict., c. 92.

Constance, fourth daughter of William the Conqueror, married Alan, brother of the Duke of Britanny, to whom her father gave the earldom of Richmond. In 1090 she died, it is said poisoned by some of her husband's vassals, who found her harsh and oppressive.

Constance OF BRITANNY (*d.* 1201) was the daughter and heiress of Conan, Duke of Britanny. She was married to Geoffrey, son of Henry II., by whom she had two children, Arthur and Eleanor. After Geoffrey's death, in 1186, she obtained the guardianship of her son and the government of the duchy, but was soon afterwards compelled to marry Ranulf, Earl of Chester, who made himself so hated in Britanny that on Henry II.'s death, in 1189, he was driven out, and Constance restored to power. In 1196 she was seized by a body of troops under her husband, and imprisoned for eighteen months; her conduct during this period in asserting the rights of the Bretons was most adverse to the interests of her son, in addition to which, she had quarrelled with her powerful mother-in-law, Eleanor, as well as with her husband, from whom she obtained a divorce in 1198. She now married Guy, brother of the Viscount of Thouars, by whom she had three daughters, from the eldest of whom, Alix, sprang the Dukes of Britanny who played such an important part in the French wars of Edward III.'s reign.

Constance OF CASTILE (*d.* 1392) was the eldest daughter of Pedro the Cruel, and became the second wife of John of Gaunt, who inherited, through her, claims to the crown of Castile.

Constantine (*d.* 820), son of Fergus, expelled Conall, King of the Picts, and obtained the Pictish throne (789), having in all probability authority over Dalriada also. In 796 some monks from Lindisfarne visited his court, and for them he founded the church of Dunkeld. He was succeeded by his brother Angus. The reign of Constantine is chiefly memorable as marking the date of the first historical attacks of the Norsemen on the British shores. It was in 793 that they harried the holy island of Lindisfarne, and a few years later seized upon the western islands, and slaughtered the monks of Iona. By these pirates, who henceforward for several centuries continued their ravages, nearly all communications between Ireland and Scotland were in time broken off.

Constantine (*d.* 877), son of Kenneth, succeeded his uncle Donald as King of the Picts, 863. His reign is chiefly remarkable for a series of conflicts with the Northmen, under Olaf the White, the son of Norsten the Red. This chieftain is said to have conquered Caithness and Sunderland. When the Norwegians drove the Danes out of Ireland, the latter invaded Scotland, and defeated the Scotch king at Dollar and Inverdoret, at which last battle Constantine was killed.

Constantine (*d.* 952), son of Aedh, reigned over the kingdom of Alban, 900—943. He was a man of vigour and an experienced warrior. In 904 he cut to pieces in Stratherne an invading body of Danes,

under Ivan. Soon afterwards he united the Pictish and Scottish Churches at an ecclesiastical council held at Scone. In 908 he procured the election of his brother Donald to the throne of Strathclyde, and in 918 joined the Northumbrians against the Norsemen, whose advance was checked by the allied armies at the battle of Corbridge-on-Tyne. Under the year 924 the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* tells us that amongst other nations the Scots chose Edward the Elder for father and lord. But these peaceful relations cannot have lasted very long, for in 934 we find Edward's successor, Athelstan, invading Scotland, and penetrating as far as Dunotter, and ravaging the coasts of Caithness with his fleet. Constantine, in retaliation, joined with the Norsemen and the Britons of Strathclyde in an attempt to wrest Northumbria from the English king, but the united forces were defeated at Brunanburh (q.v.), 937. In 943 Constantine resigned his crown, and became abbot of the monastery of St. Andrews, where he died, 952, having, however, emerged for a short time, in 949, to do battle with King Edred.

Skene, *Celtic Scotland*; *Anglo-Saxon Chron.*; Burton, *Hist. of Scotland.*

Constantius Chlorus, Emperor of Rome (292—306), ruled over the provinces of Spain, Gaul, and Britain, and seems to have spent most of his time in this country. But the story of his having married a British princess named Helena rests on no good authority. He defeated Allectus, and reunited Britain to the Empire. He died at York in the year 306.

Constitutions, Colonial. [Australia; Canada; Colonies.]

Constitution, The Irish, of 1782. In 1779 the Irish Volunteers, whom the carelessness of the government and the undefended state of Ireland had allowed to become formidable, had succeeded in frightening the government into repealing the trade restrictions. The movement was continued, and, under the direction of Grattan, aimed at legislative independence. In 1781 Lord Carlisle, the new viceroy, was instructed to resist all efforts at legislative independence, but nevertheless, notice was given of bills for the repeal of Poynings' Act (q.v.) and of the Mutiny Act. The repeal of the first, placing the Irish Parliament more or less in the position of the English Parliament, could not be resisted, and was carried in Dec., 1781. The repeal of the Mutiny Bill, however, was not carried, though moved by Grattan. When Parliament again met, in Feb., 1782, the Volunteers assumed a very threatening attitude, and the patriot party, backed by the resolutions of Dungannon, and aroused by the mention of Ireland in some unimportant Acts passed in England, proceeded, through Grattan, on Feb. 22, 1782, to move a sort of declaration of independence, but they were beaten by 137 to 68. But, though the resolutions were lost, the principle on which they were based had been admitted by every one. The Parliament was now adjourned, and when it met again, in March, the North ministry was overthrown, and the Whigs were in office. On April 17th Grattan was content to move an amendment in the address demanding complete independence, and the House then adjourned to wait for an answer from England. On May 17th resolutions were passed in the English Parliament conceding the repeal of Poynings' Act, and of the statute 6 George I. and a biennial Mutiny Bill. On May 27th the Irish Parliament received the news, and immediately voted £100,000 and 20,000 men for the war. Flood indeed attempted to declaim against England's concessions as insufficient, but failed, and the House resolved "that the right of legislation of the Irish Parliament in all cases, internal and external, had been already asserted by Ireland, and fully admitted by England." The constitution of 1782 was thus conceded; though hailed with enthusiasm at the time, it made corruption on a large scale necessary, and hastened on the Union as achieved in 1800.

Grattan, *Life of Grattan*; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; Adolphus, *Hist. of George III.*

Consuls are persons empowered to take charge of the trading and commercial interests of British subjects in foreign towns. They were introduced in the sixteenth century, but it was not till the end of the seventeenth that it became customary to appoint them regularly. Their duties are to give advice and assistance to English traders; to settle their disputes where possible; to guard the legal rights of British subjects under foreign jurisdiction; and to report on the trade of the country in which they are resident. By the *Consular Marriage Act* (12 and 13 Vict., c. 68), consuls are empowered to celebrate marriages between British subjects resident in their district. They can take evidence on oath as to crimes committed on British ships, and are empowered to send home the offenders for trial; and they are also to exercise a general superintendence over British shipping, so as to see that the Merchant Shipping and other Acts are not violated. In some cases British consuls are also diplomatic agents or *chargés d'affaires*, empowered to communicate with the Foreign Offices of the states in which they are stationed, and in this case they are called *Consuls-General*. In Turkey and the Levant the consuls-general exercise the powers conceded under the capitulations between England and the Porte, and are supreme judges of the consular courts. British consuls are allowed to trade in some towns, while at other stations this privilege is refused.

Control, Board of. [East India Company.]

Conventicle Act, The (1664), enacted that any one over sixteen years of age present at an unlawful assembly or conventicle was to incur fine or imprisonment. A conventicle was defined as an assembly of more than five persons, besides the members of a family, met together for holding worship not according to the Church of England. In 1670 the Act was amended, and the penalties greatly lessened, but a severe fine was imposed on any one who lent his house for such meetings. The Conventicle Act was repealed by the Toleration Act of 1689.

Convention, The (1688—9), is the name given to the Parliament which met after the abdication of James II. to settle the succession. It met on Jan. 22nd. It first placed the administration and the disposal of the revenue in the hands of William of Orange. The Commons declared the throne vacant, and voted that it was inconsistent with the safety of the kingdom that it should be governed by a Popish king. The Lords, after much discussion, negatived the resolution that the throne was vacant, Danby's party asserting that the crown had devolved on Mary. Disputes thereupon broke out between the two Houses. After a conference, the Lords yielded, and a resolution was passed that the Prince and Princess of Orange should be declared King and Queen of England. Soon afterwards William and Mary arrived in England, and the crown was tendered to them, and accepted (Feb. 13). As soon as the new ministry was established, the question was broached whether the Convention should be turned into a Parliament. A bill declaring the Convention a Parliament passed the Lords, and after a sharp debate was accepted by the Commons. It contained a clause requiring members of both Houses to take the oaths to the new king and queen. "Such," says Hallam, "was the termination of that contest which the house of Stuart had maintained against the liberties, and of late against the religion, of England; or rather, of that far more ancient controversy between the crown and the people which had never been wholly at rest since the reign of John." [Revolution.]

Parliamentary Hist.; Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*; Burnet, *Hist. of His Own Time*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*

Convention Bill, The, passed by the Irish Parliament in 1793, declared the assemblage of persons calling themselves representatives of the nation, under any pretence whatsoever, illegal. Fitzgibbon carried it, in spite of the violent opposition of Grattan and the Duke of Leinster.

Convention of Estates, The (1689), was the name given to the Scottish Parliament which assembled on March 14, 1689, after the Revolution. On the 4th of April the Estates passed a resolution declaring that King James VII., "being a professed Papist, did assume the regal power and acted as king without taking the oath required by law, and hath by the advice of evil and wicked councillors invaded the fundamental constitution of this kingdom, and altered it from a legal limited monarchy to an arbitrary despotic power, and hath exercised the same to the subversion of the Protestant religion, and the violation of the laws and liberties of the nation, inverting all the ends of government, whereby he hath forfaulted all right to the crown, and the throne is become vacant." On the 11th of April the Estates adopted the *Claim of Right*, which declared the fundamental liberties of the kingdom of Scotland, and stated that no Papist could be King of Scotland, and that the Scottish Church was Presbyterian, and finally declaring that William and Mary were King and Queen of Scotland. Two days later (April 13) a number of resolutions, called the *Articles of Grievances*, were voted. These set forth a number of acts done under the authority of bad laws which the Estates desired to have repealed. The Convention exercised the executive authority in Scotland till the crown had been duly offered to and accepted by William III., when it became a Parliament.

Acts of Parliament of Scotland, ix.; Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*, vii. 285.

Convention Parliament, The (1660), is the name given to the assembly which established the Restoration of Charles II. It assembled April 26, 1660, on the dissolution of the "Rump." It immediately accepted the Declaration of Breda (q.v.), and issued an address inviting Charles to accept the crown. On the return of Charles, the discussions of the Convention turned chiefly upon the questions of the amnesty, the settlement of the claims of property which had changed hands, the settlement of the Church, and the royal revenue. In regard to the first, the amnesty was voted for all but the judges of Charles I. In regard to the second, an *Act of Indemnity and Oblivion* was brought in to prevent holders of land sequestrated during the interregnum regaining possession of their property. The old feudal claims of the crown for fines upon alienation, reliefs, wardships, &c., were abolished, and the crown revenue was fixed at £1,200,000 a year, raised partly from the excise, and partly from tunnage and poundage now granted to the king for life. After much discussion, the settlement of the Church was left open when the Parliament was dissolved on December 29th, 1660.

Convocation is the name given to the general assembly of the clergy of the kingdom. The organisation of the Church gave its councils great importance in early times, and under the Norman kings this conciliar activity was still further developed. The Church had its synods of the nation, the province, and the diocese; they

were attended by prelates, chapters, archdeacons, and the parochial clergy. In general history, these synods became important as clerical taxation was introduced. As this became customary, diocesan representatives were sent to the provincial Convocations for the purpose of giving their assent to taxation. The first definite instance of representation in Convocation is found under Archbishop Stephen Langton, in 1225. In 1283 a rule was laid down that each bishop should summon to Convocation two proctors of the clergy of his diocese and one proctor from each cathedral or collegiate church, who were to have full power of consenting to such measures as the community of the clergy think fit. This was the constitution of the Convocation of the province of Canterbury. That of the province of York, dating from 1279, contained two proctors from each archdeaconry. Besides these elected members were bishops, abbots, priors, deans, and archdeacons, as *ex-officio* members.

The jealousy between the two archbishops, and the difficulty in reconciling their claims, led, in the twelfth century, to quarrels. National Church councils became almost impossible, and ecclesiastical questions were discussed separately by the two Convocations. Such matters as concerned ordinary discipline were decided for themselves. On other matters they presented petitions to the king, which were called *gravamina*.

When Edward I., in 1295, organised more completely the parliamentary representation of the several estates, he wished also to incorporate the clergy with the parliamentary system. For this purpose he summoned to Parliament, by separate writs addressed to each bishop, the proctors of the chapters and the parochial clergy, together with bishops, deans, and archdeacons personally. Thus the Convocations were summoned as spiritual councils of the archbishops, and the proctors were further summoned to Parliament by the clause of the king's writ to the bishops, known, from its first word, as the "præmunientes" clause. In this way the two Convocations were to be worked into the parliamentary system, while retaining their position as spiritual councils besides.

The clergy, however, showed great reluctance to enter into this arrangement. Probably they thought that they were sufficiently represented by the lords spiritual, and did not wish to be drawn into parliamentary disputes, in which their own privileges might suffer. The crown in vain addressed letters to the archbishops, urging them to compel the attendance of the clerical estate. After 1340 the crown acquiesced in the rule that clerical taxes should be granted in Convocation, and in the fifteenth century the attendance in Parliament of clerical proctors died away. The duty of voting taxes led to the summons of Convocation at the same time as Parliament, but this was from motives of convenience, and did not affect the independence of Convocation.

In the weakness of the clergy before the royal power, Convocation was used by Henry VIII. to bring about the separation of the English Church from the Church of Rome. The clergy were informed that they had incurred the penalties of the Act of Præmunire by recognising Wolsey's legatine authority, which had been recognised by the king himself. Iniquitous as was this penalty, the clergy were helpless against the king, and Convocation, in 1530, assented to a large subsidy to appease the royal wrath. In the bill which granted it, the royal supremacy was admitted, with the proviso "as far as Christ's law allows." The Act of Submission, 1533, practically abolished the legislative powers of Convocation. It established that Convocation "is, always has been, and ought to be, summoned by royal writ;" there was to be thenceforth no legislation without the king's licence, and a revision of the existing canon law was committed to a mixed commission of clergy and laity.

Henceforth, during the sixteenth century, the Convocation of the province of Canterbury was recognised as expressing the opinions of the clergy, and worked with Parliament in framing the formularies and laws of the Church. The Prayer-book and the Articles received the sanction of Convocation before being submitted to Parliament. In 1604 Convocation drew up a new body of Canons, which were sanctioned by the king, but were not ratified by Parliament. These Canons remain as the basis of ecclesiastical law for the clergy, but are not legally binding on clergy or laymen except where they incorporate previous laws.

After the Restoration Convocation was summoned, in 1661, to revise the Prayer-book and re-model the Canons. In this matter it did little; but this assembly is remarkable as being the last Convocation which granted a clerical subsidy. During the Commonwealth the clergy had been taxed with the laity, and there seems to have been a general agreement that this method was more convenient. Accordingly, this clerical privilege was abolished by a private compact between Lord Chancellor Clarendon and Archbishop Sheldon. The important constitutional change was made without any parliamentary authority (1662). Convocation thenceforth ceased to grant taxes and to have any political importance. The clergy, being merged in the estate of the Commons, became electors for members of the Lower House.

In 1689 William III. was desirous of extending the limits of the Church, and of introducing alterations which would allay the scruples of Dissenters. A commission was appointed to draw up a scheme which was to be submitted to Convocation. Convocation

sat in two Houses: the bishops in the Upper House, the other officials and proctors in the Lower. The struggle of parties took place over the election of a prolocutor, or president, of the Lower House, and those opposed to any change were in a considerable majority. After this the Lower House showed such decided difference of opinion from the Upper that nothing could be done, and Convocation was soon prorogued. It was not summoned again for ten years (1700), when the differences between the Upper and Lower House were still more openly shown. Finally, the Lower House refused to submit to the archbishop's prorogation, and adjourned by its own authority. The next Convocation, in 1702, resumed the question of the archbishop's right of prorogation, and the conflict between the two Houses continued. At length, in 1717, the writings of Hoadley, Bishop of Bangor, excited great wrath amongst the clergy, and gave rise to what is known as the "Bangorian controversy." As it was clear that the Lower House of Convocation would censure Hoadley, who was a favourite with the government, Convocation was prorogued by royal writ, and was not again summoned for business till 1852. It is true that it met formally till 1741, when the Lower House agreed to admit the president's right of prorogation, but it refused to receive a communication from the Upper House. Being judged incorrigible, it was not again called together till its revival in 1852, a revival due to the increased interest in ecclesiastical affairs.

The Convocations of the two provinces now meet with the sessions of Parliament. They are summoned by a writ from the crown to the archbishops. In the Upper House of each Convocation sit the archbishop and bishops; in the Lower House, the deans, archdeacons, with proctors elected to represent the cathedral chapters and the beneficed clergy.*

Bp. Gibson, *Synodus Anglicani;* Wilkins, *Concilia;* Cardwell, *Synodalia;* Hody, *Hist. of Councils and Convocation;* Lathbury, *Hist. of Convocation.* [M. C.]

Conway, Henry Seymour, Marshal (*b.* 1720, *d.* 1795), was the second son of the first Lord Conway. After serving in the army, in 1741 he was returned to Parliament for Higham Ferrers. In 1757 he was appointed second in command of the Rochefort expedition, under Sir John Mordaunt. In 1761 he commanded the British troops in Germany, in the absence of the Marquis of Granby. At the end of George II.'s reign, Conway had been appointed Groom of the Bedchamber, and he was continued in that office by the new king, until his independent conduct and his opposition to the ministry on the question of general warrants, cost him alike this post and all his military commands. On Rockingham's accession to power, Conway was appointed joint Secretary of State with the Duke of Grafton, and leader in the House of Commons; and, unfortunately for himself, was persuaded by "his evil genius," Horace Walpole, to hold his ground, until he could no longer retreat with credit in 1768. During the later years of that period, the policy of the cabinet towards the American colonies had been directly opposed to Conway's views. On the king's demand for Wilkes's exclusion from Parliament, he "confessed that he had not the courage to face the consequences of a step which would make every second Englishman a rebel at heart, and convert London into a hostile capital." He accordingly resigned the seals, but acted as an unpaid member of the cabinet until the return of Lord Chatham and the resignation of Lord Camden, when he refused any longer "to provide respectability for the whole administration." When the Marquis of Granby was dismissed from the command of the army, his place was offered to Conway, and declined. In 1772 he was appointed Governor of Jersey. Ten years later he became Commander-in-chief of all the Forces. In the same year he brought forward a motion, praying that his Majesty would terminate the war with the Colonists. This was lost by only one vote; and when he brought forward the same motion a few months later, he carried it against Lord North by a majority of nineteen. In the following year he retired into private life. Conway was a brave soldier, and a man of unsullied integrity. Of his character as a statesman Lord Stanhope says:—"Brave though he was in the field, spirited and ready though he was in debate, he ever seemed in counsel irresolute and wavering; so eager to please all parties that he could satisfy none, and quickly swayed to and fro by any whisperer or go-between who called himself his friend."

Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.;* Trevelyan, *Early Years of C. J. Fox;* Walpole, *Mem. of George III.;* *Chatham Correspondence.*

Conyers, Sir John. [Robin of Redesdale.]

Cook, Captain James (*b.* 1728, *d.* 1779), the famous navigator, first gained notoriety in Canada, where he did good service at the siege of Quebec, 1759, and subsequently surveyed the coast of Newfoundland. In 1768, being sent to the Pacific for the purpose of observing the transit of Venus, he discovered New Zealand and New South Wales (April, 1770); and four years later made a second voyage of discovery, in which he again visited New Zealand. His conduct to the natives at first was such as to excite their hatred, but in his subsequent voyages he invariably followed a conciliatory policy. On Cook's third voyage, undertaken with the view of discovering a north-west passage to India, he visited the Sandwich Islands, and

* Associated with each Convocation since 1886 there has been a House of Laymen. These are purely consultative bodies.

pushed his explorations to the western coast of America. He was murdered as he was returning from this voyage by the natives of Owhyhee, in the Sandwich Islands. Captain Cook's ability as a surveyor and explorer is the more noteworthy from the fact that he began life as a common sailor, and was entirely without education.

Cooke, Sir Anthony (*b.* 1504, *d.* 1576), a man of great learning, was selected as preceptor to Edward VI. when Prince of Wales. In 1553 he was committed on suspicion of being concerned in the plot to put Lady Jane Grey on the throne.

Coomassie, the capital of King Coffee Calcalli, King of Ashantee, was entered by the British troops, under Sir Garnet Wolseley, Feb. 5, 1874; and again by Sir F. Scott's force, Jan. 18, 1896. [Ashantee.]

Co-operation. The aim of co-operation may be said to be to enable workers to work "not in the interest of, nor in order to enrich, one individual, or a few, but in the interest of the general body of those who are concerned, both as workers and as consumers of the ordinary necessaries of life" (Acland and Jones). The societies that have as yet been formed with this view are of three kinds. (1) *The Distributive Societies, or Retail Stores.* Of these there were, in 1908, upwards of 1,400 in Great Britain, with 2,404,593 members, and £30,037,352 share capital. They sell goods for ready money only. The profits at the end of every quarter are divided amongst the members according to the amount of their *purchases.* (2) *The Wholesale Societies*—one in England (founded in 1864), and one in Scotland (founded in 1868). They supply the retail stores with goods; in 1908 their combined receipts amounted to over thirty-two millions. Their managing committees are elected by the stores. (3) *Manufacturing or Productive Societies* and *Federal Corn Mills.* The returns as to co-operative agriculture in 1908 were not very satisfactory. Co-operation does not make great headway in farming. These societies, with some exceptions, are combined in a Co-operative Union, founded in 1869. It is the object of this Union to abolish false dealing in any shape or form, and "to conciliate the conflicting interests of the capitalist, the worker, and the purchaser." The Union holds an Annual National Congress, at which matters that concern co-operation are discussed—such as the best method of voting in societies, the check system, education, store management, surplus capital, co-operative journalism, &c.

"Co-operation," it has been said, "considers profit to belong to the public, and not to any one section of it, whether they are employed in selling goods over the counter, keeping the accounts, buying the goods, or making them." The co-operative movement is thus an *effort* on the part of labour to emancipate itself from the bondage of capital. This effort is seen assuming organic shape in the early part of the 19th century, when several co-operative stores were started in England and Scotland. These, however, on a close inspection, can in no way be distinguished from Joint Stock Companies, for the profits were divided according to the capital invested. Of such societies there were by 1830 upwards of 200 in existence, besides co-operative mills. In 1844 the Rochdale Pioneers introduced its distinctive feature into the co-operative movement, and divided profits on the amount of *purchases.* The example set by this society, together with the beneficial legislation—such as the Repeal of the Corn Laws, the Public Libraries Act, and the abolition of the Newspaper Duty—of the next dozen years, gave a new impetus to co-operation, and by 1862 we find 450 societies in existence, with a membership of 90,000, a capital of £450,000, annual sales, £2,350,000, and profits £166,000. Two years afterwards (1864), the Co-operative Wholesale Society had sprung into existence, and became the mainstay of the whole system. In 1869 the National Co-operative Congresses began. It was at the first of these congresses that the Co-operative Union was formed, and its aim of reconciling the interests of the capitalist, the workers, and the purchaser, "through an equitable division among them of the fund, commonly known as profit, was soon after formulated." The Supply Associations in London, such as the "Civil Service" and "Army and Navy," have attained great importance. These associations cannot be regarded as co-operative at all. Their profits, as in a private firm, go to capital, whereas the essential feature of co-operation is in diverting the profits to labour.

Hughes, *History of Co-operation*; Stuart, *Address to the Congress*, 1879; Hughes and Neale, *Manual for Co-operators*; Holyoake, *History of Co-operation*; Marshall, *Economics of Industry*, bk. iii., ch. 9; Acland and Jones, *Working Men Co-operators*; B. Jones, *History of Co-operation.* [W. B. R.]

Coorg. A province of India on the Malabar coast, between Mysore and the sea, comprising an area of about 1,500 square miles, no portion of which is less than 3,000 feet above the level of the sea. At the close of the eighteenth century the Rajah of Coorg was practically an independent prince. He had been imprisoned by Tippoo on the annexation of his country, but had contrived to escape, and to wage a successful guerilla warfare in the hills of his own country, till he drove out the troops of his enemy. During this warfare many of his exploits, which are related at length by Colonel Wilks, exhibit not only great gallantry, but also good faith and chivalrous generosity to an extraordinary degree. The assistance which he rendered

to Lord Cornwallis in the second Mysore War procured the recognition of the freedom of his country at the Peace of Seringapatam. He died in 1809, and was succeeded by his brother, who bequeathed the crown to his son, in 1820. This prince ruled so badly, and with such ferocity and cruelty, while exhibiting great hostility to the English, that when, in 1832, his sister and her husband fled for their lives, and revealed his barbarities to the British Resident at Mysore, the latter, after in vain remonstrating with the Rajah, proclaimed him a public enemy. In 1834, after a gallant resistance, Coorg was subdued and annexed to the Madras presidency. Twenty years later it was discovered that Coorg was eminently suited for the cultivation of coffee, and it is now one of the most prosperous of the Indian provinces.

Wilks, *Mysore*.

Coote, Sir Eyre (*b.* 1726, *d.* 1783), first saw service against the Jacobite insurgents in 1745. On the breaking out of the Seven Years' War, the hostilities were renewed in the Carnatic which had died out after the recall of Dupleix. General Count Lally was sent to India with a powerful fleet and army. At first he was successful: captured Fort St. David, besieged Madras, and re-took Arcot in 1758. The arrival of Admiral Pocock and the English fleet prevented an assault on Madras, and the next year Colonel Coote took the command. He re-captured Wandewash, and compelled Lally to fight a battle in the neighbourhood of the town, in which the latter was completely routed. Coote, in 1760, gradually deprived Lally of all his conquests, and finally blockaded and captured Pondicherry, which was razed to the ground. In 1769 he was made commander-in-chief of the Company's army, and the following year returned to England. The disasters of the English in 1780, during Warren Hastings' Mahratta War, rendered it necessary to send out General (now Sir) Eyre Coote, to take the command in Bengal. The news of Hyder Ali's invasion of the Carnatic induced Hastings to send Coote to Madras. In January, 1781, he began his advance. Hyder had captured Arcot, and was besieging five other forts. Coote pushed on to Cuddalore and Porto Novo. Hyder resolved to risk an engagement, and took up a strong position, which he began to fortify. A long and arduous engagement ensued near Porto Novo (July 1, 1781), which lasted six hours, and at the end the British were completely victorious, with the loss of only 300 men, while Hyder, who had lost 10,000 men, was compelled to raise the siege of Trichinopoly. Seven weeks later Hyder was again completely routed at Pollilore, Aug. 27, 1781. Another victory on Sept. 27, allowed Coote to retire unmolested into winter quarters. In 1782 the arrival of the French fleet under Suffrein brought Hyder again into the field, and Coote in vain endeavoured to bring on a general action. The French were victorious everywhere, and Hyder ravaged the Carnatic to the very gates of Madras. In October Sir Eyre Coote's shattered constitution obliged him to return to Bengal, and surrender his command to General Stuart. In 1783, April 25, two days after his return to Madras, once more to undertake the conduct of the Mysore War, the veteran died.

Wilks, *Mysore*; Mill, *Hist. of India.*

Copenhagen, The Battle of (2nd April, 1801), resulted in the breaking up of the Northern coalition against England, which had been one of Napoleon's most cherished schemes. After safely passing Cronenberg Castle, Nelson persuaded Parker to commence the attack without delay. Two days were spent by Nelson in sounding the King's Channel, which lies between Copenhagen and a large shoal, and is only three-quarters of a mile broad. Along the land side of this channel the Danes had ranged nineteen ships and floating batteries. Everything being in readiness, Nelson made the signal for action early in the morning of the 2nd. The pilots entirely lost their presence of mind, and the *Agamemnon*, the second ship, went aground, as did the *Bellona* and the *Russell*. Nelson, in the *Elephant*, came next, and profiting by their example, took a new course, and so guided the rest of the fleet. The action began at ten o'clock. Riou, with the frigates, at once attacked the Crown Batteries, and maintained the unequal contest for three hours, until he was killed. The battle raged for three hours without any apparent advantage being gained, and Sir Hyde Parker made the signal for recall. Nelson, affecting not to see it, continued the action, and about two o'clock the greater part of the Danish fire ceased. It was impossible, however, to take possession of the ships that struck, because they were protected by the batteries on shore. Nelson, wishing to save further bloodshed, sent ashore a flag of truce, saying that he must be allowed to take possession of the prizes, if only for the sake of the wounded men on board of them; and during the next day, Good Friday, the work still went on. The following days were spent by Nelson in maturing the negotiations, and on the 9th he succeeded in concluding an armistice for fourteen weeks, his object being to gain time to attack the Russians. The opportune death of the Czar Paul rendered any active hostility with that country unnecessary, and the armistice resulted in a treaty between England and the Northern powers.

Southey, *Life of Nelson*; *Nelson Dispatches*; Alison, *Hist. of Europe*; James, *Naval Hist.*

Copenhagen, Bombardment of (Sept. 2, 1807). The English ministry had learnt

in the summer of 1807 of the existence of certain secret articles in the Treaty of Tilsit between the Czar and the Emperor Napoleon, by which the Danes and the other Baltic powers were to be induced or compelled to lend their fleet to the French for service against England. The danger appeared so imminent that the ministry determined to seize the Danish fleet, though England and Denmark were nominally at peace. Accordingly, in July, 1807, twenty-seven ships of the line, with 20,000 men on board, under the command of Lord Cathcart and Admiral Gambier, sailed for the Baltic, passed the Sound, and anchored off the island of Zealand. The English commanders demanded that the Danish fleet should be given up to them to be held as a deposit till the end of the war. This the Danes refused. On the 16th of August the British troops disembarked and invested the town, and under the command of Sir Arthur Wellesley fought a sharp engagement with the Danish militia at Kioje, whom they completely defeated. On Sept. 2nd the bombardment began, and was continued for three days, till eighteen hundred houses were destroyed, and the city was on fire in several places. On the 5th the Danes surrendered, and agreed to give up their fleet, which, accordingly, to the number of eighteen ships of the line, besides smaller vessels, was conveyed to England. The triumph, great as it was, was received with doubtful feelings in England, as the imminence of the danger to England was hardly understood, and the affair looked like an arbitrary and dangerous violation of the rights of neutrals. After an animated debate in Parliament both Houses supported the ministers by a majority of more than two to one.

Parliamentary Debates, x. 224; *Annual Register*, 1807; Alison, *Hist. of Europe*, viii. 249.

Copenhagen Fields, Meeting in (April 21, 1834). On the conviction of the Dorsetshire labourers for administering illegal oaths, the labour unionists summoned a meeting in Copenhagen Fields, London, on the 21st April, with the object of overawing the ministry. A plan was also formed for the violent seizure of Lord Melbourne, the Prime Minister, and for other illegal acts. Due warning being, however, given to the government, preparations were made. Melbourne did not meet the deputation of the union; troops were held in readiness, the public offices defended with artillery, and 5,000 householders sworn in as special constables. Melbourne's under-secretary received the deputation, and informed them that it was illegal for a petition to be presented by 60,000 men. The crowd, seeing the preparations made to receive them, withdrew quietly, and no disturbance followed.

Copyhold is a species of tenure which had its origin in villenage. In the latter half of the twelfth century, when the degradation of the agricultural class seems to have been completed, and former distinctions were merged into a uniform condition of villenage, they who held land by villein tenure, whether they were villeins or freemen, had no means of asserting their rights to the land as against the lord. They held part of the demesnes of a manor for the lord's advantage, and at his will. They had no rights in the court of the manor, and no remedy by assize, for these institutions were concerned solely with freeholders. In effect, however, the uncertainty of their tenure was remedied in Bracton's time by covenants with the lord, and his will was restrained by custom. Attending the court baron to make surrender, or crave admission, or pay their dues, tenants in villenage had their transactions entered in the rolls of the court, which became the evidence of their title, and of the custom of the manor. The court, while engaged in business of this kind, became separate from its original character, and as a new court, was called the customary court, to distinguish it from the court baron, of which the freeholders were the suitors. A copy from the rolls of this court constituted the title of the tenant in villenage, who was hence called a copyholder. In the reign of Edward IV. the judges allowed the copyholder to maintain an action for trespass against his lord when wrongfully disturbed. From this time "copyholders stand on sure ground." This kind of tenure still exists. In it the freehold remains in the lord, and the tenant holds by copy of the court roll, at the will of the lord, according to the custom of the manor. Copyhold land must therefore always be part of a manor. It may be assumed that no land can have been brought for the first time under this tenure since 18 Edward I. Though the copyholder is independent of the will of the lord, yet the freehold being in the lord subjects the former to some disadvantages. For the lord has a right to the minerals beneath and the timber upon the soil, though he cannot, unless the custom of the manor allow, come on the land to exercise these rights without the copyholder's leave. There are species of tenure, such as customary freeholds, which resemble copyhold. All questions as to the freehold in any such tenures should be decided by ascertaining "whether the well-known rights of freeholders, such as to cut timber and dig mines, are vested in the lord or in the tenant." It is in the power of copyholders freely to alienate their lands. In the process of alienation the old character of the tenure becomes apparent, for it is effected by first of all surrendering the property to the lord, or, instead of him, to his steward, and is completed by the admission of the new tenant. An estate in copyhold may be in fee simple, tail, or for life. An estate in fee in copyhold is subject to the incidents of

feaity, suit, escheat, in many cases to rent, and more rarely to relief. Other incidents may pertain to it, according to the custom of the manor. Copyholds could formerly be enfranchised or converted into freeholds by agreement. Now, by the Copyhold Acts (15 and 16 Vict., c. 51, s. 7, and 21 and 22 Vict., c. 94, s. 21), the tenant or the lord, by making application to the Copyhold Commissioners, can secure a compulsory enfranchisement of copyhold upon equitable terms. The origin of copyhold is an exceedingly obscure subject, and many conflicting theories upon it have been broached. The view here taken is that of many modern historians. For a different explanation see F. Seebohm, *English Village Community*. [Land Tenure.]

Elton, *on Copyholds*; K. Digby, *Hist. of the Law of Real Property*; J. Williams, *Law of Real Property*; Seebohm, *Eng. Village Community: an Essay in Economic Hist.* [W. H.]

Copyright Acts. The first of these was 8 Anne, c. 19, which gave an author the copyright of his works for fourteen years, with extension if the author or his representative was living for a further term of fourteen years. By the decision of the House of Lords in 1774 (in case of *Donaldson* v. *Beckett*), this statute was held to have done away with any common law right which the author might have in his work beyond the prescribed term of years. By the Act 54 Geo. III., c. 146, the author was granted copyright for the term of twenty-eight years, and for the residue of his life should he live beyond that period. By the Act of 1842 (5 and 6 Vict., c. 45), the copyright of a book endures for the life of the author, and for seven years afterwards. If this term expires within forty-two years of the first publication, the copyright of the author or his assignees is to be extended to that term of years. Copies of all books are to be deposited in the library of the British Museum, and, if required, in the Bodleian Library, in the libraries of Cambridge University, Trinity College, Dublin, and of the Faculty of Advocates, Edinburgh. Dramatic, artistic, and musical copyright has been protected by 3 and 4 Will. IV., c. 15, 8 Geo. II., c. 13, 38 Geo. III., c. 71, and 5 and 6 Vict., c. 45. Under the Musical Copyright Act, 1906, the printing or selling of pirated music is punishable.

Corbeuil, William of, Archbishop of Canterbury (1123—1136), was a canon regular, and Prior of St. Osyth's, in Essex. On the death of Archbishop Ralph, a contest arose between the regulars and seculars about the appointment of his successor, which was settled by a compromise: William, who belonged, strictly speaking, to neither of these parties, being elected. The quarrel between the sees of Canterbury and York continued, and to establish his supremacy, William got himself appointed Papal legate, this being the first instance of an Archbishop of Canterbury holding this office. He was zealous in enforcing the celibacy of the clergy, and after Henry's death supported the claims of Stephen to the throne. All his contemporaries paint him in dark colours. The author of the *Gesta Stephani* describes him as "a man of smooth face and strictly religious manners, but much more ready to amass money than to spend it."

Henry of Huntingdon; William of Malmesbury; Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops.*

Cork was built in the sixth century, and was in ancient times the principality of the McCarthys. In 1172 it received a garrison from Henry II., who also, in 1185, granted a charter to the town. In 1492, the citizens were conspicuous as supporters of Perkin Warbeck (q.v.). Later it was taken by Cromwell (1649), and Marlborough (1690). In 1810 one of the Queen's Colleges was established in the city.

Cork, Richard Boyle, 1st Earl of (*b.* 1566, *d.* 1645), the son of a Herefordshire gentleman, went to Dublin about 1588, and acquired large landed properties in Ireland. Having gained the favour of Queen Elizabeth, he was specially recommended to the notice of Sir George Carew, Lord-President of Munster, and was much employed by him. In 1612 he was made a Privy Councillor of Ireland; in 1616 raised to the peerage as Lord Boyle; and in 1620 made Earl of Cork. In 1629 he was made one of the Lords-Justices, and two years later Lord Treasurer of Ireland, in which position he quarrelled violently with Strafford. At the beginning of the Rebellion he raised a large body of horse for the royal service.

Cornavii, or Cornubii, The, were an ancient British tribe, inhabiting the modern counties of Warwick, Worcester, Stafford, Salop, and Chester. They are reckoned by Mr. Rhŷs to have been of the Brythonic, and not of the Goidelic, stock. [Celts.]

Cornbury, Edward, Viscount (afterwards Earl of Clarendon), was the son of Henry, Lord Clarendon, brother of the Earl of Rochester. On the landing of the Prince of Orange, he led three regiments from Salisbury over to William's side; but, finding he could not completely accomplish this act of treachery, stole to the prince's quarters with a few followers. His signature, together with that of several other leading men, was appended to a forged association in favour of James, by William Young, the Jacobite informer, but nothing could be proved against him (1692). He was subsequently Governor of New York for six years, a post in which he displayed great incapacity. He is said upon one occasion to have dressed as a woman in order to represent the queen.

Cornelis, The Capture of (Aug., 1811), was effected during the war of the French Revolution. Cornelis, in Java, was an entrenched camp between two rivers, one of which was not fordable, and the other was defended by extremely formidable redoubts and batteries. It was resolved to carry it by a *coup de main*, and Colonel Gillespie was selected for that purpose. On Aug. 26, his column reached the redoubt at dawn, and, feeling that delay would be dangerous, he did not wait for his rear division, but attacked at once, and carried the redoubt with the bayonet. Seizing the bridge, he attacked and captured a second redoubt, and with his full force vigorously assaulted the enemy's reserve, which was posted with powerful artillery in front of the barracks and lesser fort. They broke and fled, and the place fell into the hands of the English.

Corn Laws is the name generally given to the various Acts of Parliament regulating the exportation and importation of grain, and especially wheat. They have been passed with two objects, which have prevailed to a different extent at different times: to secure a plentiful supply of cheap corn at home, and to keep up the price of corn produced in England. There have also been laws to regulate the traffic in corn by the corn dealers, and to prevent the practices called *engrossing*, *forestalling*, and *regrating*; and occasionally, as in the reign of Henry VI., exportation of corn has been absolutely prohibited. Importation was practically free till the reign of Queen Elizabeth, but very little corn was imported. An entirely new system was adopted on the accession of William III. In the supposed interests of agriculture and of the landowners, the exportation of corn was not only permitted, but encouraged by bounties. This legislation did not have the effect which was expected, and the price of corn continued to be very low. When, after the Peace of Paris, in 1763, the commerce and manufactures of the kingdom largely increased, and when the increase was coincident with a growth of population, the export of corn diminished, and the restrictions on imports were felt as a hardship. This led to Burke's Act of 1773, by which foreign wheat was allowed to be imported at a nominal duty of 6d. whenever the home price was at or above 48s. a quarter, and the bounty and the exportation were together to cease when the price was at or above 44s. Corn might be imported, at any price, duty free, in order to be again exported. This Act led to a large importation of corn, which did no injury to the agricultural interests, but only served to maintain the increasing manufacturing population. At this time, also, large quantities of waste land were taken into cultivation, without any fall of agricultural prices. In 1791, under the pressure of the landed interest, the law of 1773 was repealed, and there was substituted for it an arrangement by which a limit of 54s. for importation, at 6d. a quarter, was substituted for 46s.; between 54s. and 50s. there was a middle duty of 2s. 6d. a quarter, and below 50s. a prohibitive duty. The bounty was continued as before, and exportation without bounty was allowed to 46s. In 1804 a new law, passed at the bidding of the farmers, imposed a prohibitory duty on all wheat imported, when the price was 63s., a middle duty of 2s. 6d. between 63s. and 66s., and a nominal duty of 6d. above 66s. In 1815 the limit of the price for importation was fixed at 80s. It was hoped that this regulation would maintain the price of wheat at about the same standard; but still greater fluctuations followed. The effect of this legislation was to raise the price of corn very largely, and to force a wide extent of land into arable cultivation which was not suited for it. Another Act was passed in 1822, intended to lessen the disastrous effects of the Act of 1815; but it never came into operation. The attempt to regulate the price of corn by Act of Parliament was so disastrous that the Council was authorised to issue orders to suspend the operation of the Acts, and to permit the importation of foreign corn under circumstances of necessity. This fact, with others, gradually convinced agriculturists that the Corn Laws were based on a mistaken principle; and in 1827 Canning carried resolutions in the House of Commons pointing to a more liberal policy. A bill, founded on these resolutions, passed the Lower House; but, owing to the change of ministry and the opposition of the Duke of Wellington, the bill was given up. Mr. Charles Grant, in 1828, carried resolutions similar to those of Mr. Canning, and they eventually became law. The grievance of the Corn Laws was always found to vary with the prosperity of the seasons, and the bad seasons which followed each other from 1837 to 1842 gave rise to the agitation by which the Corn Laws were abolished altogether. In 1842 a measure was introduced by Sir Robert Peel which still maintained the vicious principle of a sliding-scale of duties, although the scale was less onerous than those which preceded it. This did not diminish the agitation for the repeal of the Corn Laws, and the argument of the repealers was strengthened by the fact that the alteration of the tariff in 1842, which allowed the importation of live cattle and fresh provisions, did not affect the price of these articles to the disastrous extent which had been anticipated by the agriculturists. In 1843 the principle of the Corn Laws was virtually abandoned, by allowing corn to be imported from Canada at a very small duty. It was now possible to import corn from America through Canada, and therefore there seemed to be no reason why direct importation from America should not be allowed. In his

budget of 1845, Sir R. Peel abolished the duties on 430 articles out of 813 then taxed. This was a virtual abandonment of the principle of protection. In the same year the harvest was very bad, and the potato crop in Ireland failed entirely. It was then impossible to avoid the temporary suspension of the Corn Laws, and it was a question whether it was not better to abolish them altogether. The country was deluged with the free trade tracts of the Anti-Corn-Law League. Sir R. Peel was convinced that protection was no longer tenable; but his cabinet would not follow him. Lord Stanley resigned, and the ministry broke up. Lord J. Russell was unable to form a cabinet, and Sir R. Peel was induced to take office again. It was known that he would meet Parliament in 1846 pledged to support the cause of free trade. The agitation for the repeal of the Corn Laws had begun in Manchester towards the end of 1836. In a season of financial pressure, it appeared to some of the most influential manufacturers of that thriving town that the only remedy for the evil lay in free trade, and that by artificially keeping up the price of corn the manufacturing interests of the country were sacrificed to the supposed benefit of the agricultural interests. The year afterwards the Anti-Corn-Law League was formed. Among its most prominent members from the first were Mr. Cobden and Mr. Bright, who in a great measure sacrificed their worldly prosperity to the work of converting their countrymen to their principles. Large sums of money were collected for the purposes of the League. A Free Trade Hall was built in Manchester. In 1843 the Lords acknowledged that the League was a great fact; it was compared in debate to the wooden horse by which the Greeks were secretly brought into Troy. At the end of 1845 it was stronger than ever in men, money, and enthusiasm. When Parliament assembled in 1846, the Queen's Speech and the Address in reply to it gave indication of the coming change. Sir R. Peel rose immediately afterwards, and avowed honestly the alteration in his opinion. He said that he had observed during the last three years (1) that wages do not vary with the price of food, and that with high prices you do not necessarily have high wages; (2) that employment, high wages, and abundance contribute directly to the diminution of crime; (3) that by the gradual removal of protection, industry had been promoted and morality improved. Mr. Disraeli took the opportunity of violently assailing the minister for his change of opinion. In February, Sir R. Peel announced a fixed duty on corn for three years, and after that its entire abolition. The free traders attempted to get rid of this delay; but they were beaten by a large majority, and the bill passed. There was a fear lest it might be rejected in the House of Lords, but the Duke of Wellington secured its passing. In 1902, owing to a heavy deficit on account of the South African War, a Registration Duty of 3d. per cwt. on imported corn was imposed, and of 5d. on imported flour, but the duty was abolished in the following year.

Sir R. Peel's *Memoirs* and *Speeches*; J. Morley, *Life of Cobden*; Brandes, *Life of Lord Beaconsfield*; W. Robertson, *Life and Times of John Bright*.

[O. B.]

Cornwallis, Charles, 1st Marquis (*b.* 1738, *d.* 1805), entered the army at an early age, and served under the Marquis of Granby in 1761. He entered Parliament for Eye, and was appointed Governor of the Tower in 1770. He served in the American War of Independence, and won much distinction at the battle of Brandywine, and the siege of Charleston. He was appointed to the command of the British forces in South Carolina, and in 1780 won the victory of Camden over Gates, the following year defeating Greene at Guildford. In 1782, blockaded at Yorktown by the American army and the French fleet, he was forced to surrender. A violent controversy took place on his return, between Cornwallis and Sir Henry Clinton, as to the party deserving of blame for the disaster. In 1786 he went to India as Governor-General, and Commander-in-chief of the Bengal army. His administration lasted from 1786 to 1793, and is remarkable for the Mysore War; the arrangements with Oude, Arcot, and the Nizam; the negotiations with Scindiah and the Mahrattas; the Permanent Settlement; and a series of important judicial and revenue reforms. In 1790 Tippoo's attack on Travancore caused Lord Cornwallis to conclude the Triple Alliance with the Mahrattas and the Nizam, and the campaign began on the Malabar and Coromandel coasts. In 1791 Lord Cornwallis determined to take the command himself, and marched straight to Bangalore, which he captured March 21. Tippoo had hastened back to defend his capital. The Nizam's force and the Mahrattas were wasting their time in sieges in the north. On May 13, 1791, was fought the battle of Arikera, in which Tippoo was beaten. In March, 1792, the Treaty of Seringapatam was signed, ending the war, and leaving Tippoo with reduced territory and prestige. As an administrator, Lord Cornwallis devoted himself to the correction of abuses. He increased the salaries of the public servants in order to give them the possibility of acquiring a competence by economy, and made war on all frauds and peculation. On his return to England he was employed in 1794 as a diplomatist in Flanders, and carried on fruitless negotiations with the emperor at Brussels. In 1795 he was appointed Master-General of the Ordnance. In 1798 he became Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland during the violence of the Irish rebellion. In 1801 he returned to

England, and was selected as the British plenipotentiary to negotiate the Peace of Amiens. On July 30, 1805, he arrived in India as Governor-General, pledged to reverse the policy of Lord Wellesley. His avowed policy was to end the war; to break up the system of subsidiary alliances; and to bribe the minor princes of Hindostan to give up their alliance with us by resigning to them jaghires out of the lands south and west of Delhi. In spite of the remonstrances of Lord Lake he proceeded up the Ganges with the intention of carrying this plan out, but his health failed rapidly. He resigned the government to the senior member of the council, Sir George Barlow, and died at Ghazeepore, Oct. 5, 1805.

Cornwallis, *Despatches*; Owen, *Selections from Cornwallis Despatches*; Kaye, *Lives of Indian Officers*; Grant Duff, *Mahrattas*; Wilks, *Hist. of Mysore*; Mill, *Hist. of India*; *Dictionary of National Biography*, vol. xii. [B. S.]

Coromandel Coast. The popular name applied to the east coast of the Deccan. It is supposed to be a corruption of Cholamandalay, in the region of the ancient Chola dynasty. The Coromandel coast extends from Cape Calimere to the mouth of the Kistnah, and is within the territory of the Madras presidency.

Coronation. This rite is of great antiquity. In England it seems to have been in general use, even before the union of the several kingdoms; and a coronation service of uncertain date, but as old at least as the eighth century, is still extant. The *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* represents Offa's son, Egfirth, as having been "hallowed to king" in 785. In the same authority we find distinct records of the consecration of Edgar, Ethelred II., Edward the Confessor, and Harold II., to the kingly office with the same rite. And the two essential parts of the ceremony, the placing of the crown on the king's head, and the anointing, had then been fully established; but to neither had any exceptional sacredness been yet assigned; at most they were but symbols of the divine approval of the choice the people had made. The ritual used at Ethelred II.'s coronation has survived, and contains both these and the form of oath taken by the king. By this he promised three things—to hold God's Church and the realm in peace, to forbid rapine and injustice, and to judge justly and mercifully. The place varied; though generally Kingston-on-Thames, in Edgar's case it was Bath, and in Edward's Winchester. Since the coronation of Harold, however, it has been the abbey church at Westminster.

With differences of detail the ceremonial has not materially changed since the Conquest. The form of asking the clergy and people present for their voices, lasted till Henry VIII.'s time, but is now a mere presentation of the sovereign to the spectators. The chief variations have been in the oath. Till 1308 this pledged three things only—peace and reverence to God and Holy Church, justice to the people, and the removal of bad and upholding of good laws. But at Edward II.'s coronation it became more comprehensive and precise, and took the form of question and answer. Besides the three things above mentioned, the king promised to keep and defend "the laws and righteous customs which the community of the realm should have chosen." For centuries no vital alteration was made in the body of the oath, though liberties were taken in Tudor and Stuart days with its wording.

The existing form was settled at the Revolution of 1688. By it the sovereign undertakes (1) to govern "according to the statutes in Parliament agreed on," (2) to cause "justice in mercy to be executed," and (3) to maintain "the Protestant reformed religion established by law." It follows the declaration against transubstantiation deemed necessary to prove that the sovereign is not a Roman Catholic.

This ceremony has long lost its importance. Once it marked the beginning of the new reign. It afterwards came to be regarded as giving the king a sacred character, making him the Lord's anointed, against whose authority it was an impiety to raise one's hand. But it is now a mere pageant.

Taylor's *Glory of Regality*; Stubbs's *Constitutional History*; Freeman's *Norman Conquest*, Appendix, note H, to vol. iii.; Benedict of Peterborough, vol. i., pp. 80—83 (Rolls Series). [J. R.]

Coroner, an official first appointed by Richard I. in 1194, had originally very considerable powers. He was elected by the shire, and was to keep the pleas of the crown in the place of the sheriff. By 3 Ed. I., c. 10, the coroner is required to be of the status of a knight, and to hold inquests in cases of sudden death, and by 14 Ed. III., c. 8, he is required to hold land in fee. By the 28 Ed. III., c. 6, his election was to be made by the freeholders assembled in the county court, in the same manner as that of the sheriffs. The power of the coroner to hear cases of felony was abolished by Magna Charta, § 17, and the functions of holding inquests in cases of violent or sudden death expressly confirmed by the statute 4 Ed. I., c. 2, called, *De Officio Coronatoris*. Gradually the coroner lost all his other duties except that of taking inquisitions of death. The position and election of coroners have been regulated by several statutes in recent times. Boroughs with a population of over 10,000 have a coroner as well as counties.

Corporation Act, The (1661), was passed by the first Parliament of Charles II., with the intention of destroying the power of the Dissenters in the towns. By this statute it was enacted that all officers of corporations should take the sacrament according to the rites of the Church of England, within twelve

months of their election to office; and on their election should take the oaths of supremacy, allegiance, and non-resistance, and abjure the Solemn League and Covenant. The Corporation Act was repealed in 1828, though long before that date it had become a dead letter.

Corporations, or *bodies corporate*, formed for the continual maintenance and enjoyment of certain privileges, or the holding of certain property in perpetuity, are of two kinds:—(*a*) *Corporations sole*, which consist of one person, such as the king or a bishop, who in the eye of the law never die; and (*b*) *Corporations aggregate*, which consist of a number of persons so bound together as to be by law considered as one individual, and which by the constant introduction of fresh members have a continuous existence. Both sole and aggregate corporations are divided into ecclesiastical and lay. The former division comprised such corporations as a bishop, or the chaplain of a cathedral, and the latter being again sub-divided into (*a*) *civil corporations*, such as the universities of Oxford, Cambridge, and Durham; the municipal corporations, and private corporations of the nature of joint-stock companies; and (*b*) *eleemosynary corporations*, which are charged with the duty of administering the bounty of the founder, as in the case of the various colleges at the universities, and the hospitals.

Corrichie, The Battle of (1562), was fought near Aberdeen between the forces of Mary Queen of Scots, led by Murray, and some Highlanders, headed by the rebellious Earl of Huntly. Huntly was killed, and his son, Sir John Gordon, was captured and executed.

Corsned was a species of ordeal in which the accused had to swallow a large piece of bread or cheese. If this were performed freely and without hurt, the accused was pronounced innocent; but if it stuck in his throat, guilty. With the introduction of Christianity, the host was used for this purpose. [Ordeal.]

Corunna, The Battle of (Jan. 16, 1809), between the English and French, was fought during the Peninsular War at the close of Sir John Moore's retreat from Madrid, pursued by Soult. After a march in which the severity of the elements and neglect of discipline were more disastrous to the troops than the pursuit of the French, Moore, on Jan. 11, took up a position round the town of Corunna, and, having occupied the road to Santiago de Compostella with his best troops, awaited the arrival of the English transports from Vigo. On the 14th the ships anchored in the bay, and before daybreak on the 16th the cavalry (the ground being impracticable for cavalry operations), the sick and wounded, and all but nine pieces of artillery, had been embarked. Soult had 20,000 infantry and cavalry, and a strong force of artillery, while Moore had only 14,500 infantry. The battle was begun with a fierce attack by the French on the village of Elvina, which they carried, only, however, to be in turn driven out by General Baird's division. While the battle was still doubtful, Moore ordered up the reserve, under General Paget, to oppose a flank movement directed against the English right. This was most successfully effected; and almost simultaneously the whole of the British line began to gain ground, until at nightfall they had everywhere driven the French from their positions. During the following night a retreat was effected to the shore, and the embarkation of the troops was carried out with but little loss. In the battle the English were said to have lost 800 men, including their brave general, Sir John Moore; the French, between 3,000 and 4,000.

Napier, *Peninsular War.*

Coshery was an ancient Irish custom, by which the chief had the right of using the houses and taking the provisions of his tenantry for himself and following at his own discretion. The Norman barons, not unnaturally, adopted so advantageous a custom. After the final confiscation of Irish land by Cromwell, the descendants of the ancient chiefs long led a precarious existence by such means, and numerous statutes failed to put a stop to it.

O'Curry, *Ancient Irish Customs;* Lecky, *History of the Eighteenth Century.*

Cottenham, Charles Christopher Pepys, 1st Earl of (*b.* 1781, *d.* 1851), the second son of Sir William Pepys, was called to the bar 1804. He was appointed solicitor-general to Queen Adelaide in 1830, and solicitor-general to the king in 1834. In 1831 he was returned to Parliament for Higham Ferrers. In 1834 he became Master of the Rolls, and in 1835 one of the Commissioners of the Great Seal, the Whigs not being prepared with a Chancellor in whom they could confide. In 1836 he became Lord Chancellor, and continued in this office till 1841. In 1846, on the return of the Whigs to power, Lord Cottenham again became Chancellor; but his health was bad, and in 1850 he received an earldom, and the Great Seal was put in commission.

Cotter, James (*b.* 1690, *d.* 1719), the son of Sir James Cotter, a distinguished supporter of James II., was, in spite of the Irish Court of Chancery, brought up as a Catholic in England. In 1713 he headed an attack on the Protestant voters in Dublin. He was the idol of the Irish Jacobites; and his execution for rape in 1719 brought about a savage persecution of the Quakers, who had been instrumental in securing his punishment.

Cottington, Francis, Lord (*b.* 1578, *d.* 1652), of a Somersetshire family, was for

many years one of the English diplomatic agents at Madrid. He accompanied Prince Charles to Spain, took part in negotiating the marriage treaty, and lost the favour of his patron, Buckingham, by supporting it. In 1628 he was created a baronet and privy councillor. In the following year he was appointed Chancellor of the Exchequer, and sent as ambassador to Spain, and concluded a treaty which developed (Jan. 2, 1631) into an agreement for the partition of Holland. On his return he was raised to the peerage, and became, in 1635, Master of the Court of Wards. Clarendon describes him as Laud's chief opponent in the Council. To avoid impeachment by the Long Parliament for his share in the fiscal oppressions of the previous ten years, he resigned both his offices. During the Civil War he sided with the king, and, in consequence, took refuge in France. In 1652 he was appointed, together with Clarendon, ambassador to Madrid, and died, in 1653, at Valladolid. During his first stay in Spain he turned Roman Catholic, reverted to Protestantism on his return to England, and became a Catholic again in 1652. Clarendon praises his self-control and power of dissimulation. Mr. Gardiner calls him, "a man of the world without enthusiasm."

Clarendon, *History of the Rebellion*; S. R. Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng., 1603—1642.*

Cotton, Bartholomew de, was a monk of Norwich, who wrote a Chronicle of England from the arrival of the Saxons to the year 1298, about which time he died. The latter portion of this history is of great value, as the writer was contemporary with the events which he records. This Chronicle, edited by Mr. Luard, has been published in the Rolls Series.

Cotton, Sir John Hinde, was one of the small band of Jacobite politicians who formed part of the Opposition to Sir Robert Walpole's ministry in the reign of George II. In 1740, when the Jacobites were concocting one of their usual plots, we find him described as "doubtful of others, but answering clearly for himself;" and he arranged to remain in London as the channel of communication with James's friends. In 1742, after the fall of Walpole, his appointment to the Admiralty Board was pressed by the Duke of Argyle, but the king absolutely refused to raise him to that office. In 1744, however, in spite of the reluctance of George, he was taken into the administration. In 1745, the French minister, Cardinal Tencin, a friend of the Stuarts, demanded that as a pledge of his sincerity he should resign office, but this he declined to do. He was, however, soon afterwards dismissed, and continued to lead a small body of Jacobites in the Lower House.

Cotton, Sir Robert (*b.* 1571, *d.* 1631), was a distinguished antiquary and collector of manuscripts. He assisted Camden (q.v.) in his labours on the *Britannia*. On the accession of James I. he was knighted, and frequently consulted by the Privy Council on constitutional points. He was one of those who suggested to James I. the idea of creating baronets, and was himself raised to this rank in 1611. Sir Robert wrote numerous antiquarian tracts and pamphlets. But his chief title to remembrance is due to the magnificent manuscript library he collected, which passed to his heir intact, and was acquired by the nation in 1706. After being partly destroyed by fire in 1731, it was placed in the British Museum in 1757.

Cotton, Sir Willoughby, was commander-in-chief in Jamaica during the slave rebellion of 1831—32. The insurrection was crushed owing to his promptness of action, whilst his leniency to the offenders was in marked contrast to the unwarrantable cruelty with which the negroes were usually treated. His clemency drew upon him the hatred of the planters.

Cotton Famine, The, 1862. The outbreak of the American Civil War, which was followed by a total blockade of the Confederate coast, was productive of very disastrous results in England. The cotton supply, on the manufacture of which the greater part of the Lancashire operatives depended for a livelihood, failed, and in consequence the Lancashire mill-owners began to work short time, and finally to close the mills entirely. A certain amount of work was kept up and many large fortunes were made by running the blockade of the Confederate ports and bringing out cotton; but the general result was that two millions of people were to a great extent reduced to destitution. The Cotton District Relief Fund was started in July, 1862, and nearly two millions were subscribed within a twelvemonth. By the Relief Act passed in Aug., 1862, loans were granted to the guardians of the poor for the purpose of instituting relief works. The famine came to an end in the summer of 1865.

Councils, Civil.

(1) The National Council. (*a*) In *Anglo-Saxon Times. The Witenagemot.* The more primitive German tribes had no kings, and the supreme authority resided either in temporary magistrates or the national council of all freemen that met periodically to discuss all matters of great importance. When monarchy became universal, this council became the adviser and controller of the king. In the Campus Martius, or Madius, of the Frank monarchy, we see its continued survival until it gradually disappeared through feudal influence. In England its history was different. In the original kingdoms of the migration, a democratic assembly of the freemen, such as still

exists in the forest cantons of Switzerland (*see* Freeman, *Eng. Const.*, chap. i.), certainly existed. But when the "heptarchic" states were consolidated to form larger kingdoms, no consolidation of the popular assembly followed. The "greater council" of Tacitus, the Campus Martius of the Franks, was only continued in the Shiremoot, the highest folkmoot of the English previous to the establishment of a representative House of Commons. But the idea of a national assembly lived on in the gathering of magnates, which was consolidated in proportion as the kingdom was consolidated. Similarly with Wessex, and when the West Saxon monarchs became kings of all the English, they gathered together the wise men of all the land into their Great Council or Witenagemot. For the details of the constitution, power, origin, and activity of the *Witenagemot*, the reader is referred to the article under that head. It is enough to observe here that it was composed of the chief ecclesiastical and temporal magnates of the kingdom, that the functions of the Witan were almost co-ordinate with those of the king, and supreme on the vacancy of the throne by death. They were the Parliament, Senate, Privy Council, Supreme Court of Justice, Civil Service, and Cabinet in one. Their powers were legislative, judicial, deliberative, taxative, and executive. Though in practice a council of officials, it remained in idea the council of the nation, virtually represented by their natural leaders. But of direct popular representation there is no trace.

(*b*) *In Norman Times. The Great Council.* The accession of William I. produced no sudden revolution in the constitution of the national council. The Great Council of the Norman reigns was in most respects a continuation of the Witenagemot. But feudal influence, the analogy of the council of Normandy, and the changed condition of the country, soon produced a gradual feudalisation of the whole institution—which, although not completed before the reign of Henry II., gradually more and more obscured the old official character of the assemblage. Yet the national idea lived on. The convocation in 1086 and 1116 of Great Councils of all the landowners, of whomsoever they held land, is a striking instance of this. The gradual change of theory was obscured by the fact that the members of the assembly were the same as before the Conquest, though bishop and earl sat now as holders of great fiefs immediately under the crown just as much as in their official capacity of magnates. But the practical change was greater than the theoretical. Nominally possessed of all the prerogatives of the Wise Men before the Conquest, their power became very formal in the presence of such monarchs as William and his sons, to whose practical despotism revolt in arms rather than opposition in council was the appropriate check. Moreover the increasing sanctity which environed the monarch deprived the national council of the last vestiges of that unique position which made the earlier Anglo-Saxon monarchs little more in theory than chairmen of a Board.

(*c*) *In Angevin Times. The Feudal Council of Henry II.* Under Henry II. the change in the theory of the constitution of the national council became complete. The accepted usage of his reign was to summon the whole body of the tenants in chief to the council. But the ordinary form of the council was, doubtless, much the same as in the earlier period. Except on special occasions none but the magnates, the bishops, earls, and royal officers, the "greater barons," were likely to attend. We learn from Magna Charta that the "greater barons" alone received special summonses addressed to them individually on each occasion that the council met. A general writ addressed to the sheriff of each county summoned the "lesser barons" to these assemblies, and their attendance was generally nominal. The Angevin council thus became a regularly organised feudal assembly. But the powers of the Great Council could not but have been unfavourably influenced by the change. In becoming feudal it ceased to be national. Even the small place left by the administrative system of Henry II. for external checks could not be satisfactorily filled up by a body out of relation with a people who rather reposed confidence in the crown, and which was representative mainly of the crushed baronial party which Henry had subdued. Still, its formal consent was invariably given to Henry's great legislative and executive measures. We even hear of resistance to the royal will, of which in Anglo-Saxon times there is no record. But the most prejudicial influence on the immediate future of the council was the development of new and more efficient consultative bodies out of the administrative system which centred round the Curia Regis (q.v.). Thus under Henry II., the national council tended to become baronial merely, and was superseded in many of its functions by a royal council.

Yet the absence of a more adequate representation of the nation lent a good deal of national character even to this feudal council. Such an assembly gave us Magna Charta, and so well did the baronage fulfil their new part of national representation that throughout Henry III.'s reign an opposition at once popular and baronial found in it its appropriate mouthpiece. But the gradual growth of a directly representative Parliament brought the old council into comparative disuse. Edward I.'s completion of the parliamentary system at once annihilated the political importance of feudalism and of the feudal Great Council. Superseded as a national assembly

by Parliament, and as a consultative and executive body by the royal council, the Great Council remained as a survival throughout the Middle Ages. Often it was hardly to be distinguished from a Parliament, as for example, the council which sanctioned so many of Edward I.'s laws. Often it was no more than an "afforced" assembly of the "Concilium ordinarium," strengthened for important business by the addition of spiritual and temporal magnates, and other "wise men," selected at discretion. Such an assembly was not uncommon in the fourteenth and early part of the fifteenth centuries (*e.g.*, in 1379), and Richard II.'s evil councillors were accused of inducing the king to summon councils composed of certain lords without the assent or presence of the "Lords of the Great Council." But these assemblies may largely be regarded as attempts to bridge over the distinction between the Royal Council and the Council of the nation, and give to the former body that prestige which historical continuity and full baronial support could in a large measure afford. No such assembly was convoked in Tudor times, and Charles I.'s summons of a Great Council at York in 1640 was the last instance of its being called together.

(2) The Royal Council. Besides the Great Council, or the Common Council of the nation, there must have existed, as soon as organised government began, a smaller council of the royal ministers and confidants, by whose advice and co-operation the government was carried on. The small numbers generally attending the Witenagemot before the Conquest, and the lack of definite centralised authority, make this assembly very hard to discern in Anglo-Saxon times: but with the reigns of the sons of William I., the Curia Regis (q.v.) comes into importance; and from this general court there gradually developed by a process of differentiation not only the courts of judicature, but also the organised Royal Council of the Middle Ages. The exact relation of the Curia Regis to the national great council is not clear, but it is improbable that they were entirely separate organisations. Thus in a sense the Royal Council was a specialised form of the Great Council.

The active despotism of the Norman and Angevin kings, while reducing the national council to a form, greatly stimulated the growth of the Royal Council: for when the king had so much on his hands he must have the help of clerks and ministers, who always tended to become his advisers. The existence of such a Royal Council is dimly foreshadowed by the act of Henry II. in 1178, when that monarch reserved the decision of knotty judicial or financial cases to a small circle of "sapientes," or councillors. But under Henry II. we have the merest reference to its action —none to its constitution or powers. The personal retinue of Richard II., the foreign councillors of John, may well have been organised in a similar body; but it is not until the minority of Henry III. that the real history of the Royal Council begins. The Regent, the legate, the great officers of state constituted that "supremum concilium," traces of whose activity are to be discerned in every department of government. In this body the hated foreign courtiers exercised their influence. Against it the Great Council of the realm fought with increasing success. Thrice oaths were imposed on this Council and baronial nominees added to it; but it continued to maintain its existence through the crisis, and after acting as a practical Council of Regency during Edward I.'s absence in Palestine, received from that king definition and organisation.

The special characteristic of the Royal Council was its permanence. It was always sitting, always occupied in the continuous business of the court. Its usual name was the "Concilium perpetuum," or "Concilium ordinarium," in opposition to the "Concilium commune," or "Concilium magnum" of the nation, already discussed. Besides its constant sessions for executive business, it held terminal sittings to help the king in receiving petitions and hearing suits. Its functions were so wide as to be practically incapable of definition. Nothing was too great, nothing was too small to escape its interference. It advised the king, executed his resolutions, shared in his judicial and appellate powers. The ordinary members of the Council were—the chief ministers, the judges, some of the bishops and barons, and a few other royal confidants summoned by royal writ, and bound by a solemn oath of office.

The power of the Royal Council was always growing; but it acquired a special prominence during the weak reign of Richard II.; and it is from the history of the fifteenth century that we can first get a really clear and definite idea of the functions of a body whose whole previous history it is impossible to trace but obscurely. Under Richard II. and the Lancastrians the Royal Council, the engine and mouthpiece of the prerogative, gradually begins to subserve constitutional ends. The strong and organised parties of the time are represented upon it. Parliament asserts control over it, and the recognition by the Lancastrian monarchs of the right of Parliament to nominate its members is a remarkable anticipation of the cabinet government of modern times. In 1406 Parliament protest their great regard for the "Lords of the continuous Council," in language almost anticipating a vote of confidence in a modern ministry. In turns caressed by king and Parliament, the "Privy Council," as it now began to be called—though it is possible that the Privy Council was in its origin an inner and secret committee of the ordinary Council—acquired more and more

authority. Under Henry VI. it became a virtual Council of Regency, and its members practically held the royal authority in commission. This enhanced their authority, but broke their connection with Parliament. After 1437 the king resumed absolute power of nomination. Efforts to remedy this state of things led to no result: and under Edward IV. and the Tudors, it assumed the character of an "irresponsible committee of government," the agent of the prerogative, and the representative of the royal pleasure. It sent forth outshoots, such as its judicial committee, the *Star Chamber*; and many of the anomalous councils that in the sixteenth century withdrew half England from the cognisance of the common law were in close relation to it. The temporising policy of a Henry VIII. and an Elizabeth, which allowed some divergence of opinion amongst its supporters, kept up at least the semblance of government by discussion. Its elaborate organisation into committees under Edward VI. illustrates the width of its ramifications.

The Privy Council having attained the height of its power, it will be convenient to summarise its functions. The great variety and extent of its activity has already been noticed. Its claim in 1427 "to have the execution of all the powers of the crown during the king's minority needs only," says Dr. Stubbs, "to be slightly altered to make it applicable to their perpetual functions." The only limit to their usurpations was the common law; and this, while but partly confining their judicial activity, left the whole field of general politics open to their aggressions. They had a very large share in all executive business. Their power of passing *ordinances* (q.v.) gave them a practical share in legislation; and the confidence, indifference or impotence of Parliament allowed them taxative functions of the greatest importance. They lent money to the king on their own security, or used their influence over rich lords or merchants to negotiate loans. Sometimes they got direct authority from Parliament to levy taxes, sometimes, especially during the sixteenth century, they did so of their own authority. Wherever no positive law checked them they pushed their way. Even in judicial matters, despite the common law and the jurisdiction of the Chancery, they were still, as in 1178, the advisers of the crown on knotty points, and the arbiters of private disputes.

Rigorous under the Tudors, the powers of the Council became oppressive under the Stuarts; but besides the ever-increasing parliamentary check, the tendency of the Council to become unwieldy, by the inclusion of a very large number of nobles and officials, led to a habit of transacting great secrets of state in an unauthorised and informal cabal, or group of "cabin counsellors;" a system which was complained of early in the seventeenth century, and accepted unwillingly towards its end. The Cabal of 1667, though in profession a committee of the Privy Council for foreign affairs, was practically an anticipation of the modern Cabinet. Sir William Temple's plan of reform in 1679 proved abortive, and the definite recognition of Cabinet [CABINET] government by William III., made the Privy Council again a constitutional check, that conservatives desired to maintain in power as a safeguard against the new-fangled and illegal ministerial assembly. The Act of Settlement of 1701 contains several clauses which tried to effect the restoration of the Privy Council to its old constitutional position under the Plantagenets and Tudors; but they had little result. The Council remained as it does to this day a body of great dignity and importance, into which all statesmen of position were formally admitted, and whose members were distinguished by the appellation of Right Honourable. But the nature of its composition, and its unwieldy dimensions, prevented its being generally summoned as a whole for the transaction of general business. Councils in the presence of Royalty are still frequently held, but they consist of a very few councillors, and transact formal business. The Privy Council Office exercises the functions of a department of the executive. The President and Vice-President of the Council are important ministers. Recent legislation has given special powers to these officers or the Judicial Committee of the Council. New business, such as the ever-increasing state regulation of education, is put into its hands, and the Vice-President is practically Education Minister. But as a whole and as a deliberative assembly, the Privy Council is practically obsolete.

(3) LOCAL COUNCILS. Besides the above, councils were appointed at various times in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries to govern parts of the kingdom remote from the centre of authority, or imperfectly united to it. They were modelled generally on the Privy Council, both in constitution and functions, and often exercised a jurisdiction of certain oppressiveness and doubtful legality. Such were the *Council of Wales and the Marches*, established by Edward IV. in 1478, at Ludlow, to govern the southern and border districts of Wales, which until then had uncontrolled enjoyment of Palatine privileges. This court, though losing its chief reason for existence when Henry VIII. incorporated Wales with England, and, limited in its jurisdiction in 1640, was not abolished until the 5th of William and Mary. Similar was the *Council of the North*, established at York after the revolt of 1569, famous through Strafford's tenure of the presidency, and abolished with similar councils in the first session of the Long Parliament. The *Council of Calais* was of older foundation, and continued until the loss of

that town under Queen Mary. The *Stannaries Court*, which extended its special function of governing the estate of the Duchy of Cornwall, and superintending the mines there, to general business, and had become one of the most oppressive engines of prerogative, was at the same time deprived of its capacity for aggression. The *Council of the Palatinates of Chester, Lancashire*, &c., were mere continuations of the old feudal courts of these franchises, continued after their incorporation with the crown.

(4) County, District, and Parish Councils. Under the Local Government Act of 1888 most of the administrative work previously entrusted to justices of the peace in England and Wales was devolved upon elective County Councils. The magistrates, however, share with these authorities the control of the police. A supplementary Act was passed in 1894 creating Parish and District Councils.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Gneist, *Englische Verfassungsgeschichte* and *Verwaltungsrecht*; Palgrave, *Essay on the King's Council*; Dicey, *Essay on the Privy Council*; Nicholas, *Proceedings of the Privy Council*. [T. F. T.]

Council of State was the name given to the assemby elected on Feb. 14, 1649, immediately after Charles I.'s execution. It received a combination of military, diplomatic, police, and judicial powers that in the aggregate gave it a greater control over the State and a wider exercise of executive power than the kings had ever had. Appointed by the "Rump," the Council of State was dissolved by Cromwell after his *coup d'état* against the Parliament. A new Council of State was established in 1659, as the successor to the temporary "Committee of Safety" in the exercise of the executive power; but on the second expulsion of the Rump by Lambert it gave way to the more famous "Committee of Safety," which acted as the mouthpiece of the army. The army scheme for the permanent government included a Council of State that never sat. Revived again when Monk restored the Rump, it naturally found no place when the Restoration brought back the old Constitution.

Ranke, *History of England*; Guizot, *Oliver Cromwell*, and *Richard Cromwell*; Whitelocke, *Memorials*.

Councils, Ecclesiastical, are of the following kinds:—

(1) General, or Ecumenical Councils,—*i.e.*, assemblies of the Catholic Church from every nation. To these, bishops from Britain were sent from the time of the Council of Arles in the fourth century to the Councils of Constance and Basel in the fifteenth. Their decrees were accepted in England as a part of the law of the Church, though in later times, as the case of the Council of Basel shows, hardly without some ratification from the royal authority. The greatest interest was at various times shown by the English Church in these councils, and their acts often profoundly affected the course of English history. But their influence is too indirect to necessitate any detailed treatment of it in a work on English history.

(2) National Councils. Of the details of the history of the pre-English British Church we know little; but when Archbishop Theodore completed the systematic organisation of the English Church that the failure of Augustine's mission necessitated, one of his chief cares was to arrange for the assembling every August of a council of the whole Church over which he was metropolitan. The councils of Hertford and Hatfield, in which most of his reforms were arranged, were themselves precedents for the future action of the Church. These councils can only by anticipation be called national, for as yet the English nation was not in existence, but they exerted a most beneficial influence on the development of national unity by habituating subjects of hostile but neighbouring states to meet under the peace of the Church to discuss amicably matters of common interest. Their common place of meeting was some border town such as Clovesho, an unknown spot near London, where Mercia, Wessex, Kent, and Essex met together at a point. They were constituted mostly of bishops, though abbots often, and diocesan clergy once, figure among the members; and, as the line between Church and State was as yet but slackly drawn, kings, ealdormen, and other temporal magnates frequently attended them. But the assertion of the independence of the archbishopric of York by Archbishop Egberht, created a jealousy between that see and Canterbury that made these national councils, which had never met with the regularity prescribed by Theodore, very few in number. They practically ceased with the decline of all conciliar activity in the tenth century; and though revived after the Conquest, when a papal legate could summon a national council with an authority which neither archbishop could gainsay, the vindication of the archiepiscopal powers of the see of York by Thurstan revived the old jealousy that made the union of both provinces in a common assembly ridiculous or abortive. The legatine councils of Otto in 1237, and Ottobon in 1268, are the chief later exceptions to this rule.

(3) Provincial Councils.—The rarity and practical cessation of national councils left room for the full development of the synods of the two provinces of Canterbury and York; even if the comparative unimportance of the northern province did not often invest the councils of the southern with a practically national character. The thirteenth century saw the completion of the systematic representation of the provincial synods, to which the name *Convocation* (q.v.) became gradually applied. They play an important part in both the ecclesiastical and civil history of England.

(4) Diocesan Councils, which were exhaustive assemblies of the clergy of the individual sees, were occasionally summoned, and even—

(5) Archidiaconal Councils are occasionally heard of. But these later varieties were of inferior importance, and never originated business of any weight.

Stubbs and Haddan, *Councils and Ecclesiastical Documents*; Stubbs, *Constitutional History*; Wilkins, *Concilia*; Hody, *History of Convocations*. Hefele's *Conciliengeschichte*, is the best authority for councils generally. [T. F. T.]

Counties, The English. The word county is due to the Norman invaders' identification of the old English "shire" with their own "comitatus," the district of a count. But the shire had had a very different history from the Frankish comitatus. In the first place, the forty counties of England differ considerably in their origins. The southern counties are, no doubt, much the older, and are still identical with the original shires of Wessex. Wiltshire may, for instance, be imagined to have originated with some few hundred Saxon families who towards the end of the fifth century drove back the Britons from this district, attained to an independent individuality as the "folk" of the Wilsætas, and soon coalesced with neighbouring "folks" in Dorset, Hampshire, Berkshire, &c., to form the "shares" or divisions of the kingdom of the West Saxons. It is possible that these shires had often such a twofold unity, as was long traceable in the two divisions of Kent, or the two "folks" of the East Angles. At any rate, the West-Saxon shire is characterised by a primitive independence, having its own "folk-moot," its independent king or semi-royal ruler, the caldorman and its chief town, whose name is cognate to the shire name (Wil-sætas, Wilton). This had been the history also of Sussex, Surrey, Essex, Middlesex, and even Jutish Kent, when these, with others, were amalgamated into the kingdom of Wessex. But the Midland shires, on the contrary, are obviously artificial areas, and do not correspond to the original "folks" of the Mercians, South Angles, Mid-Angles, &c. They were probably marked out when re-conquered from the Danes by Alfred and his successors in the tenth century: a town was taken as a centre, and a line, as it were, drawn round it. Such was the formation of Leicestershire, Nottinghamshire, Northamptonshire. (But sometimes those older divisions are preserved in the bishoprics; the diocese of Worcester, for example, corresponded to the old kingdom of the Hwiccas, and was far more extensive than the modern Worcestershire; so with the ancient kingdoms of Essex, East and West Kent, and Sussex.) The shire system then, which was indigenous to Wessex, spread thence later on. Thus, again, in the north only Yorkshire and Durham appear as shires in Domesday Book; Northumberland, Cumberland, and Westmoreland were not formed into shires till the reigns of William Rufus and Henry I. But the origin of one shire, Rutland, still remains "an unsolved problem in the heart of our history" (Freeman). Furthermore, not till long after the Norman Conquest was it certain that there would not be other shires formed, for the district of Richmond was often called a shire, as also were Hallamshire and Norhamshire, &c. The number of shires which sent representatives to Parliament was during the Middle Ages thirty-seven; for Cheshire and Durham were not incorporated till 1535 and 1673 respectively, and Monmouth added to the English shires also in 1535. The boundaries of shires—as, for example, in Essex and Norfolk—are usually the natural lines of rivers and hills; and in many cases would be explained if we could only trace the ancient forests and marshes, as on the western border of Notts; in other cases again—as in the sinuous northern boundary of Wilts, which seems to cross and recross the Thames with a sort of methodical irregularity—there must have been accidents of local formation, tribal relations, or personal circumstances, which we can hardly now hope to trace. The anomalous fragments belonging to one shire, but outlying in another, had often a great historical interest; such as the hundred of West Meon, in Sussex, but belonging to Hants, a striking survival from the settlement of Jutish Meonwaras soon absorbed by the West Saxons of Hants. These have in many cases been consolidated and rectified. When we come to compare the social characteristics of the several counties, we find that in wealth and population the southern and eastern part of England preponderated during the Anglo-Saxon times, as in political superiority. With the rise of the woollen manufacture after the thirteenth century, the balance of population spread towards the eastern counties, and along the banks of Thames and Severn. At last, the application of steam-power to manufacture opened out the coal and iron fields of the north and west, and reversed the long predominance of the plains over the hill districts. As to the relative prevalence of feudal sentiments, it is to be noticed that the home counties after the Norman Conquest continued to be divided among smaller landlords than the great lordships of the midlands and the north; it is therefore the barons of the north and centre who are conspicuous in the series of revolts under the Norman kings, in the struggles of Henry II.'s and Henry III.'s reigns, in Magna Charta, and in the opposition led by the house of Lancaster against the Plantagenets; and during the Wars of the Roses one striking element in the array of the trading and popular forces against the feudal, the array (that is) of Kent, London, the eastern and "home counties," against the

less advanced northern and western border lands. The same division is to be found during the next century in comparing the Protestant risings (such as Wyatt's) with the reactionary Pilgrimage of Grace supported by the gentry of Lincolnshire, Yorkshire, and the north. To take another instance: the Socmen, whom Domesday shows so numerous in the eastern counties, and whose presence points to the revived spirit of freedom that the Danes brought in, bequeathed their bold traditions to the revolted peasantry of 1381, and to the Puritan yeomen of the Eastern Association two centuries later. But this tenacious individuality of the shire comes out in still minuter distinctions. Kent, Cheshire, Durham, in particular, had each its own legal customs or social traditions; each, in fact, its own inner history. Charles II. in his flight was once detected by his horse's shoes having been made in four different counties. It is only the developed means of communication of our own day, and the operation of broad economic laws, that have begun to obliterate such distinctiveness. [For authorities, *see* COUNTY COURT.]

[A. L. S.]

Counties, THE IRISH. The history of the shiring of Ireland is involved in more obscurity than the history of the shiring of England, though not for the same reason in the two cases. In England the division into counties was the result of a slow process of growth, the history of which is hidden in the remote past. We can trace only some of its stages. But the shiring of Ireland was purely the result of the English conquest. The persons who undertook it were strangers, were aliens in the country, ignorant of its language and most of its local traditions. The Irish shires are therefore distinct, formal, and legal divisions, not local and popular ones. This being the case, it might have been supposed that it would have been an easy matter to trace the stages by which these divisions came into existence. And perhaps this would not have been difficult if there had remained to us more of the State papers relating to Irish affairs. But it is well known that an immense number were destroyed during the different periods of Irish rebellion. Especially was this the case with the papers which relate to the early period of Anglo-Norman rule. There were in reality two conquests of Ireland, one in the reign of Henry II. and his immediate successors, another in that of Henry VIII. and his successors. For during a long intermediate period (almost from the death of Henry III.) the country lapsed into an independence almost as complete as if it had never known English rule. Now, though we cannot distinctly trace all the steps of the shiring of Ireland, we must unquestionably refer it to these two periods of English supremacy, and what was not done during the first we may feel sure was not accomplished in the interval between it and the second. Up to the end of the reign of Henry III. English law was administered regularly to the English subjects throughout the greater part of Ireland. Justices in eyre travelled for gaol delivery in the same way that they did in England. The country, therefore, must have been divided into districts, which in every way corresponded to the English shires. Of course this division of Ireland was a gradual process, beginning with the districts first conquered, and gradually extending. Nor, so far as concerns the present county divisions, does the process seem to have extended beyond Leinster and Munster. The other two provinces were treated as each one county. Thus very early we read of sheriffs of some of the counties of the Pale—a sheriff of Dublin, for example, is mentioned in a document of the year 1201, or not more than thirty years after the first landing of the Earl of Pembroke. This, however, does not prove the existence of the division now known as the county of Dublin, for the city of Dublin was constituted a county before the county was formed. But it proves the existence of so much of county government in this year, as is implied by the existence of a sheriff. As a matter of fact, the "county of Dublin"—evidently here distinct from the city—is mentioned only six years after, in 1207. The county of Kildare is first mentioned in 1249; Wexford (Wesford) in 1251; Kilkenny in 1252, but more clearly in 1279; of Louth (also called Uriel), the sheriff is spoken of in 1290; but it is not distinctly called a county before the year 1301. Wicklow, though it is nowhere called a county in the early documents, cannot have been behind the other places of the Pale. Meath is the only exception to the general rule of a very early shiring of the counties round Dublin. It seems only to have been settled during the thirteenth century, and it is generally referred to in the papers of that age as De Lacy's country. In 1297 we read of the lands held in Meath, "without the boundary of any county," which implies that at this date only a part of it had been shired. Three counties of Leinster, by their English names, imply a late formation —Longford, King's County, and Queen's County. The last two did, of course, receive their names in the reign of Mary and Philip, as the names of their capitals—Philipstown and Maryborough sufficiently indicate. But before this time they were known as Offaly (also called "O'Connor's country") and Leix ("O'Moore's country"), and there is no evidence that their boundaries were in any way changed with their names. Longford seems to have been a later division, as we might expect from the smallness of its size. We find incidental mention of it in a document of the year 1207; but there is no evidence to show that the county came into existence before the sixteenth century. Munster was divided into

counties almost as early as was Leinster, for all its counties except one are distinctly mentioned as such in documents of the thirteenth century, viz., Cork first called a county in 1207,* Limerick in 1245, Waterford in 1251, Tipperary in 1275, and Derry in 1281. Of Clare we do not happen to have any early record; but we need not suppose that it was much behind the others. It is the one county of Munster which has an English-derived name, as it was called after the De Clares, Earls of Gloucester, &c., who settled in the country, and was for a long time known as "De Clare's country." After the return of Ireland to practical independence, and the relapse of the Northern families to the condition of native chieftains, the country may be said to have been practically unshired over its greatest part. Gaol deliveries were restricted to the four counties constituting what was now known as the Pale, viz., Dublin, Kildare, Louth, and Meath. It seems that at the beginning of the reign of Henry VIII. there were only parts of five counties which remained faithful to the English crown—Uriel (Louth), half of Dublin, half of Meath, half of Kildare, and half of Wexford. Of course the counties which had been already constituted continued to bear their old names, but the jurisdiction which made them really shires had ceased. In the document from which these particulars have been taken, Ulster (Wolster) and Connaught are called counties. It is, however, the case that as early as 1260 we hear of the county of Down, and in 1283 of the sheriff of Antrim, and in 1290 of the sheriff of Roscommon. In 1296 Sligo is known in the State papers of Elizabeth as "O'Connor Sligo's country." This is in 1565. Five years later we find an Order in Council concerning the shiring of Ireland, but no details are given as to what new counties were constituted. The completion of the work did not take place till 1607, after the famous rebellion and flight of Tyrone and Tyrconnel, which led to the Plantation of Ulster. In a State paper of this year, we find a proposal, which was shortly carried into effect, for dividing the whole of Ulster into shires. In this paper there are three old counties mentioned—Louth, Down, and Antrim—and it is proposed to create six new, viz., Armagh, Tyrone, Coleraine (Londonderry), Monaghan, Fermanagh, and Donegal. The addition of London to the older name of Derry is the most evident remaining trace of the Plantation of Ulster, recalling as it does the settlement of that part by a colony from London. That settlement was begun in the year 1607. In the list of James I.'s Parliament of 1611 the names of the counties of Ireland stand almost as at present, save that Carlow is still called by its earlier name of Cathelagh, and that Cavan is absent from the number.

Documents relating to Ireland from 1187—1300. *Calendar*, in four vols.; *State Papers*, 1509—1613. Gibson, *Hist. of Cork*; *Hibernian Gazetteer*; *Topographica Hibernica*. There are numerous county histories for Ireland, but little information is to be got from them upon the present subject. [C. F. K.]

Counties Palatine. [PALATINE.]

Counties, THE SCOTTISH. The history of the erection of the counties of Scotland as they now exist is involved in much obscurity. The boundaries in some cases were not definitively fixed till the beginning of the present century. It was part of the anglicising policy of the sons of Malcolm and Margaret to divide their kingdom into sheriffdoms, after the English model; therefore, in Scotland, the sheriff was not the Gerefa of the already existing shire, but an officer appointed by the crown, for whom a district had to be appropriated. The boundaries of these districts were for long vague and undetermined. They must be divided into two distinct classes—those of the Highlands and those of the Lowlands.

(1) *Lowland Counties.* At the time when sheriffs were introduced, Scotland south of the Firths consisted of three distinct provinces—Lothian, Galloway, and Strathclyde. Lothian formed part of the English kingdom of Northumbria, and was held in fief by the Scottish kings. It is represented by the counties of Berwick, Roxburgh, Peebles, and the Lothians—*i.e.*, Edinburgh, Haddington, and Linlithgow. Each of these counties takes its name from the chief town within its bounds. From incidental mention in charters and other documents, we gather that each of them had a sheriff in the time of David I. or his successors, but there is no certain evidence of their first institution. The extent of these counties would seem to have been determined by existing local divisions. Thus Peebles is known as Tweeddale before its erection into a county. Ettrick Forest becomes Selkirk, and Teviotdale and Liddesdale form Roxburgh.

Strathclyde has been divided into the present counties of Ayr, Lanark, Renfrew, and Dumbarton. Ayr was formed of the districts of Kyle, Cunningham, and Carrick, which was separated from Galloway by William the Lion. The first sheriff of Ayr was appointed in 1221, but the three districts were ruled severally by baillies, who in many points acted as sheriffs. Lanark, which was made a sheriffdom in the time of David I., was divided into two parts, the over ward and the nether ward of Clydesdale; Lanark being the seat of justice of the one, and Rutherglen of the other. Renfrew was erected by Robert III. into a barony, with rights of regality, for his son James. It first appears as an independent sheriffdom in 1414. Dumbarton, formerly the Lennox, or Vale of Leven, first appears as a sheriffdom in the reign of William the Lion.

* According to the *Hibernian Gazetteer* it was shired in 1210. It was again shired in the reign of James I. (Gibson, *Hist. of Cork*).

Galloway was divided into the sheriffdoms of Dumfries and Wigton. The sheriffdom of Dumfries nominally included the districts of Nithsdale and Annandale, and that half of Galloway which forms the modern county of Kirkcudbright. A sheriff is mentioned in the time of William the Lion, and it is distinctly recognised as a shire at the time of the death of Alexander III. But as Annandale on the one hand, and Kirkcudbright on the other, were both stewardries, the jurisdiction of the sheriff must have been virtually limited to Nithsdale. Wigton, the remaining part of Galloway, was certainly a sheriffdom by the end of the thirteenth century, but powers of regality were joined to the earldom by David II. In every county there were regalities and baronial jurisdictions, and hereditary constables of royal fortresses, and baillies of the lands belonging to religious houses, whose powers clashed with those of the sheriff. The office almost invariably became hereditary in the family of the most powerful man of the district, and tended more to swell his consequence than to maintain law and order, till the Act of 1747 abolished hereditary jurisdictions.

(2) *Highland Counties.* In the Celtic kingdom north of the Firths, where the clan system prevailed, the country was divided into vaguely defined districts, whose several Mormaors or earls, while professing a nominal allegiance to the King of Scots, each claimed to represent the royal authority within his own territory. The introduction of sheriffs was therefore very gradual, and was not completed till the sixteenth century. In many cases the powers of the sheriff were conferred upon the local chief, who had thus the right of "pit and gallows," or power of life and death, within his own territory. These powers were only done away with by the abolition of hereditable jurisdictions in 1747. The boundaries of the Highland shires were not definitely fixed till the beginning of the present century. Previously, their limits were marked more by custom and tradition than by law, and Arrowsmith's map, published in 1805, is the first in which the counties are defined accurately.

Robertson, *Scotland under her Early Kings*; Skene, *Celtic Scotland*; Chalmers, *Caledonia*, vols. ii. and iii.; Arrowsmith, *Memoir relative to the Map of Scotland.*

[M. M.]

Counties, The Welsh, are mainly administrative divisions of the Mercian rather than the West Saxon type. They are consequently of late origin, and in most cases receive their name from the shire town. In a country so well subdivided off by natural boundaries as Wales, their limits have, however, in certain cases, coincided so far with these, that they represent real dialectic and physical distinctions. Moreover, some counties correspond, if roughly, with ancient tribal or local divisions, and still more to the ancient ecclesiastical divisions of the land. But despite these exceptions, the Welsh shires are in the main artificial "departments" rather than natural "provinces;" they are "shires" rather than "gauen."

The Welsh counties fall into three classes according to the period of their creation—viz., (1) ancient palatine counties, (2) the counties formed by Edward I., (3) the counties formed by Henry VIII., who also finally fixed the limits of the other two classes.

(1) *Ancient Palatine Counties—i.e.*, Pembrokeshire and Glamorganshire. These represent the two greatest "Marches" which the conquering activity of the Norman barons of the twelfth century established all over Western and Southern Wales. In the west, the districts thus conquered were largely included in the indefinite limits of the English border counties, Cheshire, Shropshire, and Herefordshire, whose earls under William I. acquired regalian privileges. Up to the thirteenth century, and even the sixteenth, large districts now in "Wales" were included locally within these counties, although their inclusion was but nominal, so long as the lesser lords retained palatine powers, even after the crown had annexed the earldoms themselves. Another class of lordships marchers were never included within these counties, but although independent, were not of sufficient importance to be regarded as equivalent to counties. The lordships of Denbigh, the "honour" of Montgomery, the lordships of Brecon and Gower, were among others of this description. But Morganwg, the conquest of Fitz-Hamon, and the inheritance of Robert of Gloucester, and the great house of Clare, though never formally constituted an earldom or county palatine, was so virtually. Its lords were always earls, either of Gloucester or, as later, of Pembroke. They had fullest regalian rights and privileges, as much as the Palatine Lords of Cheshire and Durham had, and they were the greatest family of the realm. So early as 1146 we read of the "comitatus" (shire-moot) of Cardiff, and in 1148 Earl William speaks of his "vice comes" (sheriff). Pembroke was more definitely created an earldom in 1138, and became organised on the model of an English county. The boundaries of both were narrower than those of the modern shires; Gower, for example, was a separate lordship, although much of Gwent was within the lordship of Morganwg. Similarly Dewisland and Kemes were outside the Pembroke Palatinate. The modern boundaries were assigned by Henry VIII. adding to the old nuclei the adjoining marcherships.

(2) *Edward I.'s Counties*—viz., Anglesey, Caernarvonshire, Merionethshire, Cardiganshire, Caermarthenshire. After the conquest of Llewelyn, Edward I. divided the district which acknowledged his sway, and to which

the title of the "Principality" is rightly confined, into districts called shires, but which rather bear to the regular shire the relation of a United States Territory to a State, than fully represent the self-governing district forming an integral factor of the body politic of England. In the districts more immediately subject to Llewelyn, the shires of Anglesey, Caernarvon, and Merioneth were erected. They so far regarded old lines that they consisted of an aggregation of cantreds and commots. A sheriff in each shire, with coroners and bailiffs in each commot, were appointed. A county court was to be held once a month, and the sheriff's tourn twice a year, at which all the inhabitants were to be present. Sheriffs, &c., were also appointed for more southern regions, where the power of the Welsh princes at least nominally extended, one to hold his court at Cardigan and Lampeter, another at Caermarthen, though the powers of the marchers must have limited the area of their jurisdiction to narrower bounds than modern Cardiganshire and Caermarthenshire. A sixth new county was formed in Flint, which consisted of the western and more exposed portion of the Chester Palatinate, but which remained in a sort of half dependence on Cheshire. The rest of Wales remained in the hands of the marchers.

(3) *Henry VIII.'s Counties*—viz., Denbighshire, Montgomeryshire, Radnorshire, Breconshire, and Monmouthshire. Henry VIII.'s incorporation of Wales with England involved the division of the whole country into shire-ground. Hence, by the 27 Hen. VIII., the local self-government, of which the shire was still the base, was introduced into the whole land. The lordships marchers lost their palatine rights, and were either (*e.g.*, Gower, as above) incorporated into existing counties, or aggregated into new ones. Besides the new shires of Western Wales, the boundaries of Cheshire, and still more of Shropshire and Herefordshire, were readjusted; and the old Welsh counties of Edward I., and the still older palatinates, were assimilated to English shires; and the power of returning to Parliament one member for each county, and one for the amalgamated boroughs (except in mountainous Merioneth) was conferred. Monmouthshire had two members given it, and was treated as a part of England, so far as the words England and Wales had now an antagonistic meaning. Its enclosure under Charles II. in an English circuit completed its severance from Wales.

The chief Statutes creating Welsh counties are 12 Ed. I., *Statutum Walliæ* or the *Statute of Rhuddlan*, and 27 Hen. VIII., c. 24, 26. See also 26 Hen. VIII., c. 4, and 27 Hen. VIII., c. 5, 7, 24, 26. A summary will be found in *Reeve's History of English Law*, ii. 93—99, and iv. 195—205. For Pembrokeshire and Glamorganshire the *Description of Pembrokeshire* written in 1603 (MS. Harl., No. 6250), c. 24, fol. 240, *sq.*, is valuable. For the Marches, see Pennant's *Tour in Wales*, Appendix ii. For Glamorganshire, Mr. Clark's papers on *The Land of Morgan*, in the *Archæological Journal*, are useful. The Welsh county histories are not, as a rule, good. Jones's *Breconshire* is perhaps the best.

[T. F. T.]

County Court. The "county court," or "shire-moot," was for five or six centuries the most vital of our national institutions. As its being often held in the open air perhaps indicates, it was anciently a "folk-moot," that is, included all landowners in the shire; and in the submission of laws to the shire-moot for formal acceptance, a piece of ceremonial which is only recently obsolete, we may discern the ancient independence of the several "folks." While in this aspect the shire-moot has the ealdorman and bishop at its head, "to declare the law, secular and spiritual," its newer aspect of dependence on a central power is embodied in the shire-reeve, who convenes it, and connects it with the king. This gradually tends to supplant the ealdorman and bishop in it, and after the Norman Conquest it passes wholly into his hands. Its business was to hear appeals from the hundred courts, to execute the instructions of royal writs, and to attest wills and transfers of lands. Meantime, however, a tendency to what may be called delegation, which had already affected the hundred and township courts, had now also much modified the old assembly. And thus in historic times an ordinary shire-moot is not the full folk-moot, but contains also the reeve and four "best-men" from each township, and perhaps the twelve thegns from each hundred or borough; and it appears that this quasi-representative court is called monthly, instead of twice a year, like the old folk-moot. It is possible this more frequent summoning was due to Rufus's minister, Flambard, who "drove all the moots;" and Henry I. in his charter promised to amend it. At the same time, the older and fuller form of the court was still called twice a year, chiefly for the purposes of the crown, such as taking the oath of the peace, and meeting the justices itinerant. Indeed, the shire-moot after the Conquest gained in connection with the central power what it lost in independent action. Thus, its civil justice—by the use of writs calling up cases, and by the attraction of the Common Pleas Court—was drifting up to Westminster; its criminal pleas belonged to the king, and were executed by his itinerant justices. But both for presentment of criminals and for decision of civil cases (at least, as to land) the crown always used "recognitors," that is, called in the shire to co-operate; and its co-operation was demanded in other ways, as for view of armour and election of coroners, for the negotiation, assessment, and collection of carucage, for exacting oaths of allegiance, and above all, after 1254, for the election of

knights and burgesses to Parliament. At this fuller shire-moot the attendance of all, from archbishops to villeins, was required. The barons in vain begged for exemption; in 1258, at Oxford, among the other grievances set forth, the barons complained that the attendance required of them was increasing; till, by the *Statute of Merton*, they won their point—that their attendance might be by attorney; while the *Statute of Marlborough*, 1267, exempted all above the degree of knights, unless specially summoned. Already individual exemptions had been so largely granted that by 1258 there was a scarcity of knights for the "inquests" of the court; and in 1293 a qualification of 40s. freehold was required for service as a juror. So that on all sides the old folk-moot had been attacked, and by the thirteenth century was attenuated to an occasional formality; but not before it had given birth to the fruitful idea of local representation, according to which a small body of knights could act for the whole shire, and stand between the crown and the county in the business of government. Thus, in 1194 four knights act for the whole shire to elect the grand jury of each hundred; under Henry III. four knights of each shire come to Westminster to discuss the interpretation of articles in Magna Charta; and, chief of all, knights (two, three, or four in number) from time to time assess, or assess and collect, the carucages. As soon as these knights cease to be nominated by the crown or sheriff—and the precedent for their election by the whole county court is finally given in 1254—the stages are complete by which the shire-moots could be dispensed with, and yet transmit all their authority to a Parliament. As "Parliament is the concentration of the shire-moots," it follows that in creating a Parliament, in making the election to be by all the freeholders, not merely the chief tenants, and, above all, in closely uniting the burgesses with the knights, the shire has done its work. The rapid growth of the justices of the peace stripped it of the rest of its functions, except that of electing and instructing the representatives sent to Parliament, perhaps after discussion of the grounds of its summons as stated in the king's writ, and (till 1334) that of assessing and collecting from the townships the tax granted in Parliament. It was particularly during the Tudor period that this non-elective body of landowners completed the process by which they had stripped the old shire-court of its powers—judicial, police, military, and fiscal. The statutes of the early fifteenth century, which attempted to further regulate the relation between Parliament and the shires in the interests of the gentry, were aimed to check the misdoing of the sheriffs (1406), and to insure the election of knights or squires and the exclusion of maintainers; and in 1430 it was declared that the right of voting belonged only to freeholders of 40s. and upwards. Thus it had now come about that the villeins, who had once, as the free ceorls, made up the folk-moot itself, and embodied in their decisions of "folk-right" the principle that the judges were no other than the suitors; the villeins, who even in their later period of subjection to the lord had still represented their township before the royal justices, were now, at the very epoch when they had attained to a political consciousness and practical emancipation, irrevocably excluded from a share in the political life of their shire. One side of the old principle of local government—viz., co-operation with the crown by unpaid local work—remained; but the other side of it—the principle that this work is shared by all the full freemen of the shire—was long lost to view; and the quarter and petty sessions, aided by a few permanent officials, and relieved by the central power's larger assumption to itself of local duties (as in the regulation of prisons), supplanted the freeholders' county court, as this supplanted the shire-moot of representatives from the townships, and this in its turn the primitive folk-moot. The county court for general purposes now only exists for the election of coroners, and (in theory) for the proclamation of outlawry and publication of Acts of Parliament. But the shire retains its own officers, lord-lieutenant, and sheriffs, justices, coroners, and chief constable; through the justices it managed its own police, highroads, and bridges, and imposed rates until the Local Government Act of 1888 (51 and 52 Vict., cap. 41) established county councils. These bodies, composed of members triennially elected by the Parliamentary electors and women householders of the county, and of co-opted aldermen (q.v.), have taken over the administrative duties of the magistrates, except that the latter retain a share in the control of the police, and are a court of appeal in licensing questions. The administrative counties, however, differ slightly from the historic areas. The county courts, under paid judges, set up in 1846 for better despatch of the lesser judicial business, vary in number according to the needs of each county. Their institution has been a great success. But in size and functions they are more like hundred courts revived and centralised; and historically their name is a misnomer.

Bede, *Ecclesiastical History*; Ellis, *Introduction to Domesday*; Palgrave, *English Commonwealth*; Freeman, *English Towns and Districts*; Gneist, *Verwaltungsrecht, Das Self-Government*; Guest, Papers in *Archæological Journal*; Green, *Making of England*; Commissioners' *Introduction to Census Report of 1851*.

Courtenay, Edward. [Devon.]

Courtenay, William (*b. circa* 1327, *d.* 1396), Archbishop of Canterbury, was the son of Hugh Courtenay, Earl of Devon. After holding many valuable preferments he became

Bishop of London in 1375. He strongly opposed John of Gaunt, and Wiclif, and it was before Courtenay that the latter was tried in 1376. In 1381 he was appointed Archbishop of Canterbury, and Chancellor, but the latter office he held only for a few months. He again attacked Wiclif, obtained a condemnation of his views by Convocation, and obliged the University of Oxford to withdraw their support from him. Courtenay, though opposing Wiclif's views, was strongly anti-Papal, and readily assented to the passing of the Statute of Præmunire. He also resisted the attempt of Parliament to tax the clergy without their consent, and the king was compelled to allow the money to be voted by Convocation. The election of Courtenay marks an epoch in the history of the Church; he was the first of the aristocratic primates, and after his time the see of Canterbury and many other bishoprics were conferred upon members of noble houses, instead of being given as a reward to ministers or judges, or as a recognition of learning to some great scholar.

Walsingham, *Hist. Anglic.*; Wallon, *Richard II.*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, chap. xvi.

Court-baron, Court-leet. [Manor.]

Courts of Law. [*See* The Index.]

Coutances, Walter de, was one of Henry II.'s ministers, and became successively Bishop of Lincoln and Archbishop of Rouen. He accompanied Richard I. on his crusade, and in 1191 was sent to England by the king, for the purpose of replacing Longchamp. The archbishop held the justiciarship from 1191 to 1194, and was active in raising the king's ransom. In 1196, however, he quarrelled with Richard, and the king refusing to give way, he laid Normandy under an interdict, until a compromise was effected. He supported the claims of John, and died during that king's reign.

Covenant, The. It was the old Scottish custom for those who were united in any great cause to bind themselves together by a bond to stand by one another to the death in its support. Such a bond was the Covenant which plays so large a part in the history of the Reformation in Scotland. It was originally a private bond, by which the barons who upheld the first preachers of reform bound themselves together for mutual support and the destruction of Popery in 1557. In 1581, when there was a general dread of the revival of Popery, a similar bond, entering more into detail concerning the superstitions and religious errors that were to be combated, was drawn up by the Protestant ministers. The king, James I., was the first to sign it, and his example was followed by the courtiers and then by the people. This is generally known as the *First Covenant*. In 1638, when Charles I. tried to force the English liturgy on the Church of Scotland, the popular indignation found a vent in a revival of this covenant, with a clause added to it directed against the bishops. The enthusiasm about it was universal. It was signed through the length and breadth of the land, by high and low alike, and from this time the "Covenant" became the watch-word and war-cry of the Presbyterian party. In 1643, when the English Parliament sought Scotch aid, the Scotch demanded that the mutual engagements of the two nations should be confirmed by a pact to which both nations should be sworn. Accordingly the *Solemn League and Covenant* was drawn up by Henderson, amended by Vane, adopted by the Westminster Assembly (q.v.), passed by the Parliament, and ordered to be subscribed and sworn to by the nation. But the Assembly of Divines at Westminster, in 1643, though they approved the Covenant, disappointed the Scots, who hoped to see it imposed on the whole English nation. When Charles II., on the invitation of the Estates, came to Scotland to claim the kingdom in 1650, he was compelled to sign the Covenant before he was allowed to land, and the signature was repeated at his coronation. Notwithstanding this, after the Restoration, by the king's order, the Covenant was burned by the common hangman in London, and an Act abjuring and condemning it as an unlawful oath was passed by the Privy Council of Scotland in 1662. The extreme Presbyterian party were greatly disappointed that the Act of 1690, approving the Confession, did not enjoin the renewing of the Covenant. The Covenant was not merely a declaration of belief, but a solemn engagement binding its adherents to force their belief upon others.

The name of *Covenanters* was first taken by the popular party after the renewal of the Covenant in 1638, and borne by them throughout the Civil War. But it is more generally associated with the insurgents of the reign of Charles II. who took arms in defence of the Presbyterian form of church government. As the Covenant had by that time been denounced as a seditious oath, those who persisted in maintaining it were naturally looked upon as rebels against the government. They were, however, treated with unwarrantable severity. When, in 1662, the Act was passed for the re-establishment of episcopacy, the Presbyterian ministers who refused to acknowledge the bishops were ejected from their parishes. Round these "outed ministers," as they were called, the Covenanters rallied, and gathered in crowds on the hillsides or any lonely place, to attend their ministrations. These meetings, called "conventicles," were denounced as seditious, and to frequent them or to hold any "intercommuning" with any persons who frequented them, was forbidden on pain of death. These severe measures provoked the Covenanters to

take up arms in defence of their religious opinions, and led to a rebellion so widespread, that it almost amounted to a civil war. The first serious action between the king's troops and the Covenanters was in the hill-country on the borders of the counties of Ayr and Lanark. Here, at Drumclog, a farm near Loudon Hill, a party of armed Covenanters who were gathered at a conventicle were attacked by a body of dragoons under John Graham, of Claverhouse, and gained a victory over their assailants (1679). After this success, the numbers of the insurgents increased so rapidly that the government became alarmed, and an army, 15,000 strong, was sent against them under the command of the Duke of Monmouth. He defeated them on the banks of the Clyde, at Bothwell Bridge, where 1,200 were made prisoners, June 22, 1679. In consequence of a treasonable protest called the *Sanquhar Declaration*, put forth by the Covenanters, all persons who wished to free themselves of suspicion of complicity with them were required to take what was called the *Abjuration Oath;* and the soldiers who were sent to scour the country in search of rebels, were empowered to kill any one who refused to take the oath. The sufferings of the Covenanters were extreme. Numbers of them were put to death with great cruelty, but suffering only strengthened their resolute spirit, and it was not until after the accession of William, when the "outed ministers" were restored to their pulpits, and adherence to the Covenant ceased to be a crime, that the Covenanters abandoned their attitude of defiance. But some extreme Covenanters refused to acknowledge a king whose acceptance of episcopacy in England was, they thought, treason against the divine right of presbyters. They formed the earliest dissenting Presbyterian sects in Scotland. [CAMERONIANS.]

Woodrow, *Analecta* and *History of the Sufferings*; Grub, *Ecclesiastical History of Scotland*; Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*. [M. M.]

Coventry seems to have owed its importance to the magnificent Benedictine abbey founded by Leofric and his wife, Godiva, in 1044. The town became a prosperous trading centre. According to Leland, its walls were built in the reign of Edward II. In 1451 it was created a separate county. The beautiful abbey church was almost destroyed by Henry VIII.; but several fine specimens of mediæval ecclesiastical architecture remain. The "Laymen's Parliament of Henry IV." met at Coventry in 1404. In the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries Coventry was an important centre of the cloth and woollen trade. Its citizens were strongly Parliamentarian in the Great Rebellion; and to punish them their walls were levelled after the Restoration. The town returned two members to Parliament from the reign of Edward I. until 1885; it now returns one.

Coventry, WALTER OF, was a writer of whom little is known. He probably wrote between the year 1293 and the end of Edward I.'s reign, and may have been a monk, probably of some house in the diocese of York. He is the author or compiler of a *Memoriale*, or analysis of history extending from the arrival of Brutus to the year 1225. The earlier portions are merely transcripts from Geoffrey of Monmouth, Henry of Huntingdon, Roger of Hoveden, &c., but for the first quarter of the thirteenth century Walter is a valuable authority.

The *Memoriale* of Walter of Coventry was first discovered by Leland in the sixteenth century. It has been edited, with most valuable Introductions, by Dr. Stubbs (Rolls Series, 1872).

Coventry, THOMAS, 1ST LORD (*b.* 1578, *d.* 1640), son of Sir T. Coventry, Judge of the Common Pleas, in 1616 was chosen Recorder of London, and in 1617 was made Solicitor-General, being advanced four years later to the Attorney-Generalship. In 1625, chiefly through Buckingham's interest, he was made Lord Keeper, and in 1628 was created Lord Coventry. He has been accused of advising some of Charles's most arbitrary acts, as the refusal of the summons to Lord Bristol, and the imprisonment of the Earl of Arundel; but Mr. Foss maintains that he was little more than "the messenger of the king and the organ of the House." In 1635 and 1636 he enjoined the judges in their charge to the grand juries to urge the people to pay the ship-money with cheerfulness, but he took no part in the trial of Hampden for refusing to pay his share. One of his last acts was to advise the king to summon Parliament, but he died before the summoning of the Short Parliament.

Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion*.

Coventry, SIR WILLIAM (*b.* 1626, *d.* 1686), was the youngest son of Lord Keeper Coventry. In 1662 he was appointed Commissioner of the Admiralty, in 1665 was knighted and made a Privy Councillor, and 1667 a Commissioner of the Treasury. Having quarrelled with the Duke of Buckingham he challenged him to fight a duel, for which he was banished from the court, and retired into private life. "He was," says Burnet, "the best speaker in the House of Commons, and a man of great notions and eminent virtues." He was the author of several political tracts, the most interesting of which is *The Character of a Trimmer*, published in 1639.

Coventry, SIR JOHN, was the grandson of Lord Coventry and nephew of Sir William Coventry. He was a member of Parliament in 1670, when, having somewhat freely expressed his opinion about the royal mistresses, he incurred the displeasure of the court, was set upon by a band of ruffians sent by Monmouth, half-murdered, and his nose slit with a penknife. This outrage led to the

passing of an Act against unlawful maiming and wounding, which was known as the *Coventry Act* (1670).

Coverdale, Miles (*b.* 1488 *d.* 1568), was one of the earliest English Reformers. In 1532 he is said to have assisted Tyndale in his translation of the Bible, and three years later issued a version of his own. He was on close terms of friendship with Cromwell, and in 1535 was sent by that minister to Paris to bring out the translation of the New Testament known as the Lord Cromwell's Bible. On Cromwell's fall Coverdale went to Tübingen, and travelled in Denmark and other Continental countries. On Edward VI.'s accession he was appointed chaplain to the king. In 1551 he was made Bishop of Exeter, but was removed from his see and imprisoned by order of Queen Mary. He was subsequently released, and retired to Holland and afterwards to Geneva. He returned to England after the accession of Elizabeth, and assisted at the consecration of Archbishop Parker, though he did not obtain his see again, owing to his Calvinistic views.

Two vols. of selections from Coverdale's numerous works were published by the Parker Soc., 1844—46.

Cowell, John (*b.* 1554, *d.* 1611), was a Cambridge civilian who became Master of Trinity Hall and Reader in Civil Law. In 1607 he published a work called *The Interpreter*, which was an explanation of legal terms and theories. The book gave great offence to the common-lawyers. At the instigation probably of Coke, a great enemy of Cowell, an inquiry into the character of the book was ordered by the House of Commons in 1610, and the king was advised to suppress it, because of the unconstitutional doctrines it contained on the subject of the royal prerogative and the rights of the people.

Cowper, William, 1st Earl (*b.* 1664, *d.* 1723), was born at Hertford. After studying at the Temple, he was, in 1688, called to the bar, and from this time rose rapidly in his profession. On the landing of the Prince of Orange, he raised a troop of horse in his support. His abilities as a Chancery barrister soon attracted Somers's notice, and in 1695 he was returned to Parliament for Hertford. In 1696 he supported the bill for the attainder of Sir John Fenwick. In 1702 William Cowper lost his seat for Hertford, owing to the unpopularity caused in the borough by the trial of his brother Spencer for murder. In 1705, on the dismissal of Sir Nathan Wright, he became Lord Keeper and Commissioner of the Scotch Union. In 1707 he was raised to the Upper House, and became the first Lord Chancellor of Great Britain; but the sentence pronounced by him in this capacity on Sacheverell was influenced by party spirit, and unworthy of his reputation. In opposition to the rest of the ministry, he was in favour of making peace with France during the last years of the Succession War; and he vigorously opposed Marlborough's request to be made Captain-General for life. [Marlborough.] On the fall of the Whigs, Cowper resigned, in spite of the solicitations of Harley, who wished for a composite ministry. On the accession of George I., he received the Great Seal, and was favoured with the king's entire confidence. His sentences on the rebels of 1715 have been censured as too severe. He was one of the chief advocates of the Septennial Act (q.v.). In 1718 he resigned office, probably because George accused him of espousing the Prince of Wales's side in his quarrel with the court. He promptly became leader of the Opposition, and withstood almost alone the Peerage Bill, and the bill of pains and penalties against Atterbury. In his later years he was accused, probably without reason, of tampering with the Jacobites.

Campbell, *Lives of the Lord Chancellors*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*

Cox, Richard (*b.* 1500, *d.* 1581), Bishop of Ely, made Dean of Christ Church and of Westminster by Henry VIII., was one of the tutors of Edward VI., the others being Sir John Cheke and Sir Anthony Cooke. During the reign of Mary he was compelled with the Protestants to take refuge at Frankfort; but returned to England on the accession of Elizabeth, by whom he was made Bishop of Ely. It was a remonstrance from Bishop Coxe against the injustice done him by the bestowal of his land on Sir Christopher Hatton that drew forth the celebrated letter from Queen Elizabeth: "Proud prelate, you know what you were before I made you what you are. If you do not immediately comply with my request, by God I will unfrock you." Coxe is described as "an honest but narrow-spirited and peevish man."

Strype, *Annals*; Burnet, *Hist. of the Reformation.*

Coxe, William (*b.* 1747, *d.* 1828), Archdeacon, was educated at Eton and King's College, Cambridge, of which he became a Fellow. He entered the Church, became incumbent of Kingston, Canon of Salisbury, and Archdeacon of Wiltshire, 1805. Coxe travelled a good deal on the Continent, and was a careful student of English and foreign history, especially that of the eighteenth century. His numerous works, though written in a rather uninteresting style, contain a good deal of information, and are of considerable value. The most important are *Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole*, *Memoirs of Marlborough*, *Memoirs of the Administration of Mr. Pelham*, and the *History of the House of Austria*.

Coyne and Livery was an ancient right or custom in Ireland which enabled the lord or chief to quarter his soldiery on his tenants. The Irish name for it was

"bonaght." Its adoption by the Norman settlers was so general that even the loyal Butlers enforced it. Both branches of the house of Fitzgerald adopted it in Edward III.'s time. This custom was the subject of constant complaints by the Irish Parliament. It was forbidden by the Statute of Kilkenny, 1367, and made treason in 1409, and finally abolished in 1603. Spenser complains of its abolition as a wrong done to the Irish landlord.

Spenser, *View of the State of Ireland.*

Craggs, JAMES (*d.* 1721), was Postmaster-General during the earlier years of George I.'s reign. He was accused with his son of frauds in connection with the South Sea Company, and while the accusation was still pending he took poison and killed himself.

Craggs, JAMES (*d.* 1721), son of the preceding, was a Whig politician. During the reign of Anne he was employed in minor diplomatic business. He was consulted by Marlborough on the question of the duke's obtaining the appointment of Captain-General for life. In 1714, as the queen lay dying, he was despatched to Hanover, with instructions to bid Lord Stafford to request the States General of Holland to guarantee the Protestant succession. In 1717 he became Secretary at War, and, on the retirement of Addison, Secretary of State (1718). He was accused of fraud in connection with the South Sea Company, but died of small-pox on the day that the report was presented to the Commons. "Whatever," says Lord Mahon, "may have been his conduct in the South Sea affairs (for his death arrested the inquiry), he undoubtedly combined great talents for business with a love of luxury and literature; and his name, were it even to drop from the page of history, would live enshrined for ever in the verse of Pope."

Boyer, *Political Hist.*; Stanhope, *Reign of Queen Anne.*

Craig, GENERAL SIR JAMES (*b.* 1748, *d.* Jan. 1812), after greatly distinguishing himself in the American War of Independence, especially at the battles of Lexington and Bunker Hill (q.v.), was, in 1793, appointed Governor of Jersey. In 1795 he went out to the Cape, and held the post of governor for two years, when he was sent to India, where his military experience was much needed. In 1808 Sir James Craig became Governor-in-chief of British North America, and in that capacity rendered himself extremely unpopular. His measures were arbitrary in the extreme, and it is to his treatment of the Assembly, and his refusal to grant any concessions or to consider the question of any redress of grievances, that the discontent which was so prevalent in Canada at this time was due. His unpopularity induced the Americans in 1812 to attempt an invasion of Canada, under the impression that they would be joined by a large majority of the people.

Craig, JOHN (*d.* 1600), was the friend and coadjutor of John Knox, on whose death he became for a time the acknowledged leader of the Kirk party, for whom he drew up the National Covenant in 1580. In 1584, however, on the Scotch Estates taking action to restrain the power of the clergy, Craig went over to the opposite side.

Craig, THOMAS (*b.* 1538, *d.* 1608), a celebrated Scottish judge, and an author of no little repute, was a great favourite of James VI. He was the writer of a famous treatise on feudal law, *Jus Feudale*, and a tract on the succession to the throne of England.

Craigmillar Castle, three miles from Edinburgh, was the scene of the murder of the Earl of Mar, brother of James III. It was burnt by Hertford, 1544, but afterwards rebuilt for Queen Mary, who spent a good deal of time there. It was at Craigmillar that Bothwell, Murray, Morton, and Maitland of Lethington, formed their agreement to kill Darnley (1566).

Crampton Question, THE (1856). The Crimean War brought England into some difficulties with foreign powers on account of the attempt to enlist a foreign legion. Mr. Crampton, the English minister at Washington, carried out the instructions of the government in the matter so thoroughly that the United States government dismissed him from Washington, and a coolness arose between the two countries, which was with difficulty healed.

Cranbrook, GATHORNE HARDY, 1ST EARL (*b.* 1814, *d.* 1906), was elected member for Leominster in 1856, and defeated Mr. Gladstone for Oxford University in 1865. He was Under-Secretary of State for Home Affairs in 1858, Home Secretary in 1867, Secretary of State for War in 1874, Secretary of State for India in 1878, and in 1885 and 1886-92 Lord President of the Council.

Cranmer, THOMAS (*b.* 1489, *d.* 1556), Archbishop of Canterbury, the son of a Nottinghamshire gentleman, at the age of fourteen entered Jesus College, Cambridge, where he was, in 1510, elected to a fellowship. In 1523 he was ordained, and continued at the university, lecturing and teaching. Forced to leave the town to avoid infection in the sweating sickness of 1528, he was accidentally thrown into the company of Foxe and Gardiner, the commissioners engaged on the question of the royal divorce, and in course of conversation mentioned his own conclusion, that the marriage was not merely voidable, but void, being contrary to the law of God, and that its dissolution could therefore be pronounced by the English ecclesiastical courts without reference to Rome. The commissioners were greatly struck, and reported

the matter to Henry, who lost no time in sending for Cranmer and ordering him to write a treatise in support of his thesis. Soon after we find him employed as legal adviser to two important embassies to the Pope and the Emperor respectively, which, though unsuccessful, were not fruitless. The Papal mission discovered a singular consensus among Italian jurists in Henry's favour, while in Germany Cranmer's visits to the theologians proved more favourable to his own than to his master's suit, and before his return he was secretly married to Margaret Anne, daughter of Osiander, a prominent Reformer, a marriage which, being uncanonical, though not illegal, put him entirely at the king's mercy when he became Primate. Henry's plans had meanwhile been maturing; further delay would have ruined the legitimacy of Anne Boleyn's offspring, and on the death of Warham the archbishopric of Canterbury was offered to Cranmer. No sooner was the ceremony of installation over than the new archbishop wrote the king a collusive letter, demanding, in the name of the nation, that the scandal should be terminated; and, the case being fairly brought before his court, gave judgment that the marriage was void *ab initio*, Feb. 23, 1533. He had now performed his task, and withdrew into a literary retirement, which, broken only in 1536 and 1540 to pronounce two more iniquitous sentences of divorce, lasted till the fall of Cromwell, a minister as little inclined to endure a rival as Cranmer to become one. From that date his greater prominence is attested by two plots formed by the reactionary party for his destruction, from which he was preserved only by the unswerving confidence of the king. Yet at no time can he be called a politician: his influence was wholly personal, and confined to Henry, on whose death he again sank into the background. But in this retirement Cranmer was laying the foundations of the new order of things. On his elevation to the primacy he had but two points of sympathy with the continental Protestants—repudiation of the Papal supremacy and the translation of the Scriptures. But the patristic studies with which he maintained the attack on the Papacy gradually unveiled to him the features of a more apostolic and spiritual Christianity, whose truths he accepted, one by one, as conviction was forced upon his mind, till, in 1550, he published his book against Transubstantiation, wherein is maintained the Anglican doctrine of the Real, as against the Corporeal, Presence. Cranmer's reconstitution of the Church services remains his real title to greatness. His was a formative, not a creative, intellect, and, while his revision of the old Uses may be ranked for beauty and dignity with the Authorised Version of the Bible, his attempt to replace the Roman Canon Law is a monument of mistaken energy. Throughout all these reforms, his appeal is not from superstition to reason, but from the Church corrupt to the Church pure; nothing illustrates his catholic position better than his own words before the commission at Oxford:—"If it can be proved by any doctor above 1,000 years after Christ, that Christ's body is there in the eucharist really present, I will give all over."

During Edward's reign Cranmer was concerned in two political acts of great importance. At the coronation the archbishop, on his own responsibility, altered the position of the coronation oath, putting it after the expression of the popular assent. This innovation, by destroying the conditional character of that assent, amounted to the assertion of absolute hereditary right. The second act was the signing of Edward's illegal device for the succession, which was, however, performed with the greatest reluctance, and on the assurance of the judges. It sufficed to secure his condemnation for high treason on Mary's accession. The new government seems at first to have had no desire to shed blood; but Cranmer, the pilot of the Reformation, could not seize the numerous opportunities of escape which were offered; he remained, either overrating his own strength or underrating the impending danger. With his two bosom friends, Latimer and Ridley, he was taken to Oxford (Mar., 1554) to hold an academical disputation. After a parody of controversy, all three were summoned before a synod of presbyters and condemned as heretics. His friends suffered before him: the archbishop's case was delayed by the necessity of application to the Papal court, and by the desire of Cardinal Pole to ruin the cause of heresy by the recantation of the heresiarch. In the latter aim he succeeded. Cranmer was at first induced to accept the Papal supremacy, not as a doctrine, but as a fact, and his defence once broken down, and honour lost, he was led on to sign a detailed abjuration of all his anti-Papal convictions. Fortunately for the Reformation, the queen had resolved on his destruction, and to the public eye Cranmer died a martyr (Mar. 21, 1556). How far repentance preceded the knowledge of his fate must be left to conjecture. At the worst, he should be judged by his life, not by one failure under an overwhelming temptation. He was a man of deep piety and honesty of purpose, and in private life his sweet temper exercised a peculiar fascination; but a certain moral weakness taints his whole career, and leaves his character one of the most difficult to estimate in history.

State Papers (Henry VIII., Ed. VI., Mary); Cranmer's *Miscellaneous Writings and Letters* (Parker Soc., 1846); Pole, *Epistolæ*; Foxe, *Book of Martyrs*; Strype, *Life of Cranmer*; Burnet, *History of the Reformation*; Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops of Canterbury*; Blunt, *History of the Eng. Church*. [H. R. R.]

Crayford is a village in Kent, about thirteen miles from London, and is usually

identified with Creccanford, where, in 457 (?), the Britons were entirely routed by Hengist and Æsc.

Anglo-Saxon Chron.

Crecy, The Battle of (Aug. 26, 1346), was fought between the English, under King Edward III., and the French, commanded by Philip VI. The English army had landed on the coast of Normandy, near La Hogue, on July 12, and Edward had then intended to cross the Seine, march through Picardy into Artois, and there join his Flemish auxiliaries, who had already crossed the French frontier. But when he arrived at Rouen, he found the bridges over the Seine broken, and the French army on the opposite shore. Edward marched along the river almost to the suburbs of Paris, and burnt St. Germain and Neuilly, and at length (Aug. 17) by a stratagem succeeded in crossing the river near Pontoise, advanced towards the Somme, and crossed at Blanchetaque, near Abbeville. Not far from this town, at Crecy, he halted, and allowed the French to come up (Aug. 26). The army was drawn up the following morning in three divisions. The first, under the command of the Black Prince (or rather of the Earls of Warwick and Oxford), consisted of 800 men-at-arms, 1,000 Welshmen, and 2,000 archers. The second division, placed behind them, and slightly on their flank, consisted of 1,200 archers and a body of men-at-arms. The third division was held in reserve under the king, on some slightly rising ground in the rear, and consisted of 2,000 archers and 700 men-at-arms. According to Froissart, the whole army did not amount to more than 8,000 men; but this estimate is probably much too low. The French forces are computed at from 60,000 to 120,000. The French army marched from Abbeville at sunrise, and arrived at Crecy in considerable confusion. The battle was begun by the advance of a large body (stated at 15,000) of Genoese, armed with crossbows. But the Genoese fell into disorder before the shooting of the English archers. The French cavalry, under the Duke of Alençon, then fell upon the English first and second divisions. After a desperate conflict, during which the king was more than once requested to bring up the reserves, the French cavalry retired in the greatest disorder, and Philip himself fled from the field. The French fought on in a desultory manner till night, and not till the following morning was it discovered that the French army was completely scattered and routed. Many thousands of Frenchmen were found dispersed about the field, and were slain. Their whole loss consisted of 1,200 knights and a number of inferior rank estimated at 30,000, the most distinguished being John, King of Bohemia.

The most interesting and detailed account of the battle is in Froissart, c. 126. [S. J. L.]

Creones, The, were an ancient Celtic tribe, who dwelt on the west coast of Ross.

Cressingham, Hugh (*d.* 1297), was appointed Treasurer of Scotland by Edward I. in 1296, at the same time that the Earl of Surrey was appointed Guardian. He carried out to the best of his ability the command of the English king that Scotland was to be reduced to a state of order, and as a consequence was hated by the Scotch. He was slain at the battle of Stirling, which was lost by the English in a great measure owing to his precipitancy.

Crevant, The Battle of (July 31, 1423), was won by the English and Burgundian troops, under the Earl of Salisbury and others, against a combined force of French and Scotch, and levies from Spain and Lombardy. The English were completely victorious, and Buchan, the Constable of France, was taken prisoner. This victory, which was fought on the banks of the Yonne, near Auxerre, saved Burgundy from invasion, and greatly crippled the power of the French.

Crichton, Sir William, Chancellor of Scotland, was Governor of Edinburgh Castle at the death of James I. (1437). In his endeavours to get possession of the young king's person, he was brought into rivalry with Sir Alexander Livingston, from whom he carried off James II., only, however, to surrender him again on consideration of receiving certain lands as a reward. In conjunction with Livingston, he planned and carried out the murder of William, Earl of Douglas, and his brother. He was for some time at war with the Douglas family, and was besieged by them in Edinburgh Castle.

Crimean War, fought between Russia on the one hand, and England, France, Turkey, and Sardinia on the other, began in 1854, and lasted till 1856. It is called the Crimean War because the main operation of it consisted in the attack made by the allied forces on the peninsula of the Crimea in the south of Russia. The dispute between Russia and Turkey had ostensibly arisen about the guardianship of the Holy Places, especially the Holy Sepulchre, in Jerusalem; but the cause of it lay much deeper. Turkey, the old enemy of Russia, had gradually retired from the countries she had originally conquered, and, as her power decayed, had become more and more unfit to rule over Christian populations. Russia, who had emancipated herself from Tartar thraldom, was deeply interested in protecting the Slavonic races still under Turkish rule, who were of the same blood and origin as herself. She also had a natural desire to extend her power to the Dardanelles, and to open a way for her commerce into the Mediterranean. The Emperor Nicholas wrote of Turkey as "a sick man dying," and his plan for dividing

his possessions included the formation of the Danubian principalities, Servia and Bulgaria, into principalities under the suzerainty of Russia, and the occupation of Egypt and Candia by England. Constantinople was to be held neither by Russia, France, England, nor Greece. Sir Stratford Canning, the English ambassador at Constantinople, was an enemy of Russia. The Emperor of the French was desirous of a European war for the consolidation of his throne. On July 2, 1853, the Russian troops crossed the river Pruth, and occupied the principalities. On November 1, war was declared, and on the 30th of the same month the Turkish fleet was destroyed in the harbour of Sinope. Lord Aberdeen, the Prime Minister, strained every nerve to preserve peace, but Lord Palmerston, Foreign Secretary, declared that he would resign, unless a strong course against Russia were adopted. The country gradually "drifted into war." On Feb. 27, 1854, an ultimatum was sent by our government, which declared that unless the Russian troops retired behind the river Pruth before the end of April, it would be considered as a declaration of war. No reply was made, and the war took its course. Austria and Prussia contracted an offensive and defensive alliance, by which they guaranteed each other's possessions in case of attack. They also prepared their forces in readiness for war. The alliance between England and France was signed on April 10. The plan of operations was very simple. As Russia could be attacked only in her extremities, and England could act only upon a sea base, there were not many places into which the two combatants could come into conflict. A fleet sailed into the Baltic, under Admiral Napier, with great expectations of success, which were not realised. On Sept. 14 the allied forces landed in the Crimea. They consisted of 24,000 English, 22,000 French, and 8,000 Turks. Their object was to capture Sebastopol, a powerful fortress, which the Russians had recently constructed at great expense. On Sept. 20 the Russians were defeated by the allied armies at the passage of the Alma. It might have been possible to take Sebastopol by a *coup de main*, but it was thought more prudent to besiege it from the south. A brilliant flank march was executed, and the harbour of Balaclava was occupied by the English as a base of operations. On October 25 was fought the battle of Balaclava, signalised by the famous charge of the six hundred light cavalry upon the Russian guns [Balaclava, The Battle of], and the far more effective charge of the heavy cavalry, under General Scarlett. On Nov. 5 the English troops were attacked in the early morning by large masses of Russians, and held their ground with great steadiness until the afternoon. This was the battle of Inkerman, in which we lost 2,612 killed and wounded, and the Russians, it is said, 12,000. The winter tried our troops severely. Notwithstanding the devotion of Miss Florence Nightingale in nursing the sick, the supply of hospital accommodation was insufficient, and the commissariat broke down. This caused great indignation in England, and Lord Aberdeen was succeeded as Prime Minister by Lord Palmerston. In December the allied fleet in the Baltic was broken up, and returned home; and on March 2 the Emperor of Russia died. This caused but a slight hope of peace; the fleet returned to the Baltic on April 4, and the bombardment of Sebastopol began five days later. On June 7 the French succeeded in carrying the Mamelon, one of the Sebastopol forts, but an attack made by the allied forces on the Redan and the Malakhoff forts, on June 18, was unsuccessful; and on June 28 Lord Raglan, the English commander-in-chief, died. On August 16 the French distinguished themselves greatly in the battle of the Tchernaya. After a month's incessant bombardment, a final attack was made on the works on Sept. 5, the result of which was that the Russians evacuated Sebastopol, and retreated to the north side of the harbour. They blew up their forts as far as they could, and left their wounded behind them. This practically put an end to the war in the Crimea. Before the end of the year negotiations for peace were begun by the friendly intervention of Austria. The points on which Russia found it most difficult to make concessions were the limitation of her power in the Black Sea, and the cession of a part of Bessarabia to Roumania. [The provisions on these points were cancelled respectively in 1871 and 1878. (Black Sea Conference; Berlin Treaty.)] The Peace of Paris was signed on Sunday, March 20, 1856. The English lost 24,000 soldiers during the war, the French 63,500, and the Russians, it is said, 506,000. The war added £41,000,000 to the National Debt. [O. B.]

Kinglake: *Invasion of the Crimea.*

Crinan (Cronan) (*d.* 1045), lay Abbot of Dunkeld, was a powerful and warlike chieftain, who married a daughter of Malcolm I., by whom he had a son, Duncan, King of Scotland 1034–1040. Crinan was slain in battle (1045) whilst fighting against Macbeth.

Crofts (or Croft), Sir James (*d.* 1590), was in 1553 made Deputy of Ireland, his tenure of office being marked by the distress suffered by the country owing to the debasement of coinage. In 1554 he took arms against Queen Mary in Sir Thomas Wyatt's rebellion, and for this was sent to the Tower. Under Elizabeth Crofts became commander on the Scottish border, and in 1560 crossed the border with the English expedition under Lord Grey. His mismanagement at the assault on Leith in 1560 caused the repulse of the English, and in consequence Crofts was deprived of his command and sent to London.

He subsequently played a prominent part in parliamentary life. He was a commissioner at the trial of Mary Queen of Scots in 1586.

Cromer, Evelyn Baring, 1st Earl of (*b.* 1841), began life as an officer in the Royal Artillery. In 1872 he accompanied Lord Northbrook to India as his private secretary. In 1876 he left India with the rank of major, being made British Commissioner of the Egyptian Public Debt Office. When the Khedive Ismail abdicated, he was promoted to be British Controller-General. From 1880 to 1883 he was Financial Member of the Council of India. He then became British Agent and Consul-General in Egypt, and took in hand the various questions which called loudly for attention—Finance, Irrigation, the Administration of Justice, Education and other important matters. A substantial result of his reforms and economies was that Egypt was enabled (1896-1898) to achieve the reconquest of her lost possessions in the Soudan. He was raised to the peerage as Baron Cromer in 1892, was created Viscount Cromer in 1897, and Earl Cromer in 1901. On his retirement from Egypt in 1907 he received a grant of £50,000.

Cromwell, Bridget (*b.* 1624, *d.* 1681), was the eldest daughter of Oliver Cromwell. She is described as being "a gloomy enthusiast, and so bigoted a republican that she even grudged her father the title of Protector." She married Henry Ireton (q.v.), and subsequently Charles Fleetwood (q.v.).

Cromwell, Elizabeth (*b.* 1629, *d.* 1658), was the second and favourite daughter of the Protector. She is said, notwithstanding her parentage, to have been firmly attached to the Royal cause, and it is certain that she frequently interceded on behalf of Royalist prisoners.

Cromwell, Henry (*b.* 1628, *d.* 1674), was the youngest son of Oliver Cromwell. He entered the Parliamentary army in 1642, and before he was twenty obtained a troop in Fairfax's life-guards. In 1649 he attained the rank of a colonel, and accompanied his father to Ireland. He was a member of the "Barebones" Parliament of 1653, and in 1655, after being sent over to Ireland to observe the condition of affairs in that country, was shortly afterwards made Lord Deputy. His government of Ireland was exceedingly popular, and the moderation and justice of his measures pleased all except the extreme men on either side. On the triumph of the Parliamentary party over the Protector he was superseded, and retired into private life.

Cromwell, Oliver (*b.* April 25, 1599, *d.* Sept. 3, 1658), was a native of Huntingdon, the son of Robert Cromwell and Elizabeth Steward, and connected by blood with the family of Thomas Cromwell, Earl of Essex. He was educated at Huntingdon School, and at Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge, where he entered as a fellow-commoner on April 23, 1616. On his father's death in the following year he returned home, married Elizabeth Bourchier (Aug., 1620), and settled down to farm his own lands. He was elected member for Huntingdon in 1628, and complained against the Bishop of Winchester for silencing controversial preaching. In the Short Parliament and the Long Parliament he represented Cambridge, and soon attained considerable influence. It has been ascertained that within the first ten months of the Long Parliament Cromwell was specially appointed to eighteen committees, exclusive of various appointments which he shared with the knights and burgesses generally of the eastern counties. He moved the second reading of the Annual Parliament Bill (Dec. 30, 1640), and was one of those who drew up the Root and Branch Bill. On religious questions he was specially active, and he had decided to emigrate if the Grand Remonstrance had not passed. He was also one of the foremost in laying hands on the executive power, and moved (Nov. 6, 1641) to entrust the Earl of Essex with power over the trained bands till Parliament should take further order. In the summer of 1642 he commenced arming and drilling the Cambridge Trained Bands, and seized the plate of that university to prevent it from being carried to the king. He served at Edgehill at the head of the troop of horse which he had raised, and is mentioned by Fiennes as doing good service. In January, 1643, he secured the town of Cambridge, and arrested the Royalist sheriff of Hertfordshire. In March he suppressed a rising at Lowestoft; in April he raised the siege of Crowland; on May 13 defeated the Royalists of Newark at Grantham; in July he retook Stamford, captured Burleigh House, and relieved Gainsborough. His services were recognised by his appointment as Governor of the Isle of Ely, and second in command of the army of the Eastern Association, which his activity had made it possible to form (Aug., 1643). Next month he joined the cavalry of Sir Thomas Fairfax, in Lincolnshire, and helped to gain the victory of Winceby, where he commanded the van (Oct. 11, 1643). In the following year he led the left wing at Marston Moor, which, after driving Prince Rupert's division from the field fell on Newcastle's foot in the centre and decided the victory. He was also present at the second battle of Newbury (Oct. 27, 1644), and a month later charged his commander, the Earl of Manchester, with slackness in making use of the advantages then gained. Lest the war should be protracted by the self-interest or incapacity of members of Parliament, he supported the Self-denying Ordinance, and the formation of a regular army officered by professional soldiers. In spite of that law,

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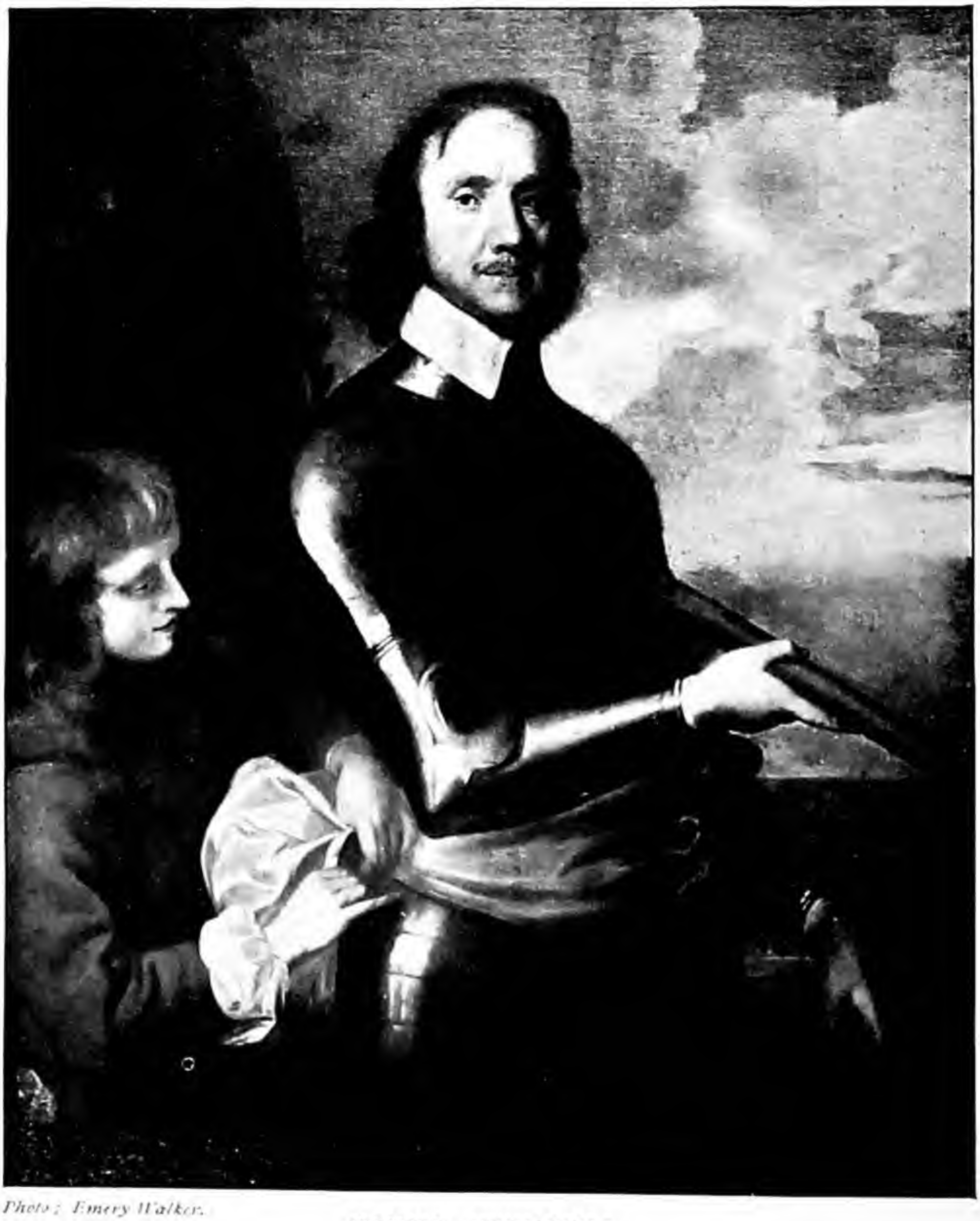


Photo: Emery Walker.

OLIVER CROMWELL.

From the portrait by Robert Walker, in the National Portrait Gallery.

his services were too valuable to be dispensed with. In February, 1645, he was sent on an expedition into the west under Waller. When he returned to resign his command he was ordered into Oxfordshire to intercept a convoy going to Oxford, which he performed at Islip (April 24th). On May 10th he was continued in his command for forty days longer, and Fairfax was authorised to appoint him to command the horse, and this appointment was confirmed and extended from time to time. At Naseby he commanded the right wing, totally routed the forces opposed to him, and, keeping his troopers well in hand, led them against the king's centre with equal success. With Fairfax he then went into the west, was present at the storming of Bristol, and at the battle of Langport. Winchester, Basing House, and other fortresses were taken by him, and he took part in the siege of Oxford. During these three years Cromwell had also become the head of a political party. From the moment he took up arms he had sought to enlist men with a religious spirit in them, thinking them the only men able to oppose gentlemen of honour and courage. What their particular form of creed was he cared little. "The state," he declared, "in choosing men to serve it, takes no notice of their opinions; if they be willing to serve it faithfully, that suffices." His enemies termed him "the great Independent," and saw in him the champion of the opposition to the imposition of Presbyterian orthodoxy on England. This question of toleration, with two other questions then at issue between the army and the Parliament—the right of the soldiers to be fairly paid for their services, and their claim to have a voice in making a safe and proper settlement with the king—brought him into opposition with the Parliament. Matters came to a crisis when, in the spring of 1647, Parliament voted the disbandment of the army. Cromwell did his best to prevent a rupture, attempted to mediate and reconcile, and when these attempts failed and he found himself in danger of arrest, cast in his lot with Fairfax and the army (June 3, 1647). After the exclusion of the eleven members he took an active part in the debates of the Commons and the negotiations with the king. There he endeavoured to fix a limit to the establishment of Presbyterianism (Oct. 13), and supported the continuance of the negotiations with the king in spite of his rejection of the nineteen propositions. He hoped to come to an agreement with Charles on the basis of the new propositions, which were a compromise between the demands of the army and the Parliament. Even after the king's flight (Nov. 3) he still continued this policy, until the rejection of the four Bills (Dec. 28, 1647), and the outbreak of the second Civil War, May, 1648, taught him the impossibility of trusting Charles. Probably in March or April, 1648, at a prayer meeting of the officers at Windsor, where Cromwell was present, it was decided to call the king to account as soon as peace was restored. Then he marched against the Welsh insurgents (May), took Pembroke (July 11), hurried north to meet the Scots, and totally defeated them at Preston and Warrington (Aug. 17—19, 1648). He was still in the north, when the army again seized the king, and put an end to the Newport Treaty; nor had he any part in Pride's Purge, though he approved of both these acts. He was present every day during the king's trial, and his name stands third amongst the fifty-nine attached to the warrant. Naturally he was nominated one of the Council of State, but as he was appointed commander of the army destined for Ireland (March 15), he could not long take part in their sittings. He landed at Dublin August 15, 1649. The storming of Drogheda (Sept. 10) was followed by the massacre of the garrison, which Cromwell justified: first, as a righteous judgment of God; secondly, as tending to prevent the effusion of blood for the future. Trim, Dundalk, and other towns were at once abandoned; Arklow and Enniscorthy terrified into surrender; Wexford held out, and shared the fate of Drogheda; and the campaign closed with the unsuccessful siege of Waterford. In seven months Leinster had been regained. In the following spring, Kilkenny (March 28, 1650) and Clonmel (May 9) were taken. At the end of May Cromwell returned to England, to command—as Fairfax refused to do so—the army ordered to invade Scotland. For about a month the forces of Cromwell and Lesley manœuvred round Edinburgh, the Scots refusing to give battle, the English declining to attack positions too strong for them. At the end of August Cromwell was forced to retreat to Dunbar, where Lesley attacked him, and was routed with the loss of 3,000 men killed, and 10,000 prisoners (Sept. 3, 1650). Edinburgh and Leith fell into Cromwell's hands; the west of Scotland followed, and before Christmas all the country south of the Forth was in his possession. From February to June, 1651, he was ill, and his army inactive. On June 25th he marched against Lesley, who was posted at Stirling, and failing to dislodge him, crossed into Fifeshire, subsequently capturing Perth (Aug. 2). The king's army marched straight into England, and established itself at Worcester, where Cromwell attacked and destroyed it (Sept. 3, 1652). The great influence these services gave him, Cromwell used to secure as speedily as possible the settlement the country so much needed. In less than a fortnight after his victory he raised the question of a new Parliament (Sept. 16), and succeeded in inducing the House to fix a limit for its own power. He became an active member of the commission for law reform, a very zealous

supporter of the "Bill for General Pardon and Oblivion," and the champion of freedom of conscience in the committee for the propagation of the gospel. His great object was to use his influence and his position to secure the speedy meeting of the new reformed Parliament, which, according to the decision of the Rump, was not to meet till Nov., 1654. The impatience of the army urged him on, and a petition from the Council of Officers (Aug. 13, 1652) demanded more alacrity in the necessary reforms. The bill which was to settle the constitution of the new assembly seemed to Cromwell and the officers to be meant rather to perpetuate and recruit the Rump than to secure these reforms. He therefore endeavoured to stop this bill by agreement, or to persuade the Parliament to delegate their powers; and when he found them still hurrying through the objectionable bill, he put an end to their sitting (April 20, 1653). The result of this action was the separation of the civil and military elements of the republican party, and the continued refusal of the former (with some considerable exceptions) to recognise the authority of the other as legitimate. Cromwell and the Council of Officers began by appointing a Council of State of thirteen persons (April 29—July 4, 1653). Then a representative assembly of Puritan notables was summoned by the Council of Officers, to effect the necessary reforms. But its reforming zeal seemed to threaten the foundations of law and religion, so the more conservative members resigned their authority into the hands which had entrusted it to them (July 4—Dec. 12, 1653). The Council of Officers renewed their deliberations under Oliver Cromwell's presidency, and decided to make a single person head of the government. Cromwell was accordingly installed Lord Protector (Dec. 16, 1653), to govern with the aid of a permanent Council and a Parliament, to be summoned every three years. For nine months Protector and Council governed, raised money, and legislated without a Parliament. His first Parliament met on September 3rd, 1654, and immediately called in question the "Instrument" of government, and claimed to revise the constitution and limit the Protector's powers. In spite of the exclusion of a hundred members, it persisted in this claim, and Cromwell dissolved it (Jan. 22, 1655). He had to struggle not only against discontented republicans, but against fresh outbreaks of the Royalists. He replied by a further development of military rule, and by partially abandoning his policy of toleration. England was divided (Aug., 1655) into twelve military districts, governed by major-generals, the expenses of whose administration were supplied by an income tax on Royalists, and the public services of the Church of England were suppressed (Nov., 1655). Abroad, however, the prospect was more favourable. Cromwell had signalised the first months of his rule by the conclusion of advantageous treaties with Holland (April 5, 1654), Sweden (April 28), Portugal (July 10), and Denmark. Spain and France contended for his alliance. His influence forced Savoy to restore the privileges of the Vaudois (Aug. 19, 1655); the conquest of Jamaica announced his rupture with Spain, and a treaty of commerce sealed his friendship with France (Oct. 24, 1655). These successes, and the desire to obtain some constitutional sanction for his government, led Cromwell to call a second Parliament (Sept. 17, 1656). The preliminary exclusion of about a hundred refractory members secured a more docile assembly, in deference to whose vote Cromwell gave up his institution of the major-generals. They went on to revise the constitution, to establish a new House of Lords, and to offer Cromwell the title of king. His refusal of the title, mainly dictated by the opposition of the army, did not prevent him from accepting their constitutional amendments, and he was again, with legally defined powers, installed as Protector (June 26, 1657). But the House of Commons, whose composition was materially altered by the admission of the excluded members and the absence of the new lords, rejected the authority of the other House, and Cromwell indignantly dissolved it (Jan. 20, 1658). This confusion at home was perhaps compensated by brighter prospects abroad. If his plan for the union of the Protestant powers failed, the alliance with France ripened into an offensive and defensive league against Spain, and the battle of Dunkirk (June 4, 1658) made his arms renowned through Europe. Cromwell's vigour was now beginning to decay, and being attacked by a fever, he died Sept. 3, 1658. Cromwell's person and character are thus described by a gentleman of his household:—"His body was well compact and strong; his stature under six foot (I believe about two inches); his head so shaped as you might see it a store-house and shop both of a vast treasury of natural parts. His temper exceeding fiery, as I have known, but the flame of it kept down for the most part, or soon allayed with those moral endowments he had. He was naturally compassionate towards objects in distress, even to an effeminate measure; though God had made him a heart wherein was left little room for any fear, but what was due to himself, of which there was a large proportion, yet did he exceed in tenderness towards sufferers. A larger soul, I think, hath seldom dwelt in a house of clay than his was." "He was a strong man," adds another observer; "in the dark perils of war, in the high places of the field, hope shone in him like a pillar of fire when it had gone out in all the others." [COMMONWEALTH.]

Carlyle, *Cromwell's Letters and Speeches*; Noble, *House of Cromwell*; Gardiner, *History of*

England, 1603—1649, and *Commonwealth and Protectorate*, 1649—1660; Masson, *Life of Milton*; Guizot, *Histoire de la Révolution d'Angleterre*; Sanford, *Studies and Illustrations of the Great Rebellion*; *Thurloe Papers*; Clarendon, *History of the Rebellion*; Whitelocke, *Memorials*.

[C. H. F.]

Cromwell, Ralph, Lord (*d.* 1455), was one of the Council of Regency during Henry VI.'s minority. He sided with Beaufort against Gloucester; in the year 1443 he was appointed Treasurer, and held this important office for ten years, during which time he showed considerable financial ability. In 1449 an attempt was made to assassinate him, which he attributed to Suffolk. He supported the Lancastrian party, but died shortly after the first battle of St. Albans.

Cromwell, Richard (*b.* 1626, *d.* 1712), third son of the Protector, was educated at Felstead School, entered at Lincoln's Inn 1647, and married Dorothy Mayor 1649. During his father's life he lived as a private gentleman in the country. In July, 1657, he was elected, after his father's resignation, Chancellor of the University of Oxford, and about the same time he was admitted into the Council of State. His father on his death-bed nominated him as his successor, and he was accepted as such in England and by the European powers. In his new position he is said to have carried himself discreetly, and better than was expected. A Parliament was assembled on Jan. 27, 1659, which recognised him as Protector, but the republican minority, headed by Vane and Haselrig, united with the officers of the army, headed by Lambert, Fleetwood, and Desborough, to force him to dissolve Parliament (April 22, 1659). His supporters urged him to meet force by force, but he replied, "I will not have a drop of blood spilt for the preservation of my greatness, which is a burden to me." He signed a formal abdication (May, 1659), in return for which the restored Rump undertook the discharge of his debts. After the Restoration he fled to the Continent, where he remained for twenty years, returning in 1680.

Cromwell, Thomas, Earl of Essex (*d.* 1540). The early life of Thomas Cromwell is obscure, and the various stories told concerning it are scarcely consistent. He is said to have been the son of a blacksmith at Putney. In early youth he served as a common soldier in the wars of Italy. He began a commercial career with a Venetian trader; next he was a clerk at Antwerp, and then a wool merchant at Middleburgh, in Zealand. He returned to England, and did business as a scrivener, being half lawyer, half money-lender. He lent money to the poor nobles, who at the extravagant court of Henry VIII. were often reduced to sore straits. While engaged in these pursuits he showed great aptitude for business, and became widely known. In 1524 he was employed by Cardinal Wolsey to manage the details of business connected with the suppression of the smaller monasteries and the foundation of Wolsey's Colleges at Ipswich and Oxford. In this occupation Cromwell showed himself unscrupulous, and became very unpopular. On Wolsey's fall, in 1529, he showed his extreme cleverness by using his fidelity to a fallen master as a means of promoting his own interests. He advised Wolsey to buy off the malice of his enemies by judicious grants of pensions out of the revenues of his bishopric. In carrying out these arrangements he commended himself to many powerful friends, and prepared the way for passing over to the service of the king. He suggested to Henry VIII. that he should settle the divorce question by declaring himself supreme head of the Church of England, and prosecuting the matter in his own ecclesiastical courts. The advice struck Henry. He made Cromwell a member of the Privy Council, and soon afterwards a Secretary of State. Cromwell devoted his energies to raising the royal power above all other authority, and establishing by its means a new order of things. His political text-book, according to Cardinal Pole, was Machiavelli's *Principe*. He looked to the strong hand of absolutism to work reforms. By his advice the royal supremacy was declared, appeals to Rome were forbidden, and the king's divorce was pronounced by the Archbishop of Canterbury. In 1534 the Act of Supremacy vested authority in matters ecclesiastical solely in the crown, and in the next year Cromwell was appointed "Vicar-General," or the king's vicegerent in matters ecclesiastical. He was already Chancellor, so that he now held in his own hands the chief authority in things secular and spiritual. Cromwell set himself to reduce the Church into obedience to the crown. He humbled the bishops by treating them as royal officials. He struck at the wealth of the Church by ordering a general visitation of the religious houses. In consequence of the report of the visitors, the lesser monasteries, to the number of 400, were suppressed, and their revenues granted to the crown. Cromwell's hand was felt everywhere. He directed the clergy what they were to preach about, and revoked the licences of those who would not obey. His spies filled the land, and words of discontent were wrested into proofs of conspiracy, and met with condign punishment. The execution of More and Fisher taught men that they were to expect no mercy unless they obeyed. The northern rebellion was crushed, and led to the suppression of the remaining monasteries. But when Cromwell's success seemed certain, there came a reaction. The violence of the advanced Protestant party awakened general discontent. Henry VIII. found that in following Cromwell he had become allied with

doctrines which he was not prepared to accept. The Act of Six Articles (1539) marked a Catholic reaction, which seriously affected Cromwell's position. But it was the progress of foreign affairs which brought about his fall. The changes which had been made in England were viewed with anger by the Emperor Charles V., who was hindered from interfering in England only by his war with France. Henry VIII. trusted to his French alliance; but as France also looked suspiciously on the new English policy, Cromwell sought a new alliance with the Lutheran princes of Germany. He hoped to make a strong coalition, by which France, England, and the German Lutherans should unite to crush the power of the house of Austria. As an earnest of this policy, he laboured for the marriage of Henry VIII. with Anne, daughter of the Duke of Cleves, and niece of John Frederick, Elector of Saxony, who was the head of the Smalcaldic League. He carried his point, and received a new sign of the royal favour by being created Earl of Essex. But the marriage with Anne of Cleves was unsuccessful both on personal and political grounds. Henry VIII. was disappointed in his new wife, and conceived an aversion for her. The political schemes of Cromwell did not prosper. France drew nearer to the Emperor; the Lutheran princes still held by their principle of passive resistance, and showed no signs of taking active measures. Henry VIII. was willing to allow his minister full power so long as he succeeded; at the first sign of failure, at the first appearance of difficulty to himself, he remorselessly sacrificed his favourite. Cromwell had few friends, and his disgrace was a sure means of bringing back the king's popularity. On June 10, 1540, Cromwell was arrested in the Council Chamber on the charge of high treason. A bill of attainder was rapidly passed through Parliament. Cromwell was not allowed to speak in his own defence, and was executed on July 28, 1540. Cromwell lived simply, and devoted himself entirely to his political occupations. His influence over the king was supreme while he was in power, and the separation of the English Church from the Papacy was due entirely to his skilfully devised measures. He was resolute and unscrupulous, with a clearly-defined policy. But he advanced too fast, till he stood absolutely alone, and when he lost the royal favour he had nothing on which to fall back. He risked everything on the marriage of Henry VIII. with Anne of Cleves. Had Anne been personally attractive to the king, Cromwell's policy might have developed results of more permanent influence.

Pole, *Apologia ad Carolum V.*; Strype, *Memorials of Cranmer*; *Calendar of State Papers of the Reign of Henry VIII.*; Froude, *History of England*; Green, *History of the English People*; J. S. Brewer, *Hist. of the Reign of Henry VIII.*

[M. C.]

Cropredy Bridge, The Battle of (June 29, 1644), was fought near Banbury, between the Royalists, led by Charles I. in person, and a part of the Parliamentary forces, commanded by Sir William Waller, whose attempt to cross the Cherwell and attack the king's troops in the rear proved unsuccessful. The loss on the side of the Parliament was very considerable.

Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion*; Whitelocke, *Memorials.*

Crotoye, Battle of (1347), between the English and French fleets, was occasioned by the attempt of the latter to relieve Calais, during the siege of the town by Edward III. The French fleet was entirely defeated, and all attempts to relieve Calais by sea were abandoned.

Crowland, or Croyland, a town of Lincolnshire, about eight miles north-east of Peterborough, is the site of a great abbey founded in 714 by Ethelbald of Mercia. It was burnt by the Danes in 870, restored by King Ethelred II., and again burnt in 1091. In 1112 it was a second time restored on a scale of considerable splendour. [For Crowland Chronicle *see* Ingulphus.]

Crown, The. In England monarchy was one direct product of the Anglo-Saxon conquest in the fifth and sixth centuries. In their German home the Saxons were ruled by elected magistrates (*ealdormen*) in time of peace, and led to battle by elected generals (*heretoga*), whose authority expired with the war. Unlike their old tribal forays, the expedition to Britain entailed a chronic struggle between natives and invaders, which lasted several generations; and as the duration of the heretoga's exceptional powers were defined by the duration of the war, the mere force of circumstances now rendered those powers permanent. This change, amounting to the creation of a new office, was recognised, and sanctioned by the adoption of a title already in use amongst other Teutonic tribes, the title *King*, or *Cyn*-ing (head of the *kin*). The new king was ealdorman and heretoga in one; he was still elected, but the danger of interregnum in the presence of an endless war leading to the practice of electing his successor in his lifetime, the influence of the victorious general was usually sufficient to secure his son's nomination. The prescription thus established gradually confined the national choice to descendants of the first king, and myth soon explained and hallowed the preference by investing them with the halo of a divine pedigree. Christianity swept away the claim to descent from Woden, but more than compensated by the introduction of Old Testament ideas and the example of the Empire. The king, who had hitherto differed from his subjects only in degree, began to assume the style and arrogate the pretensions of the Byzantine court. The oath of homage

taken by his thanes was assimilated to the sacramentum (or Roman oath of military obedience, originally taken by the army alone, but extended later to the holders of civil office, and finally to all subjects), and by the time of the reign of Edmund had become the oath of allegiance exacted from every freeman of full age. The king was now lord of the race (*cyne-hlaford*); plots against his life were punishable, like treason against any *hlaford* (lord), with death and forfeiture; and finally, the *Statute of Treasons*, 25 Ed. III., by abolishing this penalty for petty treason, left the king on a constitutional pinnacle, no longer the first among equals.

It is from this fusion of Imperial and Teutonic ideas that the theory prevalent in most European systems of law has sprung. The lawyers distinguish carefully between two kings—the ideal and the real. The former is the state: the fountain of legislation, of justice, of honour; *i.e.*, the despot of Imperial law. This ideal person resides from time to time in the real king, who is subject to all the imperfections of human nature, and represents the Teutonic head of the kin, limited by the caprice and free instincts of his subjects. The relation of these two persons forms the main subject of constitutional history, their identification leading to despotism, their separation to limited monarchy. In England that separation is enshrined in the famous resolution of 1642, in which the Lords and Commons declare themselves a "council . . . to provide for the necessities . . . of the kingdom, and to declare the king's pleasure in those things that are requisite thereunto, and that what they do therein hath the stamp of royal authority, although his Majesty, seduced by evil counsel, do in his own person oppose or interrupt." This victory was mainly the result of financial struggles.

The Revenues of the Crown were of two kinds, ordinary and extraordinary: *i.e.*, those which belonged to the crown in its own right, and those which came as a free gift from its subjects; and their history is the history of the absorption of the ordinary by the extraordinary. The former consisted of (1) *the rents of crown lands* (1,422 manors at the date of the Domesday Survey, 1085); (2) *purveyance* (the right exercised on royal progresses of buying at the lowest prices, and using forced labour); (3) *feudal incidents* (the three regular aids, escheat, forfeiture, relief, marriage, wardship); (4) *customs on imported goods* (price paid by foreign merchants for the protection of the royal peace). The latter consisted of (1) *aids* granted by the free tenants and clergy; (2) *tallage*, a tax taken from towns lying in the ancient demesne (its true character is shown by the alternative name, *donum*). The crusade of Richard I., the wickedness of John, and the weakness of Henry III., impaired the ordinary revenue at a time when difficulties with France were yearly augmenting the expenditure. Edward I. met the deficiency of the one by an expansion of the other. To this end he remodelled Parliament, introducing representatives of the tax-paying classes, the country gentry, and the city merchants; and so rapidly did the power of the new assembly grow, that in 1275 it confirmed to the king the old customs on wool and leather, known thenceforth as "magna et antiqua custuma:" a grant which at one blow transferred customs from the hereditary to the parliamentary revenue. In 1660, the abolition of feudal tenures and of purveyance narrowed the former down to the proceeds of the crown estates; and these have in their turn been resigned in consideration of a fixed pension. At first the powers of Parliament were limited to the making of the grant, the expending of which lay wholly with the crown; but in 1378, during Richard II.'s minority, that principle of *appropriation* was introduced (by the provision that the tax granted for the French war should be paid over to two parliamentary treasurers, Philpot and Walworth), which, after a temporary collapse in the period of Tudor and Yorkist despotism, revived under James I., was confirmed by the Commonwealth, adopted as a momentary expedient by the Royalist Parliament (1665), and finally, by the insertion of *Lord Somers's Clause* (March, 1690), acquired a permanent position as an essential element of the original grant.

The Crown was the Fount of Law. "Lex fit consensu populi, constitutione regis," the maxim of the Teutonic empire was also the theory of the English constitution, and endured in its original freshness till in Henry VI.'s reign the Commons adopted the form of bill instead of the older petition. Yet though this change practically reversed the legislative position of king and Commons, the old maxim still represents the legal theory. The crown was also the Fount of Justice. This principle is of somewhat later origin, the shire and hundred courts in their earliest form deriving authority, not from the king, but from the nation. Even so late as the reign of Henry III., the king might be sued in his own courts by a writ of the form "Præcipe Henrico Regi Angliæ;" nor was it till the present century that the abolition of private appeals in criminal cases left the crown sole prosecutor, and removed the last limitation on the royal right of pardon. The process by which the national courts became the king's courts, and the national peace the king's peace, was the work of Norman centralisation operating through the *Curia Regis* (q.v.). To strengthen the local courts against feudal encroachment, Henry I. occasionally sent justices of the *Curia Regis* to preside in them. This practice, brought to a system by Henry II., superinduced, to the mutual satisfaction of king and people, the royal upon the national peace, till in the end the second was entirely overgrown and choked by the first. The crown was

further the Fount of Honour. In the days of chivalry any knight could confer the honour of knighthood. But with the decay of feudal service the political nobility of the peerage threw the social nobility of the knights completely into the shade. The class which owed title and privilege to the special writ of the crown became far the most prominent in the state; the legal mind soon concluded that the monopoly enjoyed by the crown of conferring the highest dignity must extend *à fortiori* to all inferior titles of honour.

Crown Supreme Landowner. Like justice, the land belonged originally to the nation, part being divided into alodial holdings for the freemen, the rest preserved, under the name of folk-land, as a common stock for future allotments. These were effected by charters granted by the witan and king, and hence were called *boc-* or charter-land. The king's influence growing with the number of his thanes, the witan came to be regarded as the witness rather than the author of the deed of grant, the folk-land changed insensibly into *terra regis*, and the thanes into feudal vassals. The Norman Conquest completed the process. By the simple operation of the law, which punished rebellion with forfeiture, alodial tenure had, by the time of the Conqueror's death, disappeared, and every landholder in the kingdom had become a tenant mediate or immediate of the crown. But the growth of the constitutional system and the abolition of feudal tenures (1660) have degraded this once all-important maxim into a legal pleasantry.

Succession to the Crown. The king, it has been shown, was in early times elected; elected, that is to say, by the witan and accepted by the people, their choice being limited by unwritten custom to the members of a particular family. Primogeniture, the offspring of feudal tenure, did not affect the succession till the king of the people had become also the feudal lord of the soil. Yet so late as 1199, Hubert Walter, Archbishop of Canterbury, could assert without contradiction, in his opening speech at the coronation of John, that the English king rules not by hereditary right, but in virtue of his election, and that the national voice which gave could also take back the crown. The old form was observed even at the coronation of Charles I. (1625), of presenting the new king to the crowd at the four corners of a raised platform, and demanding their assent to his nomination. The ground won by the solemn deposition of two kings, Edward II. and Richard II., seemed lost in the Yorkist reaction, but the accession of Henry VII. brought in a fresh parliamentary dynasty, and though the Stuarts for a time forced on the nation the absolutist maxims of the Scotch court, the triumph of the popular party was in the end complete, and the Revolution (1688) established for ever the constitutional principle that the King of England is an official and not a proprietary ruler. [King.]

Allen, *On the Prerogative*; Taylor, *Glory of Regality*; Hearn, *The Government of England*; Stubbs, *Constitutional History*. [H. R. R.]

Crown, The Wearing of the. As part of the regalia, the crown seems to have been at first nothing more than a fillet of linen or cloth, intended to represent the halo symbolical of deity. Like most of the other regal ornaments, and the general apparatus of court ceremonial, the gold crown was borrowed from the Emperors of the East, who, on the establishment of Christianity as the state religion, claimed for themselves the theocratic position of the ancient Jewish kings. The crown has been worn by the English monarchs—

(1) *At their Coronation.* After the administration of the coronation oath by the Archbishop of Canterbury, a special service is celebrated in Westminster Abbey, in the course of which the Dean of Westminster solemnly anoints the new king with holy oil, the great dignitaries invest him with the regalia, the imposition of the crown, performed by the archbishop himself, constituting the essential act of investiture. At that moment "the trumpets sound, the drums beat, and the people with loud and repeated shouts cry 'God save the king!' A signal is also given from the battlements of the church, at which the twenty-one great guns in St. James's Park are fired, and also the ordnance of the Tower."

(2) *In the Norman and Angevin periods at the Courts or Parliaments* held on the three great Church festivals of the year, Christmas, Easter, and Michaelmas. Edward I. first omitted the custom, "saying merrily," that "crowns do rather onerate than honour princes."

The regalia used for the coronation were, till the Reformation, kept in the custody of the Dean and Chapter of Westminster, both for security and as an assertion of the national character of investiture. On the dissolution of the monasteries, they were transferred from the national to the royal keeping in the Tower. The Long Parliament destroyed them, as a protest against monarchical government. On the Restoration a new set was made, which exists at the present day.

[H. R. R.]

Crown Lands were in pre-Norman times of wide extent, all the *folk-land* (q.v.) gradually becoming *terra regis*, and the amount of this was considerably increased by the confiscations of William I. [Crown.] The re-grants, however, to the king's followers and friends soon reduced the amount of land held by the crown, and under Henry III. it was necessary to pass an Act of resumption, while in the reign of Edward II. an Act was for some time in force forbidding the alienation of crown lands. The royal demesnes were largely increased by forfeitures in the Wars of the Roses, by the acquisitiveness of Henry VII., and by the

ecclesiastical confiscations of Henry VIII.; but the necessities of James I. and Charles I., and the action of the Long Parliament, disposed of all the royal estates, which were only recovered in part by the Parliamentary sales being declared void at the Restoration. The wholesale granting away of the crown lands has a distinct constitutional importance, as having compelled the king to apply to Parliament and the nation for his income, which was often granted only on condition of good government. The lavishness of William III. necessitated an Act in the reign of Anne, by which the alienation of crown lands was greatly checked; though, in 1800, this Act was declared not to apply to the private property of the sovereign, acquired by purchase or inheritance from any one not being a sovereign of England. Since George III., the sovereign on his accession has always surrendered the crown lands to be disposed of by Parliament, like the other revenues of the state, for the public service; their superintendence lies with the Commissioners of Woods, Forests, and Land Revenues.

Crusades, The. The general history of these religious wars does not come within the scope of the present work, but a few words must be said regarding the influence of the Crusades on English history. In the first place, the fact that Robert of Normandy joined the first Crusade and, in his anxiety to raise money for his expedition, pawned Normandy to William Rufus, perpetuated for 120 years the connection of England with that duchy. Again, the eager crusading spirit of Richard I. necessitated his raising money by every expedient. Thus charters were sold to towns many of which thereby obtained privileges which they would otherwise probably never have acquired; the feudal rights of England over Scotland were renounced, and the independence of that kingdom recognised for the first time; offices of all kinds were bought from the king, and the buyers were anxious to recoup themselves out of the pockets of the people. But Richard I.'s Crusade did more than this; not only did the king's absence from England and the oppressive government of his minister Longchamp (q.v.) give John the opportunity of coming forward as the champion of the barons and the people, and thereby of earning for him a popularity which did much to support him when he came to the throne himself, but the heavy taxes imposed in Richard's absence, and the large sum that had to be raised to pay his ransom, combined with the harsh rule of the royal ministers, greatly alienated the people from the king; and whereas, up to this time, there had been an alliance between the king and the people against the oppression and turbulence of the feudal nobles, now parties are changed it is the king who is the oppressor of the people, while the barons come forward as their champions, and thus the way is paved for that alliance which, in the next reign, produced Magna Charta. Of later Crusades the most important in English history is the one led by Richard of Cornwall in 1240; while Edward I., by taking the Cross in 1268, relieves England of the presence of many of the leading nobles whose absence for a while was necessary if the wounds caused by the Barons' War were to be healed. But on the whole the direct influences of the Crusades were felt less in England than in most of the countries of Europe.

Culdees, The. There has been great controversy both as to the origin and application of the name Culdee. The derivation is probably the Celtic Cele De, worshipper of God (not Cælicola, Cælebs, or Columba, as some have tried to prove). The name does not appear until after the expulsion of the Columban monks from the Pictish kingdom by Nectan Mac Derili in 717; so the Culdees are in no way to be identified with the early Columban monks; they were anchorites rather than monks, practically independent, being under the control of their own abbots, and owning no allegiance to Rome until they were forced to conform by the action of Alexander and David. Mr. Skene says of them, "They originally sprang from that ascetic order who adopted a solitary service of God in an isolated cell as the highest form of religious life, and who were termed Deicolæ. . . . They were finally brought under the canonical rule along with the secular clergy, retaining, however, to some extent, the nomenclature of the monastery, until at length the name of Keledens or Culdee became almost synonymous with that of 'secular canon.'" The chief Culdee monasteries in Scotland were at Lochleven, St. Andrews, Abernethy, Dunkeld, Brechin, and Dunblane. The Culdees were known in Ireland as early as the ninth century, and continued to exist as a sect of secular priests up to the time of the Reformation. Their chief establishment was at Armagh.

Skene, *Celtic Scotland*; Robertson, *Early Kings of Scotland*; Grub, *Eccles. Hist. of Scotland*; Lanigan, *Eccles. Hist. of Ireland.*

Cullen, Cardinal (*b.* 1803, *d.* 1878), was Roman Catholic Archbishop of Dublin, Primate of Ireland, and Apostolic Delegate. Descended from an ancient Celtic family, he entered the priesthood and became head of the Irish College in Rome, and, for a short time, of the Propaganda. Before he became Primate he had been Archbishop of Dublin. The government owed much to him in the Fenian rising, against which he spoke with great vigour; he also did much to encourage the temperance cause.

Culloden, or Drummossie Moor, was the scene of the closing effort on the part of the Stuarts to regain the English crown.

The Pretender, Charles Edward, commanded an army of Highlanders, who were utterly defeated by the royal troops under the Duke of Cumberland (q.v.). This memorable battle was fought April 16, 1746. [STUART, CHARLES EDWARD, JACOBITES.]

Culpepper, SIR THOMAS (*d.* 1541), was a relative of Catherine Howard, and one of those executed on a confession of having committed adultery with her. Sir Thomas Culpepper, it appears, had not only carried on a criminal correspondence with the queen before her marriage, but had had the hardihood, when the court was staying at Lincoln in 1541, to get introduced, by the agency of Lady Rochford, into the queen's bed-chamber. On inquiries being made as to the queen's conduct both after as well as before her marriage, Culpepper and Lady Rochford were both executed for high treason.

Cumberland, GEORGE CLIFFORD, 3RD EARL OF (*b.* 1558, *d.* 1605), "one of the most remarkable characters of his age," early displayed a taste for naval adventure. In 1586 he inflicted considerable damage on the Portuguese commerce, and two years later commanded a ship in the attack on the Spanish Armada off Calais. He subsequently engaged in several marauding expeditions against the Spaniards, and in 1598 took Porto Rico. The earl, besides being renowned for his dashing exploits by sea, was an accomplished courtier and a great favourite of the queen, by whom he was made a Knight of the Garter, though his character was not altogether free from stain. "Before his death," says Mr. Cunningham, "he had squandered his fortune; nor, high as he may rank as a man of talent, science, enterprise, and chivalry, is his memory as a husband free from the charge of cruelty."

Campbell, *British Admirals;* Cunningham's *Lives of Eminent Englishmen.*

Cumberland, HENRY CLIFFORD, 1ST EARL OF (*d.* 1542), was famous as the only northern noble who remained loyal to the king's cause during the formidable insurrection of 1536, known as the "Pilgrimage of Grace." His successful defence of Skipton Castle against the vigorous attack of the rebels was an important check to their otherwise triumphant progress through the districts north of the Humber, and considerably advanced him in the confidence and favour of the king. He was created Earl of Cumberland in July, 1525.

Cumberland, WILLIAM AUGUSTUS, DUKE OF (*b.* 1721, *d.* 1765), was the second son of George II. and Queen Caroline. He adopted a military career, and in 1743 was wounded at the battle of Dettingen. In 1745 we find him objecting to his projected marriage with a deformed Dutch princess, and sending to the dying Lord Orford [WALPOLE] for advice. Orford recommended him to agree, on condition of receiving an ample establishment, which would at once cause the king to drop the project. The plan was successful. In the same year he was appointed commander-in-chief of the allies in Flanders. He fought with distinguished gallantry at the glorious defeat of Fontenoy. He was then recalled to oppose the advance of the Young Pretender through England, and made Lichfield his head-quarters. He was out-manœuvred by the insurgents, however, and the Scotch got between him and London. On their retreat from Derby, he started in pursuit, but was defeated in a skirmish at Clifton, and allowed the Highlanders to retire unmolested. After the defeat at Falkirk, he was appointed commander-in-chief in Scotland, and arrived at Holyrood on Jan. 30, 1746. He utterly defeated Charles Edward at Culloden (q.v.). The defeated Highlanders were treated with great brutality, many of them being put to death in cold blood, and the country was systematically harried. By these cruelties the duke gained the title of "the Butcher." The thanks of Parliament, and a pension of £25,000 a year, were voted him. In 1747 he again commanded in Flanders, but was defeated at the battle of Laufeldt. Shortly afterwards he transmitted to the French overtures of peace. In 1757 he was sent to command the army in Hanover. He was worsted in July at the battle of Laufeldt, and his disorganised army being surrounded by the enemy, he was compelled to sign a convention at Closter-Seven. "Here," said George II., when he received him, "is my son, who has ruined me and disgraced himself." The duke promptly resigned his military appointments. For the remainder of his life he lived in seclusion, his chief friend being Henry Fox. In 1765 George III., wishing to rid himself of Grenville and Bedford, applied to his uncle for help. The latter applied to Pitt, but found that statesman, influenced by Temple, inclined to proposals which could not be accepted. The duke, therefore, turned to Whig houses, and prevailed on them to form a ministry, with Rockingham at its head. His death at Windsor was remarkably sudden, although he had previously suffered from a paralytic stroke, and his constitution had been utterly broken. "Of all the members of the royal family," says Mr. Lecky, "with the exception of Queen Caroline, he was the only one who possessed any remarkable ability."

Walpole, *George II.;* Lecky, *Hist. of Eng.;* Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*

Cumbria—(1) etymologically, is a more correct form of Cambria, and equivalent to Cumberland, *i.e.*, the land of the Cymry or Welsh; (2) historically, is used first in a wider sense to denote the Brythonic district between the Clyde and the Ribble, and west of the Pennine Range and Ettrick Forest,

which retained its native (Cymric) population after the English Conquest, and became in the sixth century a single state; secondly, in a narrower sense it is confined to the southernmost portion of that district, the modern Cumberland, the northern portion being called Reged and Strathclyde. But Strathclyde (*i.e.*, valley of the Clyde) is also used as equivalent to Cumbria in the wider sense. The dissolution of the Roman power in Britain seems to have led to a reversion to the primitive divisions of the Britons, but the constant pressure of the enemy forced them, no less than the English themselves, to greater union. Hence, by the sixth century, the larger Cumbria was consolidated by Rhydderch Hael (561) into a single state. It had already been, according to one theory, the main seat of the power of Arthur and the Gwledigau, had sent Cunedda to Gwynedd, and had produced the Four Bards, Taliesin, Aneurin, Merddyn, and Llywarch Hen. If the Goidel still ruled in much of North Wales, it was the largest homogeneous British state. In conjunction with the Kings of Scots and North Welsh, Rhydderch, in 573, finally defeated the heathen party at the battle of Ardderyd (Arthuret, near Carlisle). He brought Kentigern back from St. Asaph to found the bishopric of Glasgow. Alcluyd, the modern Dumbarton (fort of the Britons), became at once the northernmost stronghold and capital of the state. Carlisle was the chief fortress of its southern portion. The Cumbrian state became so powerful that it attempted before long to attack the Angles of Northumbria; but the terrible Æthelfrith revenged himself by the conquest of Chester and the massacre of the monks of Bangor Iscoed; and as the conquests of Edwin included the two Monas, they could hardly have left out "Strathclyde," as Cumbria was now often called. Whether Cadwallon, the ally of Penda, was or was not a Cumbrian cannot be decided; but his fall, in conjunction with the severance of the communication between Gwynedd and Cumbria, prevented the formation of a single great Welsh state. A long gap in Cumbrian history marks the overlordship of the Northumbrian Bretwaldas. At their fall, kings of the "Strathclyde Wealas" again appear (*e.g.*, their deaths are mentioned in 694 and 722), but they possess only local importance; and the continuance of the Anglian influence in Galloway (q.v.) must have almost cut their state in two. In the ninth century we read of the desolation of Alcluyd by the Danes, and a later Welsh legend speaks of a migration from the Vale of Clyde to the Vale of Clwyd. But the false etymology involved in the identification of two words sufficiently refutes this unlikely story. In the tenth century a line of Scottish princes became rulers of Cumbria, and, in 946, Edmund of Wessex conquered the whole country. He probably annexed the district south of the Derwent, and certainly bestowed all north of that stream on Malcolm, King of Scots, in return for allegiance and help against the Danes. But the connection with England did not cease, at least for the part south of the Solway, which William Rufus, in 1092, annexed to England. Its ruler, Dolfin, was an Englishman, so that, before the possible colonisation of Rufus, which revived Carlisle, almost in ruins since Danish devastations in the eighth century, the Cymric character of the district had not been entirely kept up. The county of Cumberland and bishopric of Carlisle were now founded; but the northern part still remained in the main an appanage of Scotland, and was bestowed by the Scottish kings on their sons. Yet a twelfth century charter speaks of the "Walenses" as a separate race, and it is possible that their speech lingered in remote valleys until the Reformation. The last remnant of Cumbrian independence was confined to the Pictish or Goidelic enclave of Galloway, and their amalgamation with the "Scots" into a single homogeneous nation by the common bond of anti-English feeling was the result of the injudicious legalism of Edward I.

The meagre Welsh Chronicles, *Annales Cambriæ* and *Brut y Tywysogion*, published in the Rolls Series, and the *Chronicles of the Picts and Scots*, edited by Mr. Skene. In *Celtic Scotland* Mr. Skene has collected all that is known of the early political, ecclesiastical, and social history of Cumbria. The same author's *Four Ancient Books of Wales* collects the remains of the possible Cumbrian bards, and some points of its history are luminously discussed in chap. x. of the *Introduction*. See also Rhŷs, *Celtic Britain*; Palgrave, *English Commonwealth*, vol. ii., pp. cccxxv.—cccxxix.; and Freeman, *William Rufus*. [T. F. T.]

Curfew, The, was introduced into England by William the Conqueror. By this custom a bell was rung in every town at eight o'clock in winter and at sunset in summer, when all fires and lights had to be extinguished. This regulation caused a great clamour in England, although the custom was at that time almost universal throughout Europe; it was a call to prayers, an intimation that it was bed-time, and a means of guarding against fire. According to William of Malmesbury, Henry I. allowed candles to be used at court after curfew-bell. The custom of ringing the curfew as an intimation of the approach of night was continued down to the seventeenth century, or even later, though the obligation to extinguish fires had, of course, been long since abandoned.

Curia Regis. The name Curia Regis was at different times applied to three distinct bodies:—(1) The feudal assembly of the tenants-in-chief; (2) the Privy Council, organised under Henry I.; (3) the Court of King's Bench, founded in 1178. (1) In the first signification, the Curia Regis combined the characters of Saxon witan and Norman

feudal court, and constituted the *Great Council* of the Realm, whose consent was required for the imposition of extraordinary taxes and the enactment of new laws, and whose advice on questions of State policy the king was expected at least to consult. In the presence of this body was undertaken every royal measure of national importance, judicial, financial, executive, and legislative, for as yet no distinction between the different functions of government was recognised; and thrice a year, on the great Church festivals, Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide, the king wore his crown in a solemn session convened at one of the provincial capitals. (2) But such a body was at once too unwieldy for the prompt despatch of business, and too intermittent to preserve administrative continuity. An inner council soon appeared, the nucleus of which was provided in the royal household, and took shape under Henry I. as the *Curia Regis proper*. It was practically a committee of the first, entrusted with the administration generally, legislation remaining, of course, with the national council, and composed of the great officers of State, Justiciar, Chancellor, Treasurer; the members of the royal household, Constable, Marshal, &c.; a number of clerks, chosen by the crown. This mixed composition was typical of the character of the body, which in different aspects might be regarded as (*a*) the Privy Council, (*b*) a Bureau of Administration, (*c*) a High Court of Justice, and out of which have sprung all the administrative institutions of the kingdom. In Henry I.'s eyes, finance was at once the end and the means of government. It was in his reign, therefore, that the Curia threw out the first of its many offshoots, the Court of Exchequer, organised by the Great Justiciar, Roger le Poer, Bishop of Salisbury, unless, indeed, the two bodies are parallel developments of the household, sitting in different capacities. From this moment the Curia Regis confines itself mainly to judicial work, and its members are styled *Justices*. All appeals, such cases of first instance as touched either the royal interest or the rights and conduct of tenants-in-chief, came before this court, whose jurisdiction was further extended by the system of writs to cases in which the customary law of the local courts could give no sufficient remedy. [Justices.] How far the Exchequer and the Curia Regis were co-extensive is uncertain; this at least is known: that every baron of the Exchequer sat also as a justice of the Curia Regis, and that to the intimate connection between the two we owe the system of judicial circuits. The first itinerant visitation by members of the inner council was directed solely to the assessment and collection of the royal dues; but as an important fraction of the revenue was derived from the fines inflicted in criminal cases, one duty of the Treasury officer was to enter the shire court, and hold the pleas of the crown. What was begun by the Exchequer from financial considerations, the Curia Regis continued and extended from motives of policy. It was not, however, till the reorganisation under Henry II., after the anarchy of Stephen's reign, that the system became part of the regular judicial machinery; and on the reservation to the Curia Regis of the three assizes of *Novel disseisin* (disputed claim to land), *Mort d'ancester* (inheritance), *Darein presentment* (advowsons), regular circuits were established. [Assize.] (3) The Curia Regis still continued to sit collectively, accompanying the king's movements from place to place. In 1178 the increasing importance of the judicial work induced Henry to establish a separate committee of five judges to hear the pleas of the crown (criminal actions), who were to be fixed to one spot. This is the origin of the *Court of King's Bench*, the Curia Regis in the third and most restricted sense, "the judicial committee of the conciliar committee of the full Curia Regis." To art. 17 of Magna Charta is due the separation of the third law court, that of Common Pleas (civil actions), which enacts that "The Common Pleas shall not follow our court, but shall be held in some fixed place." But the complete separation of the three bodies by the establishment of a separate staff of justices for each was not accomplished till late in the reign of Henry III.

The Court of Equity is but another offshoot of the Curia Regis. Petitions for redress of the hardships often inflicted by the common law continued to be heard by the king, in the presence of the Privy Council. As these multiplied, it soon became the custom for the Chancellor to arrange them before their submission to the king, and reject the more extravagant. Insensibly, this preliminary sorting assumed greater prominence, till by the reign of Richard II. it superseded the final examination altogether, and the Chancellor's jurisdiction took its place among the regular law courts.

This fecundity, however, did not alter the character, though it impaired the vitality, of the Curia Regis, which, after an intermittent activity during the Lancastrian period, was organised, on the accession of the Tudors, into the *Star Chamber*, a supreme court, specially directed against the lawlessness of the great feudal houses; and to this day the Privy Council retains, though it never exercises, its ancient judicial competence. As head of the Executive, the Curia Regis is also the lineal ancestor of the present Privy Council, and its infinitely more important offspring, the Cabinet.

Stubbs, Pref. to *Benedictus Abbas*, vol. ii. (Rolls Series); Hearne, *Govt. of England*, chap. xi.; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Gneist, *Eng. Verfassungsgeschichte*

[H. R. R.]

Curran, John Philpot (*b.* 1750, *d.* 1817), was born of humble parents at Newmarket, county Cork, and in 1775 he was called to the Irish bar. He soon rose to eminence. In 1782 he took silk, and in the following year was returned by a friend for a close borough in Westmeath. He at once took up the popular cause in Parliament, and was soon recognised as one of the most brilliant orators in the assembly. In 1785 Fitzgibbon, the Attorney-General, challenged him to a duel, on account of some sarcastic words which Curran had uttered about him in Parliament. The duel ended without bloodshed, but Fitzgibbon, as Lord Clare, throughout his life did his best to ruin his adversary. In Parliament Curran was, in ability at least, if not in position, the leader of the Whig party, and as such he strongly opposed the measures of Pitt's government with regard to Ireland. In 1806 Curran was appointed Master of the Rolls. In 1814 he retired on a pension. His health gradually broke down, and in his enfeebled state his mind gave way, and he put an end to his life at Chelsea on the 13th Oct., 1817. "Mr. Curran's place at the Irish bar," says his biographer, "has not ever been approached since his departure. There is no man, not merely next him, but near him."

Philips, *Life of Curran*; Plowden, *Hist. of Ireland*; Moore, *Life of Fitzgerald*; Hardy, *Life of Charlemont*; Grattan's *Life*; Froude, *English in Ireland*.

Curzon, George Nathaniel, first Baron Curzon of Kedleston (*b.* 1859), was educated at Eton and Balliol. He was Under-Secretary for India in 1891–2, and for Foreign Affairs from 1895 to 1898. In January, 1899, he was made Viceroy and Governor-General of India, being raised to the peerage on his appointment. In 1900 he had to deal with the worst famine which India has experienced under British rule. He has caused the formation of a new province, called the North-West Frontier Province. On Jan. 1, 1903, he presided at a great Durbar at Delhi in honour of the coronation of the first British Emperor of India. His term of office was extended after the Delhi Durbar, but he resigned in 1905.

Customs first appear in England in the thirteenth century, as the duties levied on wine, wool, and general merchandise. The tax on wine, which was taken in kind, was called *prisage*. Wool, the chief source of English wealth, was often made the subject of violent extortion, and the exorbitant toll taken on it was called the *maletote*. General merchandise was subject to an *ad valorem* toll. By the Great Charter, art. 41, the king promised liberty of trade according to the ancient and lawful customs, without any maletotes. Much uncertainty prevailed as to the amount which should be levied on merchandise, until the first Parliament of Edward I., 1275, granted the king a fixed amount on wool, skins, and leather, which is called the *custuma magna et antiqua*. This grant is the constitutional foundation of the customs. To this grant the king, in the Confirmatio Cartarum, 1297, promises to conform. He did not consider that he broke his word by making an arrangement with the foreign merchants for the payment of higher duties both on the export of wool, &c., and on the import of wine and other merchandise. This increase was called the *parva*, or *nova custuma*. It was abolished and restored in the reign of Edward II., and in the next reign became part of the ordinary revenue, and was recognised by statute. The popularity which attended the early part of the French war caused Parliament to grant the king extraordinary and oppressive customs on wool, which amounted to the maletote. A statute of 1340 provided that this exaction should not be made a precedent, and that the king should take no duties without the consent of his Parliament. During the latter part of his reign he obtained increased customs by arrangement with the merchants. At last, after a considerable struggle, all such arrangements were, in 1362, declared illegal. In the first half of the fourteenth century the customs on wine and merchandise were taken at a certain rate per tun and per pound, by special agreement with merchants and towns. These customs were, in 1373, made the subject of a grant by Parliament, and are then called tunnage and poundage. From the fourth year of Henry IV. to the ninth year of William III. the duty per pound on all export and import merchandise, except wool, &c., was 1s., and for this cause the term subsidy came to denote a general duty of 5 per cent. Henry V. first received the grant of tunnage and poundage for life, and this grant was made to all subsequent sovereigns until the reign of Charles I. In spite of the settlement of the right to levy customs, both Mary and Elizabeth acted on their own authority in the matter. Yet so trifling was the exaction in either case, that the very innovations of these queens seemed to acknowledge the strength of the claim which Parliament had so long upheld. James added fresh "impositions," as these arbitrary customs were called. These impositions were resisted, but were declared legal by the judges in *Bate's Case*. Their decision was followed by the production in 1608 of a new book of rates, which added imposition to the amount of £70,000 to the lawful customs. Against this usurpation the Commons vigorously protested. When Charles came to the throne, the Commons, for the first time in two hundred years, would not grant tunnage and poundage to the king for life. The king levied the tax without the grant, and (1628) seized the goods of the merchants who refused to pay it. In 1640, however, an Act was

passed (16 Car. I., c. 8), declaring that no such payments ought to be imposed without common consent in Parliament. At the Restoration the customs were again granted to the king for life, and a book of rates was authorised by Parliament, and signed by the Speaker. The settlement of the revenue after the Revolution closed the history of the political importance of the customs. By 9 Anne, c. 6, tunnage and poundage became part of the national income, and was made liable for the public debt; and in the reign of George II. the last remnant of the old customs was obliterated by the purchase of the right of prisage from the Duke of Grafton, to whose family it had been granted. The system of levying customs by books of rates, which often caused confusion and loss, was abolished by 27 Geo. III., c. 13, the *Customs Consolidation Act*, which provided a simple and uniform scheme of taxation. Since that date several alterations have been made in the customs. Among these changes, the most remarkable are those effected by the *Customs Tariff Amendment Act of* 1860. This was the result of a treaty with France, and by the reduction of the duty on wine effected by Mr. Gladstone, it has made the light wines of France cheap in England. Beneficial as this Act has been, it falls short in two respects of the highest standard of policy as regards customs. It made the regulation of our finances the subject of a treaty with a foreign country, and it introduced an element of uncertainty into a tax, by levying the duty on wine in proportion to the alcohol it contained The whole subject of duties on merchandise is regarded in a different light now to that which ruled our policy in connection with the customs a century and a half ago. Then taxes on commodities were imposed with a view to protecting native industry, and to benefit particular trades. Now the principle which causes their imposition is the necessity of obtaining revenue; not as an effort to favour home produce at the expense of the foreign producer. It was also widely held that a nation acted wisely in prohibiting or checking the export of useful commodities, and for this reason in early times the export customs formed the principal, and even in later times a considerable, part of the taxes on merchandise. Sir R. Walpole saw the fallacy of this theory, and made a step towards free trade by abolishing in one year duties on 106 exports and 38 imports. The system of *drawbacks*, originally looked on simply as a means of encouraging our shipping, has now been perfected by allowing the repayment of the whole import duty on the re-exportation of foreign goods. By the use of bonded warehouses, the merchant is enabled to pay the custom at the time most convenient to himself. This system was conceived by Sir R. Walpole, and carried out in 1803. The management of the customs is in the hands of a chairman and a board of commissioners (6 Geo. IV., c. 106), who are under the control of the Commissioners of the Treasury.

Stubbs, *Const. History*, c. xvii.; McCulloch's *Smith's Wealth of Nations*; McCulloch's *Dict. of Commerce*. [W. H.]

Custos Rotulorum is an officer of great antiquity who serves the function of keeper of the records of the sessions of a county. Acts were passed in 37 Henry VIII. (1545) and 3 & 4 Ed. VI. (1549) considerably limiting his importance, and the office was finally regulated in 1688. He must be a justice of the peace, and of the quorum, and is now usually the lord-lieutenant of a county, though the two offices are quite distinct, the one being military, the other civil.

Cutch is a native state of India which forms a peninsula to the south of Scinde. The Rao of Cutch entered into an agreement with the East India Company in 1809, and concluded treaties with Great Britain in 1816. Piracy was largely carried on by the inhabitants, and on this account, and in order to check the misgovernment of the province, the English intervened and deposed the Rao. By a treaty with Great Britain made in 1822, the country became tributary to England, and received a Resident appointed by the Bombay government.

Cuthbert, St. (*d.* 687), was in all probability a native of Northumbria, and born in the district which afterwards became the Lothians. Early in life he became a monk, and afterwards prior, at Melrose, under its first abbot, Eata, one of the disciples of Aidan, and followed him when he was transferred to Ripon. Subsequently, Eata was appointed Abbot of Lindisfarne, and Cuthbert accompanied him thither as prior, whence he retired to a hermitage on the adjacent island of Farne. At the entreaties of Egfred of Northumbria he quitted his retreat and allowed himself to be consecrated Bishop of Lindisfarne by Archbishop Theodore (685). Before his death, he again retired to his seclusion at Farne, where he died, March 20, 687. Cuthbert's life while at Melrose and Lindisfarne was one long missionary effort. He travelled over all northern Northumbria, and converted great numbers from heathenism. His fame was very great in the north, and many miracles were ascribed to his relics. Throughout the Middle Ages his shrine at Durham was a great centre of pilgrimage, and he continued to be the favourite saint of northern England.

The *Life of St. Cuthbert* was written by Bede, and there is another *Life* written by an anonymous and evidently contemporaneous author. See also Bede's *Ecclesiastical History*.

Cuthred, King of Wessex (740—754), was a kinsman of Æthelheard, whom he succeeded. He restored the position of

Wessex to what it had been in the days of Ini. In 743, in conjunction with the Mercians, he defeated the Britons. In 752 Cuthred and his people rose against the yoke of the Mercians, and utterly defeated the Mercian king Ethelbald at Burford, on the borders of Oxfordshire and Gloucestershire. In the next year he once more defeated the Britons, and died in 754 or 755, after a victorious career. [WESSEX.]

Cuttack. The country on the Coromandel coast forming the northern portion of Orissa, and lying eastward of Berar. It was conquered by the Mahrattas in 1751, and taken from them by the British at the outset of the campaign of 1803.

Cutts, JOHN, LORD (*d.* 1707), served with great gallantry in the wars of the reigns of William III. and Anne. At the battle of the Boyne he led the English regiments that had served under the States General, and was rewarded by an Irish peerage. He led the forlorn hope at the siege of Namur, and for his utter contempt of danger on that occasion obtained the honourable nickname of "the Salamander." In 1702 he led the storming party against Fort St. Michael, the stronghold of Venloo; and at the battle of Blenheim he conducted the assault on the village, but was repulsed with terrible loss. In 1705 he was made Commander-in-chief, and one of the Lord Justices of Ireland.

Marlborough, *Dispatches;* Macaulay, *Hist. of England.*

Cwichelm (*b.* 611, *d.* 636) was the son of Cynegils, King of the West Saxons, and for some time shared the throne of his father. Jealous of the power of Edwin of Northumbria, in 626 he sent off one of his servants with a poisoned dagger to murder that king, whose life was saved only by the devotion of his dependant, Edmer. Two years later Cwichelm and his father were worsted in a battle near Cirencester by the Mercian king Penda. In 636 Cwichelm was baptized at Dorchester (on the Thames) by Birinus, and died the same year.

Cymbeline (CUNOBELIN) was a British chief, whose capital was at Camulodunum (Colchester), and who, from the number of coins bearing his name, seems to have been a very powerful prince. [COINAGE.] The well-known Caractacus was his son.

Dio Cassius; Wright, *The Celt, the Roman, and the Saxon.*

Cymry is the native name of the Welsh. [CELTS; BRITONS; WALES.]

Cynegils, King of Wessex (611—643), was the son of Ceolric, and nephew of Ceolwulf, whom he succeeded. His son or brother, Cwichelm, seems to have been associated with him in the government. In 614 they fought against the Britons at Bampton, and routed them. They appear to have been hard pressed by the Northumbrians and Mercians, under Edwin and Penda respectively. In 628 Penda attacked Cirencester, and a treaty was made there which probably circumscribed the boundaries of Wessex on the north-west. In 635 Cynegils was converted to Christianity by Birinus (q.v.), and was baptized at Dorchester.

Cynewulf, King of Wessex (755?—784?), was descended from Cerdic, and became king on the deposition of Sigebert. He engaged in several hard-fought, though successful, conflicts with the Britons, but at what place and in what year we are not informed. He had a formidable rival in Offa of Mercia, and in 777 the stronghold of Bensington (near Wallingford) was captured by that king. In 784 Cynewulf was murdered at Merton, in Surrey, by Cyneheard, the brother of the former king, Sigebert. This tragedy is very finely related in the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, and the story is, as usual, amplified by Henry of Huntingdon.

Cynric (*d.* 560?), the son of Cerdic, seems to have been recognised as King of the West Saxons, conjointly with his father, in 519. He extended his kingdom after his father's death to the west and north, defeating the Britons at Old Sarum.

Cyprus, taken by Richard I. of England in 1191, was eventually given by him to the Lusignan family, one of whose last representatives married a Venetian lady, Catherine Cornaro. She, being left sovereign of the island, abdicated in 1489 in favour of the Venetian Republic, from which the Turks took it in 1571. On June 4, 1878, in view of the Treaty of Berlin (q.v.), an Anglo-Turkish Convention provided for its transfer to, and administration by, the British Government, the surplus of revenue over expenditure being paid to the Porte, which undertook to introduce reforms into its own administration. The object of the Convention was to secure Asiatic Turkey against further Russian aggression, and this England engaged to do, the Convention providing that if Russia ever retired from Batoum, Ardahan, and Kars, England should also retire from the island. Ever since then Cyprus has been under English rule, subject to nominal Turkish suzerainty.

D

Dacres, LEONARD, OF NAWORTH (*d.* 1581), "of the crooked back," a powerful gentleman of Northumberland, and the inheritor of the lands of Naworth. Dacres was privy to the Catholic Rebellion of the North in 1569, though he did not take an active part in it, and even

sided with the royalists when he saw all was lost. His arrest was, nevertheless, ordered, but could not be carried into execution, owing to the large number of men who assembled at Naworth to protect its lord. On the first opportunity Dacres escaped into Scotland, and subsequently joined the Duke of Alva's army in the Low Countries.

Aiken, *Elizabeth*; Sadler, *State Papers*.

Dacres, Lord of Hurstmonceaux (*d.* 1541) (Lord Dacres of the South), was a young nobleman who, in company with several friends, had engaged in a deer-stealing expedition to the park of an unpopular neighbour. During the affray which ensued one of the foresters was killed, and the whole party were brought up for trial, and a verdict of wilful murder was returned. Despite all the efforts of Dacres's friends, Henry VIII. would not consent to spare the young man's life, saying he would deal out equal justice to all ranks. Lord Dacres was accordingly executed in 1541.

Dægsastan, or **Dawston,** was the scene of the great victory won by Ethelfrith of Northumbria (603) over Aidan, King of the Scots, who was followed by a large force of Irish Picts and Britons. Ethelfrith was assisted by the Dalriads, and gained a signal victory. Dægsastan is probably Dawston in Roxburghshire.

Dalhousie, George, 9th Earl of (*b.* 1770, *d.* 1838), distinguished himself as a soldier in his earlier life. For his services in the French War, and especially at the battle of Waterloo, he was raised to a peerage in the United Kingdom. In 1816 he was appointed Governor of Nova Scotia, and four years later Governor-General of Canada. More of a soldier than a statesman, he failed to conciliate the democratic party, who were clamouring for reforms. About this time a committee of the House of Commons declared the grievances of the Canadians to be real, and in 1828 Lord Dalhousie was recalled.

Dalhousie, James Andrew Brown-Ramsay, 1st Marquis and 10th Earl of (*b.* 1812, *d.* 1860), was the third son of the ninth Earl of Dalhousie, and was educated at Harrow and Oxford. He entered the House of Commons young, but was soon called to the Upper House, on his father's death. Under Sir Robert Peel's ministry he was successively Vice-President and President (1844) of the Board of Trade—a post in which he did much to develop our railway system. On the fall of Sir Robert Peel's government he did not quit office, but was soon appointed Governor-General of India (1848). It was a time of great peril for British India, where the Sikhs were threatening much trouble, and in such an emergency Dalhousie determined to be on the scene of danger. After the victories of Goojerat and Moultan, he re-organised the government of the Punjaub, and in 1852, by the capture of Pegu, completed the frontier of British Burmah. The remainder of his term of office was occupied in consolidating the great empire under his rule. Oude and Nagpore, in addition to Pegu and the Punjaub, were brought directly under our government, while the Civil Service was more and more thrown open to all natural born subjects of the crown, English and Hindoo alike. Under the strain his health began to fail, and in 1856 he resigned office, and soon afterwards left Calcutta for Europe. Parliament passed a vote of thanks to him for his services, and the government showed its sense of his merits by creating him a marquis.

Duke of Argyll, *India under Dalhousie and Canning*. [T. A. A.]

Dalling and Bulwer, Henry Lytton Earle Bulwer, Lord (*b.* 1801, *d.* 1872), was sent as Minister to Madrid in 1843, where he remained until, in 1848, he was ordered to leave the kingdom upon presenting to the queen-mother Lord Palmerston's recommendations to adopt a more Liberal policy. From 1849 to 1852 he was Minister at Washington (where he negotiated the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty), and from 1852 to 1855 at Florence. From 1857 till 1865 he was ambassador at Constantinople. In 1871 he was created Baron Dalling and Bulwer.

Dalriada—*Dal-Riada*, "the home of the descendants of Riada"—was (1) a district in Ireland, including the northern half of county Antrim, apparently one of the oldest settlements of the Scots among the Picts of Ulster; (2) the name given to the district of Argyleshire, settled by the immigrant Scots from Ireland. [For the history of the *Kingdom of Dalriada*, see article on Scots.]

Skene, *Celtic Scotland*, vol. i.

Dalry, The Battle of, was an engagement fought between John of Lorn, a relation of Comyn, and Robert Bruce. In this engagement the Scottish king distinguished himself by the skill with which he moved back his armoured knights from the swarm of half-naked Highlanders, who made the attack upon ground that was essentially unfavourable for the operations of cavalry.

Dalrymple, Sir Hew (*b.* 1750, *d.* 1830), obtained an ensign's commission in the 31st Regiment in 1762. After holding various other commands, he was in 1806 appointed Governor of Gibraltar, where he remained until August, 1808, when he was placed in command of the British army in Portugal. He arrived at head-quarters the day after Wellesley's victory at Vimiero, and superseded Burrard, who had already superseded Wellesley, and had prevented him from

taking full advantage of his victory. On Junot's proposal, terms were very soon made by Dalrymple with the French, which were embodied in the Convention of Cintra. The news of that convention was received with the loudest indignation in England, and the three commanders were recalled, and put on their trial. Sir Hew was deprived of his command; but his disgrace was of brief duration, and terminated in 1812, when he was restored to the rank of general, while two years later he was made a baronet. In 1818 he was appointed Governor of Blackness Castle, which post he seems to have held up to the time of his death. [VIMIERO; CINTRA.]

Cunningham, *Eminent Englishmen*; Napier, *Peninsular War.*

Dalrymple, SIR JAMES. [STAIR, VISCOUNT.]

Dalrymple, SIR JOHN. [STAIR, 2ND VISCOUNT.]

Dalrymple, DAVID. [HAILES, LORD.]

Dalrymple, SIR JAMES, Master of Stair (*b.* 1619, *d.* 1695), was one of the commissioners sent to London (1689) to offer the crown of Scotland to William III. He was an able and unscrupulous man, so unpopular that the Scotch Parliament endeavoured to pass a measure disqualifying him from holding office, on the ground that he had assailed the liberties of the country in the previous reigns. His name will, owing to the orders issued by him as Secretary for Scotland, ever be execrated in history, in connection with the Massacre of Glencoe (q.v.). After an inquiry into the matter, he was severely censured by the Estates, who "begged that his Majesty would give such orders concerning him as he might deem necessary for the vindication of his government." Lord Macaulay calls him "one of the first men of his time—a jurist, a statesman, a fine scholar, an eloquent orator," and considers that his treacherous cruelty to the Macdonalds arose from the fact that regarding them as he did in the light of enemies of law, of industry, and of trade, he came altogether to forget the turpitude of the means in the excellence of the end.

Dalrymple, SIR JOHN (*b.* 1726, *d.* 1810), was born in Edinburgh, educated at Cambridge, and became an advocate at the Scotch bar, and afterwards a judge of the Scotch Exchequer. He wrote, besides some legal works, *Memoirs of Great Britain from the last Parliament of Charles II. to the Battle of La Hogue*, 3 vols., 1771.

Dalziel, THOMAS, GENERAL (*d.* 1685?), distinguished himself as an officer on the royal side in the Parliamentary wars. He was taken prisoner at the battle of Worcester, and sent as a prisoner to the Tower, from which, however, he managed to escape to Muscovy, where he served against the Poles and Tartars. After the Restoration, he returned home (1665), and was appointed commander-in-chief of Charles II.'s forces in Scotland—a post which he held till his death, excepting for the few days when he was superseded by the Duke of Monmouth, whom Dalziel is said to have refused to serve. He defeated the Covenanters at the battle of Pentland Hills (1666), only losing five men on his side, and after this victory is said by Burnet to have "acted the Muscovite too grossly," threatening to spit and roast all the disaffected. After the battle of Bothwell Bridge (1679), General Dalziel arrived at the royal camp with his commission renewed, and reproached the Duke of Monmouth for his leniency towards the insurgents. He was remarkable for the eccentricity of his appearance, and at London, whither he always went once a year to kiss the king's hand, drew around him a rabble of boys to stare at his huge white beard, which, not having been shaved since the death of Charles I., reached to his waist. He died soon after the accession of James II., in the year 1685 or 1686.

Smith, *Memoirs of Crichton*; Burnet, *History of his Own Time*; Granger, *Biographical History.*

D'Amory, ROGER (*d.* 1322), married one of the three sisters of Gilbert of Clare, Earl of Gloucester. In 1317, when war broke out between the Earls of Lancaster and Warenne, Roger joined with the Earl of Pembroke to obtain supremacy in the king's councils. In 1320 Lancaster received his help in his attack upon the Spencers; and his name is included in a list of peers who received pardon for any illegalities they might have committed in bringing the favourites to justice (1321). His quarrel with the younger Spencer was probably due to their joint claims in the Gloucester inheritance: for they had married sisters. Later in the same year, when Edward II. took arms, Roger D'Amory was one of the first to feel the effects of the king's recovered strength. His castles were attacked, and before long he fell into the hands of his enemies at Tutbury—a misfortune which he did not long survive.

Danegeld, THE, was a tax of two shillings on each hide of land, and was levied primarily as a tribute for the Danes, though it continued long after the occasion for which it was first levied had passed away. It seems originally to have been a tax on cultivated lands, and to have been first levied in the times of Ethelred II., probably for the first time in 991. Edward the Confessor abolished it, but William the Conqueror seems to have revived it again at a threefold rate of six shillings the hide (1084). This tax was continued until the reign of Henry II. An imposition apparently almost identical in character with the Danegeld, of two shillings on the hide, formed one of the earliest points of

dispute between Henry II. and Becket in 1163; and as from this very year the Danegeld ceased to be a distinct item in the king's revenue, it is inferred that the Danegeld was thus abolished by the energetic opposition of the archbishop. From this time it was for some years represented in the accounts by a tax, under the name of *donum*, or *auxilium* [Aid], which, according to Dr. Stubbs, was still levied on a new computation of *hidage*, till under Richard I. it acquired the new name of *carucage* (q.v.).

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, vol. iv.

Danelagh (Danelaw, or Denalagu). The name given to that part of England where Danish blood, customs, and laws had to a greater or less extent modified, or usurped the place of, the corresponding Anglian features. Roughly speaking, we may say that the Danish influence gradually lessened as the distance from Yorkshire increased. The extent of Daneland varied at different periods. The great stretch of country that was in later times included under the general name of the Danelagh seems to have been due to three, if not four, different colonisations. First came the settlement in Deira, which, beginning with the conquest of York in 867, was consummated when Halfden separated from the southern *here* in 875, and next year divided Deira among his host. The southern part of this province may be considered as the very heart of the settlement, the district where the Danes were most numerous. Here the typical Danish endings *thorpe* and *caster* and *by* occur in the greatest profusion. But the Danes do not appear to have spread into Lancashire in any numbers, and the Norse names in Cumberland and Westmoreland are probably due to invasions of another time and family. Nor do the Danes seem to have colonised beyond the Tees. Across this boundary river, with a few exceptions, the *tons* and the *hams* are the rule, and it is said that only four *bys* are to be found north of the last-named river. Beyond its banks are Chester-le-Street and Chesterwood; Stockton and Middleham take the place of Doncaster, Whitby, and Barwick. But even within the more strictly Danish districts of the north, we must not suppose an extirpation of the Anglian inhabitants. These being very near by blood and language to their conquerors, the latter came in merely as new lords, and an entirely fresh state of things was not set up. So Collingham lies close by Wetherby and Alverthorpe by Wakefield, and Chester House not very far from North Allerton. The second great Danish colony was that of Lincoln, which seems to have spread down to the borders of Holland (a district distinctly non-Danish in its local nomenclature), and is marked by the same general features as the colony in Deira, only in a less degree. The heart of this settlement seems to have been in the Lindsey uplands. The partition of this part of the country took place probably in 877. The colonisation of Lindsey seems to be distinct from that which included Leicester, Nottingham, Derby, and Northampton, and which, in some parts, even extended a few miles beyond Watling Street. In later years this settlement appears in history as embracing Lincoln, and is then known as the "Five Boroughs." The fourth and last important Danish conquest was that of East Anglia and Essex. But here the colonisation must have been very slight. The typical Danish endings are comparatively rare both in Norfolk and Suffolk, and there is only one district that is largely characterised by the *by* termination: that lying round the mouth of the Yare. Such were the three or four great divisions of the Danish settlements in England, and their furthest extent is marked by the Treaty of Wedmore between Alfred and Guthrum, as up the Thames to the Lee, along the Lee to its source, then to Bedford, and thence up the Ouse to Watling Street. But the whole of this territory can never have been in any strict sense Danish, and the greater part was gradually won back, and incorporated with the West Saxon monarchy. Under Edward the Elder, the greater part of Mercia and Essex was recovered; East Anglia submitted in 921, as did the Danish earldom of Northampton; while in 941, the Five Boroughs were finally won for the West Saxon crown. Meanwhile, the Danish kingdom of the north had been tottering, and was deprived of its independence by Edred (854).

There are, unfortunately, very few materials remaining from which to reconstruct the special features even of those divisions of the Danelagh where the Scandinavian influence was strongest. The two great settlements of Deira and Lindsey were divided into *ridings*, or *trithings*, and these again sub-divided into *wapentakes*—a term which corresponds with the hundreds of the south. The court of the trithing was superior to that of the wapentake, and this arrangement has been considered to point to a systematic division of the land, more especially as, in Yorkshire, all three ridings converge towards the town of York. In Domesday, Leicestershire, Nottinghamshire, and Derbyshire appear as divided into wapentakes, but the trithing, as was to be expected, is not to be found in these counties. Northamptonshire and Rutland had both wapentakes and hundreds; while the East Anglian counties had neither trithing nor wapentake. East Anglia was for a time governed by its own Danish king, as was Deira in the north; but there does not appear to have been any such dignity in Lindsey or the Five Boroughs, though each of the five towns may have had its own army, with its own earl, and the occurrence of

twelve *lawmen* in Lincoln and Stamford may perhaps point to a similar form of government in Leicester and the other two towns. The difference in law between Danish and West Saxon Britain cannot have been very great. "The customs of compurgation, wergeld, and other pecuniary compositions for the breach of the peace, were common to both races. But, while by Alfred's treaty with Guthrum, English and Danes were in East Anglia reckoned equally dear, in Yorkshire, the wergeld of the Danish *hold* was greater than that of the Anglian or Saxon thegn, Mr. Robertson considers that the Northern Danes "eradicated every vestige of proprietary rights in the districts actually colonised," whereas the Eastern Danes quietly settled down alongside of the earlier Anglian inhabitants; and Dr. Stubbs has noticed how fully the allodial tenure must have been reinstated in Yorkshire and East Anglia. But in any case, however trifling they may have been, certain easily recognisable distinctions did separate the laws and customs of the Danelagh from those of Mercia and Wessex. It is to this fact that Edgar alludes when he wills that "with the Danes, such laws should stand as they best may choose;" or, again, when he bids the Danes inflict punishment "according to their law." Canute recognises the same distinction, which re-appears even after the Conquest, till it vanishes away during the wars of Stephen. With Henry II. the king's justice was in every land, and the historians of his reign, in using the term, show themselves uncertain what shires belong to this division.

The following are the shires reckoned in the Danelagh at different periods:—Yorkshire, Norfolk, Suffolk, Essex, Nottinghamshire, Lincolnshire, Leicestershire, Derbyshire, Rutland, Northamptonshire, Cambridgeshire, Huntingdonshire, Buckinghamshire, Bedfordshire, Hertfordshire. [DANES.]

Robertson, *Scotland under her Early Kings*; Stubbs, *Constitutional History*; Freeman, *Norman Conquest*; Green, *The Conquest of England*; Thorpe, *Ancient Laws and Institutes of England*; Worsaae, *Danes in England*; I. Taylor, *Words and Places*; Streatfeild, *Lincolnshire and the Danes*.

[T. A. A.]

Danes (also called NORTHMEN, or WIKINGS) are generically the Scandinavian freebooters and immigrants (not only those from Denmark proper), whose incursions and settlements fill a large space in English history from the eighth to the eleventh century.

Mr. Freeman has distinguished three stages of Danish invasion, in which the objects were plunder, settlement, and conquest respectively. (1) The first stage begins with the devastation of Northumbria, in 787. Every year saw fresh swarms of pirates pillaging the coasts, and sometimes penetrating far inland. Not only England, but all Northern Europe, was exposed to these inroads, and as the triumphs of Charles the Great had made access to North Germany difficult, it was by sea that they commonly went on their forays. Their object was mainly plunder. Settlement or conquest was impossible. Scandinavia was cut up into so many petty states, that the necessary degree of cohesion was hardly yet obtainable for combined efforts. Sated with booty, the sea-kings returned to their native dales and fjords, to sally forth again at the approach of summer. Fierce heathens as yet, they destroyed every Christian shrine and sanctuary, spread universal misery and want, and added a new and terrible danger to the many terrors of early mediæval times. (2) Within a century of the first inroads of the Wikings, a great revolution in Scandinavia began a new era. Great kings arose in the north, who subjected to themselves the wide districts that became known as Norway, Sweden, and Denmark. The *jarls* or petty kinglets who ruled each *harad* (district or county) of Scandinavia were crushed into dependence on a new centralising national power. Harold the Fair-haired (Harfagr) in Norway, Gorm the Old in Denmark, raised themselves by sheer personal vigour into the position of kings of the whole land. Eric of Upsala, to a lesser extent, made every district of Sweden and Gottland acknowledge the political and religious supremacy of the protector of the great sanctuary of Upsala. It was the same process that was consolidating England into a single state, and which afterwards became the source of the national idea. But as in England and Germany, the new development proved a deadly foe to the primitive Teutonic polity, which had survived till the eighth century in Scandinavia, just as it had been described by Tacitus in the first century in Germany. All conservative instincts revolted against the degradation of the sovereign jarl to the condition of personal subordination to the new monarch. The best and bravest of the Northmen abandoned their native land, and sought to win by their swords a new home for their old polity. Hence the great Scandinavian migrations of the ninth century. Again the Northmen poured into England, seeking, like the English themselves three centuries earlier, a definite settlement. The second half of the ninth century is the limit of this period; at its close half Britain was Danish. The formidable alliance of Danes and West Welsh, which Egbert crushed at Hengestesdun, perhaps marks the beginning of the change. Under Ethelred I. of Wessex the crisis was reached. Between 867 and 869 Northumbria, long distracted by anarchy, accepted as monarch the dependent of the pagan invaders. In 868 Mercia was overrun, and in 870 the martyrdom of the sainted King Edmund attested the completeness of their conquest of East Anglia. In 871 the ruling kingdom of the West Saxons was invaded. A brilliant series of hard-fought battles

taught the invader that Wessex was not so easy a prey as the subject states. When Ethelred died in the middle of the contest, his brother Alfred kept up the struggle. He succeeded in clearing his own territory at the expense of the overlordship won by Egbert. But Deira, Northumbria, and East Anglia were regularly occupied and symmetrically divided among the conquerors with the same numerical precision as marks the allotment of Iceland. A fresh invasion of Wessex in 878 reduced Alfred to the lowest pitch of degradation, but his marvellous revival led to the Treaty of Wedmore, that acknowledged the *status quo*, and gave the Danes all the land north-east of Watling Street (*i.e.*, Chester to Hertford), and the Lea and Lower Thames. Within this Danelagh a new Scandinavia arose; and a new swarm of *haradskonungr*, like Guthorm of East Anglia, seemed to undo the work of the Pendas and Edwins. North of Deira an English line continued to reign in Bamborough. While this was going on in England, other settlements were being effected in the north and west. Fresh swarms of Wikings, who fled "from the tyranny of Harold Fairhair," colonised the Orkneys, Shetland, Faroe, Hebrides, and the southern isles as far as Man, and in Sutherland and Caithness effected a settlement on the mainland. Indignant at their desertion, Harold went in person to subdue them to his sway. The boldest sought a remoter home in the hitherto desert Iceland, and thence in Greenland and Vinland (Massachusetts) are said to have established the first European colonies in the New World. Others went to the east coast of Ireland, where such names as Waterford and Wexford perpetuate the memory of the Wiking state. Thence they inflicted severe blows on Wales and Strathclyde. The abundance of *fords*, *holms*, and *garths* in the region round Milford Haven testifies that the wandering sea-king found amidst the deep inlets of south-western Dyfed the likeness of the fjords of his northern home. Fainter traces of a possible settlement in Anglesea, clearer ones of an occupation of the lands round Solway Firth, mark the ubiquity of the sea-kings' ravages. Sometimes, as in the Orkneys and Shetlands, and in the extreme north of Scotland, they drove away the old Celtic inhabitants. In others they displayed that capacity for assimilation with the subject race that always marked their descendants. Outside the bounds of Britain, similar colonising bands won Normandy from the Carolings, and effected smaller settlements on other parts of the Gaulish coast. Eastwards over the Baltic, Rurik and his Wikings founded a dynasty in Russia, whence the wàranger carried the terror of the Scandinavian name to the court of the Eastern Cæsars. The Peace of Wedmore began a new period in the relation between English and Danes. For a century we hear little of fresh invasions from beyond sea, but a constant war went on between the Danes in England and the West Saxon monarchs who endeavoured to subdue them. Even the constant devastations of the "black pagans," which laid waste Carlisle, and harried with fearful effects Wales after the death of Howel Dha, were the work mostly of Danish settlers in Ireland, or of colonists among the Brythons themselves. The steps of this new struggle are as follows: Alfred rested content with the acknowledgment of his overlordship and the recognition of Christianity among the Danish settlers. Edward the Elder and his sister Æthelflæd, the "Lady of the Mercians," went a step farther by building a strong line of fortress along the frontier of the Danelagh, which prevented further invasions of Wessex and West Saxon Mercia, and were starting-points for the subjection of the sons of the Wikings. Athelstan exceeded this by establishing friendly relations with the princes of Scandinavia, by defeating the great confederacy of Danes and Celts at Brunanburh, and by beginning the direct re-conquest of the lands ceded at Wedmore. Edred, or Dunstan his minister, completed the process by the conquest of Northumbria and the assumption of imperial titles. Edgar, called first to power by the northern and Danish half of the nation, consolidated the process by renewing the liberal, yet effectual, policy of Dunstan. Under him, the Danes became Englishmen, and the Danelagh a merely legal distinction. The re-conquest was thus completed. With Ethelred the Unready everything went wrong, and before long the dangers of the eighth and ninth century were revived by fresh plunderings of new Wiking hordes from Scandinavia. But the first stage thus renewed soon led to the second coming back, and the kings of the north were now too powerful to brook subjects establishing new Normandies or Icelands at their expense. Hence they resolved to take part in these expeditions of plunder and settlement, and thus Mr. Freeman's third stage of political conquest, a stage never attained on the Continent, begins. The King of all Denmark now sets to work to conquer all England. After many failures, Swegen succeeded in his attempt, and handed down his power to his greater son, Canute, who reigned as legal King of England with the assent of the English people, which, if formal at first, became ultimately as real as any such popular recognitions were, and was only withdrawn when the quarrels and misconduct of Harthacanute and Harold led to the restoration of the West Saxon line in Edward the Confessor.

The really important Danish period of English history now ends; but Wiking forages were still not unknown, and expeditions of Danish and Norse princes still continued for nearly a century. In England, the great invasion of the heroic Harold Hardrada in 1066 might, if successful, have placed another Danish dynasty on the throne. All

through the Conqueror's reign similar, if fainter, assaults were feared in the nominal interest of the English cause. The extraordinary career of Magnus of Norway among the Western Isles, ending in his war in Anglesea with the Earls of Chester and Shrewsbury in 1098, was the last exploit of the Wikings that has any direct relation to English history. Brian Boroimhe's victory of Clontarf (1014) was the death-blow to the Scandinavian states in Ireland. But in Scotland, though Caithness was annexed in 1196, it was not till 1263 that the battle of Largs put an end to their capacity for aggression, and led to the annexation of the Western Islands to Scotland; but they retained their ecclesiastical dependence on Trondhjem till the fifteenth century, when also the Orkneys and their dependencies were practically handed over to James III.

Apart from the general misery and want, these plunderings were too irregular to leave any deeply-seated effects behind them. A retrogression towards barbarism, the decline of learning and culture that attended the sack of the Mercian abbeys, a partial forcing on of the feudalising tendency as best adapted for defence, is all that can safely be ascribed to them. Little positively can be affirmed of the results of the Danish Conquest, either on the nation generally or on those special districts which became Danish by the Treaty of Wedmore. That they had a bracing effect upon the nation can safely be conjectured, but Mr. Robertson's argument that "a greater amount of freedom existed in the Danelagh than in Wessex and English Mercia" is based on too imperfect an induction to be safely admitted as a proved fact. Still, there can be no doubt that the advent of a new race, whose very object in emigration was to preserve their old Teutonic polity unstained by the innovations of Harfagr, did largely tend to strengthen at a time of weakness the traditional, national, and Teutonic constitution of England, and so in this respect to retard the territorialising tendency. On the other hand, however, the effect of the increased militarism which foreign invasion necessitated was directly feudal. If the Danes put off the unity of England by undoing the work of Offa, Edwin, and Egbert, they made it more certain in the end by the effacement of tribal distinctions, and by the consolidation of what remained English, which directly followed the struggle with them. But it is very improbable that the Danes introduced many definite changes in law or custom. The peculiar usages of the Danelagh may as much be Anglian as Danish. Anyhow, the fact that the Danelagh was a territory, within which all of whatever race acknowledged the "Danish custom," shows that absence of personal law is important in English history. The Danes never dispossessed the Anglian population; their institutions, so far as we know them, were fundamentally the same as the English. As soon as they became Christians they were practically Englishmen, just as the Normans became Frenchmen, only in both cases there was a superior vigour, a survival of the old Wiking days. Traces in local nomenclature: the substitution of "by" for "tun;" the "forces," "nesses," "fords," and "holms" of North England; the division into wapentakes and ridings, are clearly Danish; but such effects are purely superficial. The same thing took a new name. The wite, the doom, the ealdorman, the frith, became the lahslit, lah, jarl, and grith. But as the Northman became French in Normandy, so he became Anglian in Mercia and Goidelic in Man—which, though the very centre of Norse power, retains to this day its Celtic speech, while half the place-names of the island keep their original form. Only in the region of government where a thoroughly Norse institution was superimposed on a Celtic polity, to the extinction of the latter, is the Danish influence clearly displayed. In the Hebrides the clans survived the Norse jarls, although the local names betray Norse influence. We may conjecture that the Danish settlement began the series of events that has made South Pembrokeshire an English-speaking district. In Orkney and Shetland, Caithness and Sunderland, alone did the Conquest extend so thoroughly as to supersede the old language for one which, under later influences, easily became English. Though great changes followed Canute's domination, it is very hard to say what part of them followed on the introduction of Northern customs and institutions. Even the introduction of huscarls added no new element to English development. No one now believes that Canute's "forest-law" was Danish. Canute's idea of a northern empire could more easily be got from the history of Edgar than from any precedents of anarchic Scandinavia. In fact, England had more influence on Denmark and Norway than these latter had on her. Canute's reign is of the greatest political importance, as producing on a small scale the same tendencies that were afterwards developed to a greater extent by the Norman Conquest. But only very indirectly can Danish influence be said to be a factor in this process. The Northern antiquaries, who refer every point of similarity with their own state to Danish influence on England, ignore how much both have in common, and the assimilative capacity of a barbarous but vigorous race in contact with one of superior, though only slightly superior, civilisation.

Worsaae's *Danes and Norwegians in England, Scotland, and Ireland* is the fullest special work on this subject, but its usefulness is impaired by the readiness with which every English institution is assigned to a Scandinavian original. Stubbs's *Constitutional History*, i. § 77, gives an exhaustive summary of the general effects of the Danish invasions. *Cf.* Robertson, *Scotland under her Early Kings*, ii., *Essay on the Dane Law*; and Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, especially for the

reign of Canute. Konrad Maurer, whose *Island* gives the best account of the purest form of Scandinavian polity developed in isolation, has also, in his *Kritische Ueberschau*, treated parts of the subject with great discrimination. For the Scandinavians at home, Snorro's *Heimskringla*, translated by Laing, abridged in Carlyle's *Early Kings of Norway*, is the great authority, and Dahlmann's *Geschichte von Dannemark* a good modern account. For the islands, Munch's edition of *Chronicon Regum Mannia* and Anderson's *Orkney inga Saja* are important. *Cf.* Skene's *Celtic Scotland*, especially i. 302, 325–6, 338, 386, 492. [T. F. T.]

Dangerfield, Thomas (*d.* 1685), the inventor of the "Meal-Tub Plot" (q.v.), was a man of profligate life, who had been more than once branded, whipped, and imprisoned for felony. His disclosures implicating the Presbyterian leaders were not believed, and his retractation and subsequent accusation of the Catholics led fortunately to no judicial murders, as in the case of his fellow-informers, Oates and Bedloe. [Popish Plot.] On the accession of James II., Dangerfield was convicted of libel in connection with the Meal-Tub Plot, and was put in the pillory and whipped. On his way back to prison, he was brutally assaulted by a Roman Catholic lawyer named Francis, and a few days afterwards died.

D'Arblay, Madame (*b.* 1752, *d.* 1840), was the marriage name of Frances Burney, the daughter of Dr. Johnson's friend, Charles Burney, and the authoress of *Evelina*, *Cecilia*, &c. Her *Memoirs*, which were first published in 1842, are of some value for the information they afford us concerning the court of George III.

Darcy, Thomas, Lord (*d.* 1537), was a faithful subject of the crown throughout the reign of Henry VII. During the Cornish outbreak of 1497, being made one of the royal commissioners appointed for a thorough investigation of the various circumstances of the rebellion, he showed his zeal for the king by the merciless severity of his proceedings. Later on, in the same year, Darcy accompanied the Earl of Surrey in his hasty march to the relief of Norham Castle, then closely besieged by the Scotch under James IV. and Perkin Warbeck; and it was presumably as a reward for his services on this occasion that he was appointed to the Constableship of Bamborough Castle, and in 1498 to the Captaincy of the town of Berwick and the Wardenship of the East and Middle Marches of Scotland. Darcy's suspected sympathy with the insurrection that broke out in Lincolnshire in 1536, and his unmistakable co-operation with the Yorkshire nobles in the popular rising known as the "Pilgrimage of Grace," which immediately succeeded the Lincolnshire revolt, were circumstances which at once singled him out for the vengeance of Thomas Cromwell. A very brief examination was sufficient to prove Darcy's treasonable connection with the rioters of 1537, and he was accordingly beheaded June 30, 1537. [Pilgrimage of Grace.]

Bacon's *Life of Henry VII.*; Froude, *Hist. of England.*

Dardanelles, The Passage of the, was accomplished in 1807 by Sir John Duckworth, who thus lent considerable aid to the Russian troops invading Moldavia and Wallachia. A desultory fire was opened on the English ships from both the European and Asiatic sides of the Straits, but without much effect. An ultimatum was sent to the Turkish government, which opened negotiations so as to save time. So successful and speedy were their defences that the English admiral determined at last to retrace his steps (March 1, 1807)—a feat which he accomplished under heavy fire. Admiral Duckworth then contented himself with blockading the Straits. This expedition, though unsuccessful in its results, was well planned, and calculated, had it succeeded, to have strengthened very materially the resistance offered by Russia to Napoleon.

Darien Company, The. After founding the Bank of England in 1694 [Banking], Robert Paterson conceived the idea of inaugurating a company in which the Scotch should find a field for their enterprise equal to that possessed by the English in the East India Company. The trade with Eastern and Southern Asia had long been passing round by the Cape, and was virtually in the hands of this great Company. Paterson therefore argued that by establishing a colony at Darien, the Eastern world might more directly exchange its products with the Western. In 1695 an Act was passed in the Scottish Parliament, giving to the newly-formed African Company, whose directors were equally divided between England and Scotland, special and peculiar powers to make settlements and build cities, harbours, and fortifications in Asia, Africa, or America. They were likewise authorised to make alliances with distant powers in these three parts of the world, and to defend themselves if attacked; while to restrain private adventurers, all other Scotchmen were prohibited from trading in the districts occupied by the said company. But when the news of this concession reached England the Parliament at Westminster was loud in condemning such unwarranted privileges granted to the Northern kingdom, and William was forced to disown his Commissioner's Act, and withdraw, as King of England, the charter which as King of Scotland, he had granted his representative. The result of this outcry was that the English capital was withdrawn from the scheme, and its whole burden thrown on the Scotch, who soon subscribed a nominal sum of £400,000, of which, however, it appears that only a little more than half was actually paid

up. It was not all at once that Paterson made known the exact spot at which he would fix his great station, and even when the fleet was ready to sail, in 1698, its destination was not precisely known. A few vessels had been procured from Amsterdam and Hamburg, the largest of which would have been one of the smallest in the English navy, and the expedition set sail under the guidance of a council of seven. The cargo laid in seems to have been just the things which would *not* be wanted by the inhabitants of the region to which they were being sent. Huge periwigs, heavy woollen stuffs, and hundreds of English Bibles were scarce likely to meet the wants of the Spaniards or Indians dwelling in a tropical clime. After suffering some privation for lack of provisions, the fleet anchored off the Isthmus of Darien, and taking possession of the country, called it New Caledonia, and at once commenced to dig trenches for their new city of New Edinburgh. Negotiations were opened with the natives, and the representative plan of government which had been decided upon at home was commenced to be carried into effect. Meanwhile the site of the new settlement became known in Europe; the Spanish ambassador was loud in his complaints, and preparations were made in the Spanish ports for an expedition against the intruders. But in Scotland the frenzy increased, and in August, 1699, four more ships were despatched to the isthmus, with thirteen hundred men on board. But by the time the new expedition reached its destination the preceding one had disappeared. Unable to toil in the tropical heat, and unaccustomed to tropical foods, the Scotch settlers perished by scores, till at last the survivors, disregarding Paterson's entreaties to be left with a few companions to welcome the reinforcements from home, put off for New York; and four months later the second expedition found the site of New Edinburgh a wilderness. It was in vain that they attempted to reconstruct the colony. Dissensions broke out, and mortality was high; and to crown all, a Spanish squadron anchored off their walls. With great difficulty a negotiation was opened between men of two nations who seem not to have had any acquaintance with each other's language, and by the middle of April the Scotch party had set sail for home, having already, in little more than four months, lost nearly a quarter of their number.

A striking account is given in Macaulay, *Hist. of England*.

Darlington, Charlotte Sophia Kilmansegge, Countess of (*d.* 1730), was one of the mistresses of George I. In 1721 she was created Countess of Leinster, and in the following year Countess of Darlington. We find her, with her sister Madame de Platen (in opposition to the rival mistress, the Duchess of Kendal), supporting Carteret in his struggle for power with Townshend and Walpole. "She was," says Lord Stanhope, "younger and more handsome than her rival; but, like her, unwieldy in person and rapacious in character. From her great size she was called 'the Elephant.'"

Darnley, Henry Stuart, Lord (*b.* 1545, *d.* 1567), was the son of the Earl of Lennox and Lady Margaret Douglas, a niece of Henry VIII. In 1565 Mary of Scotland, his cousin, saw and at once fell in love with him. The marriage was celebrated in the summer of the same year, in spite of violent opposition on the part of Murray and the Protestants, who viewed the union of their queen with a Roman Catholic family with great distrust. Darnley was created Duke of Albany, and was soon afterwards, by order of his wife, illegally proclaimed King of Scots. Mary soon found her mistake in marrying a man who was at once foolish and profligate. A coldness sprang up between them, and the murder of Rizzio, to which Darnley was a party, only increased it. Loathed as he was by the queen, and endangered by her reconciliation to his bitterest enemies, Darnley endeavoured to escape to France, but was not permitted to leave Scotland. After the birth of his son, afterwards James VI., whose christening he refused to attend, Darnley was seized at Glasgow with a violent illness, from which he had barely recovered when Mary paid him a visit and urged his removal to Edinburgh. He was accordingly conveyed to a small house close to the city walls, in a district known as Kirk-of-Field. In the night (Feb. 10, 1567), the house was blown up with gunpowder, and Darnley's body was found next morning lying in the garden by that of his page; but neither corpse bore traces of violence. Public feeling at once pointed to Bothwell as the murderer, and more than suspected Mary to have been an accomplice in the crime. The strongest circumstantial evidence points to the same conclusion.

Schiern, *Bothwell*; Gauthier, *Marie Stuart*; Hosack, *Mary Queen of Scots*; Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*.

Darrein Presentment. [Assize.]

Dartmouth, William Legge, 1st Earl of (*b.* 1672, *d.* 1750), was a prominent statesman in the reign of Queen Anne. His principles were those of a strong Tory and High Churchman. He married a daughter of the Earl of Nottingham. On the accession of the queen he became a member of the Privy Council; and on the downfall of Godolphin's ministry he was made Secretary of State and Keeper of the Privy Seal of Scotland (1710). It was by making use of him that Marlborough tried to avoid dismissal from his appointments by a close union with the Tory ministry. Dartmouth was one of the persons appointed by Anne to confer with the French envoy Ménager on the preliminaries for the Treaty

of Utrecht. The wholesale creation of twelve peers did not meet with his approval, but he continued in the ministry, and was created Lord Privy Seal (1714). On the accession of George he ceased to take any share in politics. "Dartmouth," says Lord Stanhope, "who was suspected, not without reason, of being inclined to a restoration of the exiled family, was a good-humoured and accomplished nobleman who made no enemies."

Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; Coxe, *Marlborough.*

Dashwood, Sir Francis, created Baron le Despencer (*d.* 1781), the son of Sir Francis Dashwood by Lady Mary Fane, obtained his chief claim to celebrity in early life by his reckless immorality and profaneness. From such scenes as those of his "Franciscan Abbey" at Medmenham, Sir Francis was summoned to become Treasurer of the Chamber in 1761, in which office Bute found him so convenient a creature, that on becoming Prime Minister he appointed him Chancellor of the Exchequer. Wilkes well understood the absurdity of the appointment, when he said that "from puzzling all his life at tavern bills he was called by Lord Bute to administer the finances of a kingdom above one hundred millions in debt." To remedy this deficit the new Chancellor proposed to levy a tax on cider, which at once produced an outcry so loud that the proposed tax had to be much reduced. Even then it was productive of much hardship, and served only to add to the unpopularity of Bute's administration. Dashwood had at any rate the good sense to perceive his own incompetence. "People," he said, "will point at me in the streets, and say, 'There goes the worst Chancellor of the Exchequer that ever appeared.'" As a reward for his services he was created Baron le Despencer, and with his elevation to the peerage he retired from the political world.

Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; Jesse, *Selwyn and his Cotemporaries*; Walpole's *Memoirs of the Reign of George III.*

Daubeney, Giles, Lord (*d.* 1508), was raised to the peerage in 1486, in recognition of his services during the period of Henry VII.'s exile. Shortly after receiving this proof of royal favour, he was made deputy governor of Calais, and while acting in that capacity he headed the expedition despatched from England with secret instructions to lend all possible assistance to the Emperor Maximilian. These orders Daubeney executed with marked success, and compelled the French to raise the siege of Dixmude. By a well-timed attack on their camp, too, he inflicted upon them severe losses, slaying over 8,000 men, and capturing a considerable quantity of military stores. During the Cornish revolt Daubeney was a trusted leader of the king's forces. His energetic attack on the rebels at Deptford Bridge precipitated the general engagement at Blackheath (1497), which ended so victoriously for Henry.

David I., King of Scotland (*s.* April 27, 1124; *d.* May 24, 1153), youngest son of Malcolm Canmore and Margaret, succeeded to the crown of Scotland on the death of his brother, Alexander I. Educated at the English court, owing to the marriage of his sister Matilda with Henry I., he became thoroughly imbued with the spirit of feudalism. On his brother Edgar's death (1107) he returned to Scotland as earl of the country south of the Forth and Clyde. David had at this time married Matilda, daughter of Waltheof, and in her right held the English earldoms of Northampton and Huntingdon. On the death of his brother Alexander (1124), he added the territory north of the Forth and Clyde to that which he already ruled, and thus united the whole of Scotland. The result of his early education speedily became apparent in his introduction of feudal institutions and ideas hitherto unknown in his native land. These innovations, hateful to most of the northern nobles, led, during David's absence in England, to a rebellion, headed by Angus, Earl of Moray, and Malcolm, natural son of Alexander (1130). The insurgents, however, were soon defeated, and their leader slain. Four years later a fresh insurrection was planned, but was defeated by Anglo-Norman aid. In 1136 David entered England at the head of a large army to support his niece Matilda, Empress of Germany, against Stephen, her rival claimant for the English crown. A peace was, however, concluded which lasted until 1138, when David undertook another expedition with the same object in view. He was, however, defeated at the famous Battle of the Standard (q.v.). Shortly afterwards, in 1139, another peace was made at Durham, through the exertions of the Papal legate. In 1141, after the capture of Stephen at Lincoln, David again joined his niece, narrowly escaping capture at Winchester; and in 1149 knighted Henry of Anjou at Carlisle. He died at Carlisle in May, 1153. David I. acquired a very considerable reputation for sanctity. He was the founder of several new abbeys—notably those of Holyrood and Melrose—and was the re-organiser at least of several Scotch bishoprics.

Robertson, *Scotland under her Early Kings*; Skene, *Celtic Scotland*; Burton, *Hist. of Scotland.*

David II., King of Scotland (*s.* June 7, 1329, *d.* Feb. 22, 1371), was the son of King Robert Bruce. In accordance with the terms of the Treaty of Northampton, he was married (1328) to the Princess Joanna of England. At the time of his father's death (1329) he was only five years of age, and the kingdom was consequently governed by regents. In 1332, on the invasion of Edward Baliol (q.v.), he fled to France, and did not return till 1341. While in France his hostility to England increased, as well as his friendship for the

land that sheltered him, and he was led by these feelings to cross the border in 1346. In Edward's absence the northern barons were hurriedly called to arms, and defeated the invading army at Neville's Cross. David was himself taken prisoner, and was not released till 1357. This long sojourn in England seems to have begotten a love of English ways in the king's mind. An imprudent marriage soon gave disgust to his cousin, the High Steward of Scotland, and this disgust was intensified when he proposed (1363) that Prince Lionel of England should be accepted as his successor, but the Scotch Estates unanimously rejected the proposal. The remainder of his reign was occupied in disputes with his Parliament, which showed a "surly resoluteness" in checking the abuses of the royal prerogative. He died in the year 1371.

David, Prince of Wales, was the brother of Llewelyn, by whom he had been deprived of his patrimony. In revenge for this injustice David called together several Welsh chieftains—among whom Rhys ap Maredudd, the scion of the ancient princes of South Wales, was the most eminent—to espouse his cause. At the same time he began to intrigue with Edward I. (1276). Next year, when Llewelyn surrendered to the English king, one of the first conditions of the peace was the reconciliation of the two brothers. But David, although Edward had married him to the daughter of the Earl of Ferrers, and granted him extensive territories in Wales and England, soon found cause of complaint against his patron. The two brothers united against the stranger. David surprised Hawarden Castle, and the marshes were laid waste. After Llewelyn's death, he was taken prisoner and tried at Shrewsbury (Sept. 30, 1283). Earls, barons, judges, knights of the shires, and twenty borough members, were all present on this solemn occasion; but the baronage alone can be considered as the peers of the culprit. He was condemned to death and executed with circumstances of special horror as a traitor and a murderer.

Rishanger, *Chronicle; The Greatest of the Plantagenets.*

Davis, John (*d.* 1605), one of the famous explorers of Elizabeth's reign, was born near Dartmouth. He made three voyages in search of a north-west passage to the Pacific. In the first he coasted round the south of Greenland and Baffin's Land across the strait that now bears his name, and in the third he reached the entrance of Hudson's Strait. In 1591 he accompanied Thomas Cavendish (q.v.) to the South Sea, continuing his voyage when the rest of the expedition had returned. In later years his services were employed in journeys to the East Indies on behalf of the newly founded company; and it was on his return from one of these expeditions that he met with his fate—being killed by Japanese pirates off the coast of Malacca in 1605.

Davis, Mary, or Moll, was a natural daughter of the Earl of Berkshire, and one of Charles II.'s mistresses. She had by the king one daughter, Mary Tudor, who was married to the Earl of Derwentwater.

Davison, William (*d.* 1608), one of the diplomatists of Queen Elizabeth's reign, was in 1575 sent to the Low Countries to report on the state of affairs; in 1579 he revisited Holland, and four years later was again employed to counteract Scotch influence there. In 1586 he became a principal Secretary of State, and was in favour of the execution of Mary Queen of Scots; it is well known how he was made the scapegoat of the other ministers for his excess of zeal in despatching the warrant for the execution (1587), after he had procured Elizabeth's signature to it. It will always remain a moot point how far the queen was really ignorant of the nature of the paper she had signed, and of its despatch, but it is probable that she found it convenient to act as she did towards Davison in order to clear herself as far as possible of the charge of having desired Mary's death; whilst Davison's repeated declarations that the queen herself had ordered the warrant to be sent off did not tend to pacify her resentment. The unfortunate secretary was brought to trial, Feb., 1587, heavily fined and imprisoned, and in spite of the attempts of Essex and Burleigh to procure his pardon, was never restored to favour.

Day, George, Bishop of Chichester (*b.* 1501, *d.* 1556), was educated at Cambridge, and became Provost of King's College, 1538. Under Edward VI. he was a strenuous opponent of the religious changes, and for this offence was committed to the Fleet (1550), and soon after deprived of his bishopric, which he had held since 1543. Under Mary he was released, and appointed, with Gardiner, Bonner, and Tunstall, members of a commission to purify the episcopal bench (1553).

Deane, Henry (*d.* 1503), was Prior of Lanthony, in Monmouthshire, and entering Henry VII.'s service, was employed in several public offices. When Sir Edward Poynings was appointed Lord-Deputy of Ireland, Deane was appointed Chancellor of Ireland (1495), and did valuable service in aiding Poynings' work of restoring order and regular government in that country. At the time of his Irish Chancellorship, Deane was Bishop-elect of Bangor, and in 1501, on the death of Morton, Archbishop of Canterbury, was appointed to succeed him as Primate of all England. Whilst Archbishop of Canterbury, Henry Deane was in some degree a patron of Wolsey, whom he made his domestic chaplain. He died February 16, 1503.

Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops.*

Deane, Richard (*b.* 1610, *d.* 1653), son of Edward Deane, of Temple Guyting, Gloucestershire, entered the Parliamentary army at the beginning of the Great Rebellion, served in the artillery under Essex, until taken prisoner in the unfortunate Cornish campaign of 1644. In the "New Model" (q.v.) he was Comptroller of the Ordnance, and in 1648 had risen to the rank of adjutant-general. He commanded the right wing of Cromwell's army at Preston, was present also at Worcester, and took part in the subjugation of the Highlands. He was deep in the confidence of Cromwell, sided with the army against the Parliament, and with the Independents against the Presbyterians, took his seat in the court which tried the king, and helped to secure the adhesion of the fleet to the Protectorate. In 1649 he had been appointed one of the three generals at sea, in which capacity he commanded in the Dutch War, and was killed in the battle off the North Foreland, June 2, 1653. He seems to have deserved the character Essex gives of him in 1644: "an honest, judicious, and stout man."

Debt, Legislation concerning. Among the Teutonic tribes it does not seem that a contract was concluded by any set form of words or by writing, as was the custom among the Romans: earnest money was paid, or the bargain concluded by the delivery of a straw or some similar token. But in questions of sale it was necessary to have witnesses to the transaction, and in early English law a varying number of upright men were assigned to each hundred and burh, for the purpose of testifying every such negotiation. So a statute of Ethelred I. runs: "Let no man either buy or exchange unless he have burh and witness;" while Edgar's law requires thirty-three witnesses for the larger burhs, but only twelve for the hundreds and smaller towns. No one in Anglo-Saxon times was allowed to take the law into his own hands and right himself before bringing his claim before the proper court, and demanding justice four times. We may suppose similar methods of procedure in matters of debt to have continued in the local courts, subject to more or less change, during the reigns of the Norman and Early Plantagenet kings; though, as Dr. Stubbs has remarked, alterations are slowest in the routine business of the petty courts. There are still extant several writs for debt issued by Henry I., several being addressed to the defendant. Two reigns later the writs for debt found in Glanvil are addressed to the sheriff, who is to refer the case, if necessary, to the king at Westminster. Debt was just commencing to be a question for the king's court. In Glanvil's time the method of deciding questions of debt was unsettled, both compurgation and the duel being allowed. Later on, compurgation won the day. With the reign of Edward I. we find a statute upon the question, forbidding anyone to be distrained for debts not due (3 Ed. I.). By an Act passed in the 21st year of James I., a term of six years is set, within which alone the recovery of debts is legal; while another Act under the same king forbids a tradesman's books to be given in evidence for a debt unless the action be brought within a year. An Act of George II. allowed the debt of the plaintiff to be set off against the debt of the defendant. In Norman times there was considerable difficulty in making lands liable for the debts of a man after his decease; and even in the debtor's lifetime there must have been a similar difficulty, till Edward I., in the *Second Statute of Westminster*, empowered a creditor who had obtained a judgment in his favour to take a moiety of the debtor's lands, and satisfy himself so far as he could. Imprisonment for debt was finally abolished by 32 & 33 Vict., c. 62 (1869), and punishments were provided for fraudulent debtors.

Essays in Anglo-Saxon Law; Elelow, *History of Procedure*; Cunningham, *Law Dictionary*.

Deccan was the name originally applied to the whole peninsula of India south of the Vindhya hills. It was conquered by the Mohammedans in the fourteenth century and formed into a kingdom. Long before the advance of the English into Central India it had been broken up among a variety of princes and feudatories, and the term Deccan came to be technically confined to the dominions of the Nizam (q.v.).

Decianus, Catus, was Procurator of Britain when Boadicea rose in rebellion against the Romans, and his extortion is said to have been one of the chief causes of the revolt. At the siege of Camulodunum, the Roman colonists appealed to Catus for help, as Suetonius Paulinus, the legate, was away in Mona, and he accordingly sent 200 soldiers to their aid. After the fall of Camulodunum, Catus fled to Gaul, and was succeeded in his office by Petilius Cerealis.

Declaratory Act, The. In 1788 Mr. Pitt brought in a bill to explain the purport of the India Act of 1784. It declared that there was no step which could have been taken by the Court of Directors before the passing of that bill touching the military and political concerns of India, and the collection, management, and application of the revenues, which the Board of Control had not a right to take by the provisions of that bill: that, in fact, the whole powers of government had been transferred to the crown. [East India Company.]

Declaration, The Royal (Nov. 30, 1660). When Charles II. was restored, the Irish Royalists naturally hoped for the restoration of their lands; but though, strictly speaking, their hopes were justifiable, it was

practically inexpedient, if not impossible, for Charles to entirely upset existing arrangements. After a commission had sat, and the conflicting claims of the Irish and the Puritans had been argued before it, a document called "The Royal Declaration" was issued. This excepted from all indemnity two classes: those concerned in the Ulster Massacre, and those concerned in regicide. Protestant loyalists and certain favoured persons, like Clanricarde and Mountgarret, were to be reinstated in their possessions at once; innocent Papists were also to be restored, but the adventurers and soldiers were to be left undisturbed or compensated. Those who had accepted lands in Connaught were, however, to abide by their bargains; but those who had not done so were to have their cases considered in due time. This declaration formed the basis of the Act of Settlement and Explanation (q.v.).

Froude, *Eng. in Ireland*; Lecky, *Hist. of Eng.*; Carte, *Irish Statutes.*

De Donis Conditionalibus (1285) is the title by which the first article of the *Second Statute of Westminster* is generally known. This law is extremely important, as bearing on the relations between lord and vassal. Up to this time land granted to a man and his heirs became, on failure of heirs, the absolute property of the grantee, who could alienate it as he pleased. It was now enacted that land could never be alienated, but that on failure of heirs it must revert to the original grantor. Thus perpetual entail was established, and the power of the king considerably increased by great fiefs constantly falling into his hands through such failure.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*

Dee, The Bridge of (1639), was in 1639 held by the Cavalier party in Aberdeen against the Covenanting forces under Montrose. The Cavaliers had hurriedly run up defences of turf and stone to protect the crooked and narrow passage of the seven-arched bridge, and held out against the enemy's cannon for a whole day. Next day Montrose, by a feigned attempt to cross the river at a neighbouring ford, drew off a great part of the Cavalier forces, and with his remaining troops forced the bridge, despite the opposition of the fifty Cavaliers still left to defend it.

Deeg, The Battle of (Nov. 13, 1804), was fought between the English, commanded by General Fraser, and the army of Holkar, consisting of fourteen battalions of infantry, a large body of horse, and 160 guns. The English did not exceed 6,000, but among them were the gallant 76th Highlanders, who bore the brunt of the battle. The enemy were completely routed, and left eighty-seven pieces of cannon on the field. But the victory was purchased by the death of the general, and a loss of 643 killed and wounded. The command devolved on Colonel Monson, who had the satisfaction of recovering fourteen of the guns he had lost in his retreat. During the engagement a destructive fire was opened on the British from the fort of Deeg, which belonged to the Rajah of Bhurtpore. A battering-train was ordered up from Agra, and the fortress captured Nov. 23.

Wellesley, *Despatches*; Mill, *Hist. of India.*

Deering, Father (*d.* 1534), was a monk of Henry VIII.'s reign, who was executed May 5, 1534, for the active part he took in the promotion of the conspiracy set on foot under the auspices of the so-called "Holy Maid of Kent."

De Facto King, Statute of (1495), was passed in the eleventh year of Henry VII., and was probably due to the insecurity which most people, in those times of constant civil war and rebellion, must have felt, no matter to what side they adhered. By this Act it is provided that all people are bound by their allegiance to serve the king for the time being, and that no person attending upon the king of the land for the time being shall be convicted of high treason, or by Act of Parliament or other process of law suffer any forfeiture or imprisonment. This statute was the subject of much discussion at the trial of the regicides at the Restoration, and after the Revolution of 1688.

Defender of the Faith (Fidei Defensor). A title first conferred on Henry VIII. by Pope Leo X., in 1521. Even so early as June, 1518, when Luther's doctrines were only just beginning to make a stir in Europe, we find allusions to Henry's book of controversy against the Reformer; but it was not till more than three years later, when the king's zeal had received a fresh impulse from the publication of *De Captivitate Babylonica*, with its fierce attack upon the seven sacraments of the Romish Church, that the royal author put the finishing touches to his work. Clerk, the English ambassador at Rome, received instructions to present the book to the Pope, who read with avidity the opening pages, expressing his pleasure at almost every line by a nod or word of approval. The king said the Pope had passed the clerks in their own fields. Several copies were, at Leo's request, placed in the hands of some of the principal cardinals; and a little later Leo received the ambassador in a consistory of twenty bishops, approved the book, and next day conferred on its author the title "Fidei Defensor" (Oct. 11, 1521). This title, according to Lingard, was intended as a compensation for the title "Rex Christianissimus," which Julius II. had declared to be forfeited by the King of France, and had conferred upon the King of England, but which Leo could never be brought to recognise. Henry's defence of the seven sacraments, *Assertio Septem Sacra-*

mentorum was published at London in July, 1521, and rapidly passed through many editions; it was translated into German in 1523, and into English a few years later. Luther published a fierce reply within a year, and affected to consider the work so contemptible a treatise that it must have been written by a "parcel of empty-headed sophists," who abused the king's name by prefixing it to a work "stuffed full of their own lies and virulence."

Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.*

Defenders, The, were a party in Ireland that owed their origin to a faction fight between Catholics and Protestants on July 4, 1784. The Protestants were called Peep o' Day Boys (q.v.), as they visited the dwellings of the Catholic Defenders early in the morning and took away their arms. The great faction fight of these two parties was the battle of Diamond (q.v.). In 1793 they rose in great numbers, nominally to prevent the enrolment of the militia, and, although pacified in Sept., 1795, were soon in activity again. The name disappears from history after 1798. The causes of their existence were to a large extent agrarian.

Defoe, Daniel (*b.* 1661, *d.* 1731), was the son of a London butcher, named Foe—the former himself adopted the French prefix. He was educated in the doctrines of Dissent and Whiggism. As an opponent of the designs of James II., he fought in the rebellion of the Duke of Monmouth, and was fortunate enough to escape. Shortly afterwards he published a pamphlet, warning the Dissenters against the designs of the king. After the Revolution, he engaged largely in trade, and was appointed secretary to the commission for managing the duties on glass. In 1697 his *Essay on Projects* appeared. He also published a treatise on Occasional Conformity, and another in favour of a standing army, "with the consent of Parliament;" one against the impending French war, and one *On the Original Power of the Collective Body of the People of England.* In 1701 his *True-born Englishman* appeared, a satire with the object of reproaching those who abused William as a foreigner. The same year he drew up the *Legion Memorial*, an expression of public opinion in favour of William's European designs, and elicited by the treatment that the presenters of the Kentish petition received from the Commons. In 1702 he published his famous pamphlet, *The Shortest Way with Dissenters*, an ironical performance, written in High Church language, which deceived even the Dissenters themselves. The High Church party brought the work before the notice of the House, and it was condemned to be burnt by the common hangman. Defoe surrendered himself to justice, and was fined, put in the pillory, and imprisoned. From Newgate he issued the *Review*, a periodical paper, that was the predecessor of the more famous *Spectator* of Steele. In 1704 he was released by the exertions of Harley, who sought to win him over to the Tory side. Money was sent him by the queen to pay his fine. In 1706 he published a satire on the High Churchmen. He was sent to Scotland to assist the Commission for the Union; and his commercial knowledge proved of use to the English government, while he at the same time aided them with his pen. His history of the Union was published in 1709. A satirical piece, entitled *A Seasonable Caution*, against the Pretender, which he vindicated in the *Review*, caused his second imprisonment in Newgate (1711); again Harley procured his freedom. On the accession of George, he was treated with neglect, and exposed to attacks from the Whigs on account of his friendship with Harley. He therefore published *An Appeal to Honour and Justice, though it be to my Worst Enemies*, as a vindication of his political career. After this he ceased to write openly on political subjects, though it is probable that he was largely engaged in surreptitious political journalism. In 1719 he produced the immortal *Robinson Crusoe*, and subsequently a large number of other romances.

Defoe's *Life and Works*, ed. by W. Lee (1869); W. Wilson, *Life of Defoe* (1830); Prof. W. Minto, *Defoe* (1879); Wright, *Life* (1894). [S. J. L.]

De Grey, Earl (*b.* 1781, *d.* 1859), was the eldest son of Thomas Robinson, second Lord Grantham. On his father's death, he entered the House of Lords as Lord Grantham, 1786, and, on the death of his maternal aunt, the Countess de Grey, succeeded to the earldom. In 1834—5 he held the office of First Lord of the Admiralty under Sir R. Peel. When Sir Robert Peel again took office, in 1841, Earl de Grey was appointed Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland. He discharged the functions of his office with much credit up to June, 1844, when he retired, to the great regret of the people of Dublin.

De Hæretico Comburendo was the title of a statute enacted in 1401 against the Lollards. It was granted by the king, with the assent of the Lords, on the petition of the clergy, a petition couched in similar terms being presented at the same time by the Commons. By this statute a heretic convicted before a spiritual court, and refusing to recant, was to be handed over to the civil power to be burned. Archbishop Arundel was the prime mover in the matter, and Henry was probably not unwilling to crush the Lollards, who were more or less closely connected with the party of Richard II.

Deira was the name given to the ancient Anglian kingdom stretching from the Tees or the Tyne to the Humber, and extending inland to the borders of the British realm of Strathclyde. Like Kent and some other districts of Britain, it seems to have retained a British

name, both for the land and its inhabitants, long after it had been conquered by the Teutonic tribes: for the words Deira and Deiri appear to be both related to the old Welsh *Deivr*. In all probability, both Deira and its northern neighbour, Bernicia, were, like Mercia, originally colonised by several tribes, each under its own leader. Later we read in the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* that Ida established the kingdom of Northumbria in 547—a phrase which may fairly enough be interpreted as implying that he united into one all the petty settlements existing in his time. Ida's kingdom, however, may very well have been only co-extensive with the later Bernicia, for we are told that in 560 Ella came to the throne, and he seems to have added the district from the Tees to the Humber to his realm. On his death (588), Ethelfrith of Bernicia drove out Ella's young son, Edwin, and usurped Deira. Edwin, meanwhile, had taken refuge with Redwald, King of the East Angles, and the two together met, and overthrew Ethelfrith in 617. Edwin now seems to have once more united Deira and Bernicia; but as if to show how very imperfectly even the southern part of his realm was knit together, we read of his having to subdue the small British kingdoms of Loidis (Leeds) and Elmet, both lying within the bounds of his native country, Deira. The two kingdoms were once more divided, only, however, to be permanently re-united under Oswy, the son of Ethelfrith (642—670). From this time the separate kingdoms of Deira and Bernicia may be considered as merged in that of Northumbria. But, though no longer independent kingdoms, both Deira and Bernicia reappear as separate earldoms under the great West Saxon kings, and Deira at least was regularly partitioned among the Danes in 876. Under Ethelred the two provinces appear to have been often disjoined, but were once more united by Ethelred towards the beginning of the eleventh century (1006). Canute continued this arrangement; but there was probably a subject-earl for the Danes of Deira. Before the accession of Edward the Confessor, Siward was Earl of Deira alone till, by the murder of Eardwulf, he once more united Bernicia to its southern neighbour. On Siward's death all Northumbria was given to Tostig (1055); but on his banishment, in 1065, the old division appeared once more, when Morkere ruled in Deira, and Oswulf in Bernicia. With the Conquest we may look upon the old name of Deira as being politically extinct. Nominally, the two earldoms of the North lingered on for a few years under Morkere and Gospatric, but finally disappear in the time of the great harrying of 1069. This strong act of policy or cruelty may have done much to obliterate the distinction between the two provinces—whether this distinction arose from purely political considerations, from a difference of race between the Anglian settlers of Deira and the possibly Jutish settlers of Bernicia, or was in later years mainly due to the large infusion of Danish blood that was from 975 undoubtedly present in the more southern district. [Northumbria.] [T. A. A.]

De la Mare, Sir Peter (*fl.* 1376), one of the knights of the shire of Hereford in the Good Parliament (1376), of which he was chosen Speaker. In this capacity he laid the opinion of the Parliament before John of Gaunt and the Council, and though the duke adjourned the House, continued the attack on the offending parties next day. When the Parliament dispersed, De la Mare was imprisoned by Lancaster's order, and was not released till Richard II.'s accession, although a strong minority in the Parliament of January, 1377, demanded his liberation.

Delaware, Henry Booth, Lord (*b.* 1651, *d.* 1694), sat as member for Chester in the reign of James II. He was accused of taking part in Monmouth's rebellion, and tried in the Lord High Steward's Court. Although Jeffrey, whom Delaware had formerly called a "drunken jack-pudding," employed all his brutality against him, Delaware was acquitted. The verdict was most popular. On the arrival of the Prince of Orange in England, Delaware rose for him at the head of his tenants in Cheshire, and marched to Manchester. He was one of the messengers sent by the House of Lords to James, requesting him to retire to Ham on the Thames. He was placed on the Treasury Bench and made Chancellor of the Exchequer. He soon quarrelled with his colleagues, Mordaunt and Godolphin, and attempted to drive Halifax from office. On the appointment of Caermarthen as chief minister, he retired from office, and was created Earl of Warrington (1690). Large grants of lands belonging to Jesuits were made to him, and a large sum paid him for expenses incurred at the time of the Revolution. Nevertheless, he complained bitterly of the injustice of his treatment. He is supposed to have written a bitter pamphlet when Tory lord-lieutenants were substituted for Whigs. He protested against the rejection of the Place-Bill of 1692. "He was," says Macaulay, "a zealous Whig . . . gloomy and acrimonious."

Delaware, State of. [Colonies, American.]

Delgon, The Battle of (574), was fought between the Scots under Conall, and the Picts, who were victorious, killing Conall's son Duncan. Delgon is in Kintyre.

Chronicle of the Picts and Scots.

Delhi was formerly the capital of the Mogul empire, and was definitely annexed by the English, Dec. 4, 1803.

Delhi, The Battle of (Sept. 11, 1803). General Lake (q.v.), with a British force 4,500 strong, discovered Bourquin, Scindiah's general, encamped in a fortified position

before Delhi. The Mahrattas amounted to 19,000 men, and were drawn up with their rear resting on the Jumna, and a formidable train of artillery in front. So situated, the position of the enemy appeared impregnable; and Lake ordered his cavalry, who were advancing in front, to execute a feigned retreat. The enemy, deceived, left their position, and rushed forward yelling. The British infantry, led by the 76th Highlanders and by Lake in person, advanced steadily amid showers of grape, and after firing one round, charged with the bayonet. The shock was irresistible; the ranks of the enemy broke and fled down to the river, in which the greater number perished. The British loss was only about 400, of which one-third was from the ranks of the Highlanders.

Wellesley, *Despatches*; Mill, *Hist. of India*.

Delhi, Siege of (1804). After Colonel Monson's unfortunate expedition into Holkar's territory had been forced back upon Agra, Jeswunt Rao made a sudden incursion to the very gates of Delhi (Oct. 7). This city was some ten miles in circumference, defended only by dilapidated walls and ruined ramparts, and filled with a mixed population, not yet accustomed to British rule. The garrison was so small as not to admit of reliefs, and provisions and sweetmeats were therefore served out to them on the ramparts, but the British Resident, Colonel Ochterlony, animated by the spirit of Clive, and nobly seconded by the commandant, Colonel Brown, defended the place for nine days against 20,000 Mahrattas and 100 guns, till at length Holkar, despairing of success, drew off his army.

Wellesley, *Despatches*; Mill, *Hist. of India*; Grant Duff, *Mahrattas*.

Delhi, Siege of (1857). On May 11, 1857, the mutineering Sepoy regiments from Meerut appeared before Delhi, and, despite the efforts of Brigadier Graves and Lieutenant Willoughby, the town fell into the hands of the rebels on that day. All the Europeans who could do so fled precipitately, and the city of the Great Mogul soon became the centre of the revolt. It became necessary to re-capture so important a post, and on the 8th of June, Sir Henry Barnard, after defeating an advance division of the enemy, occupied the Ridge, a rising ground some two miles from the city. Delhi was defended by a series of bastions sixteen feet high, connected by long curtains, with here and there a martello tower. Bastions and curtains were alike of solid masonry, twelve feet thick, and the whole was further strengthened by a wide and deep ditch. The besieging army consisted of English troops, Sikhs, Afghans, and Ghoorkas, whilst the rebels were 30,000 strong, with ample provisions and ammunition. It was not till June 23 that operations really began with a sally from the city, which was beaten back, after a day's hard fighting. During August and September the English quickened their preparations for the attack. Brigadier Nicholson arrived at the camp with the requisite siege-train, and the heavy artillery came soon after. On Sept. 8 four batteries opened fire on the city, and by the 13th a breach was made. The next morning saw the final assault. Three columns were led to the walls, while a fourth was held in reserve. For six days the fighting continued in the streets, and no quarter was extended to men with weapons in their hands. At last, on Sept. 20, the gates of the palace were forced; but Bahadur Shah had in the meanwhile escaped to the tomb of Homayun, outside the city. Here he was captured by Captain Hodson, and his two sons shot as they were re-entering the city. This was the turning-point of the revolution, which could no longer threaten any considerable danger, when its nominal head, the Great Mogul king, was a prisoner in the hands of the English.

Malleson, *Indian Mutiny*; Kaye, *Sepoy War*.

De Lolme, Jean Louis (*b.* 1740, *d.* 1806), was born at Geneva, where he studied for the bar, and practised as an advocate till forced to leave the town, from the offence he gave to the authorities by the publication of his *Examen des trois points de droit*. He took refuge in England, and while resident in this country, made a careful investigation into our government and laws, the results of which he first published in French at Amsterdam, in 1771, in his work on *The Constitution of England*. This was almost at once translated into English, and was for many years a standard work on the subject with which it deals. De Lolme had returned to Switzerland many years before his death, which occurred in 1806.

Delvin, Lord, was an Irish nobleman concerned in the rebellion of Tyrone and Tyrconnel (1605). He was imprisoned in Dublin, but succeeded in making his escape. Afterwards he was pardoned by James I., and created Earl of Westmeath.

Demesne Lands were the estates which belonged to the crown, and in early days were one of the main sources of the royal revenue. When these had been held by the crown since the time of Edward the Confessor, they went by the name of manors of ancient demesne; and each of these manors of ancient demesne was reckoned as a hundred in itself, and, like the hundred, subject to the shire-court. In the times of Stephen large grants of the royal property were made for the sake of purchasing adherents to either party; the resumption of these grants was one of the first reforms brought about by Henry II. A similar course of conduct had been pursued by William Marshall in the early days of Henry III., and again by Hubert de Burgh. In later years it became a custom for the kings to impoverish themselves by these imprudent grants, and then appeal to the Estates

for support. It is to this abuse that the oft-repeated cry of reform pointed—that the king should "live of his own." In 1310 the Ordainers forbade the king to make these gifts without their consent. A similar spirit was shown by the Parliaments of 1404, 1450, and other years. In the latter half of the fifteenth century the crown had grown so poor that Fortescue, in his *De Laudibus Legum Angliæ*, suggests a general resumption of the royal possessions, which he says at one time extended over a fifth part of the kingdom; and he suggests that for the future the king should only grant estates for life. Several towns (*e.g.*, Northampton) were in royal demesne, and all perhaps to be considered as so being unless they had a special lord. The king was considered to have a peculiar claim upon both manors and burghs held in demesne—tallage; and this right Edward I. continued to exact even after the "Confirmatio Cartarum." This example was followed both by Edward II. and Edward III., though not without resistance; but from the latter reign we may regard the imposition as extinct.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Hallam, *Mid. Ages* and *Const. Hist.*; Digby, *Hist. of Law of Real Property.*

Demetæ, The, were an ancient tribe inhabiting the south-west corner of Wales. According to Mr. Rhŷs, they consisted of Goidels, or the earlier Celtic immigrants, largely mixed with the remnants of the earlier pre-Celtic occupants of our island.

Denbigh, Basil Feilding, 2nd Earl (*d.* 1675), son of William Feilding, and Mary, sister of the Duke of Buckingham, was ambassador in Italy from 1634 to 1638. When the Civil War began, he took the side of the Parliament, in opposition to his father and family, and commanded a regiment at Edgehill. In June, 1643, he was appointed commander-in-chief in the associated counties of Warwick, Worcester, Stafford, and Shropshire, and exercised his trust with zeal and vigour till the passing of the Self-denying Ordinance. He represented the Parliament at the Treaty of Uxbridge and in other negotiations. Though he refused to take part in the king's trial, declaring that he would "rather be torn in pieces than have any share in so infamous a business," he became a member of the first two Councils of State of the Commonwealth. A zealous Presbyterian, he assisted his party in bringing about the Restoration, and exerted his influence on the side of moderation after that event.

Denman, Thomas, Lord (*b.* 1779, *d.* 1854), was the son of Thomas Denman, a London physician. After completing his education at Cambridge, he was called to the bar in 1806. Distinguishing himself by the conduct of many cases, such as the defence of Lord Cochrane, he was returned to Parliament for Wareham in 1818, and later for Nottingham—a town which he continued to represent till he was made Chief Justice, in 1832. But his greatest success was obtained when, in company with Lord Brougham, he was selected to defend Queen Caroline in 1820, though before this he had gained great reputation for his exertions on behalf of the Luddites (q.v.), and for the repeal of the Six Acts. In 1834 he was appointed Lord Chief Justice, an office which he discharged with a conscientious love for truth, even if, as was said, with something of the spirit of an advocate. Amongst his many titles to renown must be enumerated his passion for liberty, his exertions against the slave trade, and his ardour for the amelioration of the criminal laws.

Arnold's *Life.*

Denmark, Relations with. The consolidation of the Danish state by "Gorm the Old," in the ninth century, had a twofold effect on English history. Firstly, it sent the fiercer jarls and chiefs to find new homes of liberty beyond the sea; secondly, it established in the old home of the new conquerors of England a state adequate to cope with the West Saxon monarchy itself. The dealings of England with the Wiking invaders are summarised in another article [Danes in England], but with the conquest of all England, by Swegen (Svend) and Canute (Knud), a political relation of the most intimate character between the two nations resulted, for England, in important consequences—for Denmark in little less than the introduction of civilisation from English sources. Victorious Denmark was in danger of becoming dependent on conquered England, when the death of Harthacanute, in 1042, severed the two countries. Despite the internal confusions which resulted from the decay of the old Danish dynasty, the successors of Canute did not at once give up all hopes of re-conquering his great prize. Among their many abortive attempts may be specially mentioned those of Saint Canute (1080—1086), who, both before and after his accession to the Danish throne, strove earnestly to achieve this object. But it is in commercial rather than in political dealings that the relations between Denmark and England were now kept up. In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries the Scandinavian states were economically bound to England by ties as close as those which kept England in dependence on the Netherlands.

The rise of the Hanseatic League drove the English away from the monopoly of the Danish trade; but when the Scandinavian kingdoms sought a protector from the overbearing Hansa, it was to England that they turned. In 1490 Henry VII. concluded a commercial treaty with King Hans, by which the English, in return for paying the Sound dues, were allowed to have great privileges for their merchants, including the right of

appointing consuls with jurisdiction over offenders of their own nationality. Christian II. sought in England assistance against the revolted Swedes, but his close relative, Christian III., demanded all the trading rights of the English as the price of their alliance. The general friendship between Sweden and France led Denmark to an English alliance. James I. married a Danish wife, and supported Christian IV. in his attack on the Empire in 1625. But the establishment of friendly relations between England and France may probably have led to a certain amount of hostility between England and Denmark during the seventeenth century. In 1652 Frederick III. powerfully assisted the Dutch in their struggle against the Long Parliament and Cromwell. But the changed relations of England and Holland, a new intimacy with the great Elector, on the whole a friend of England, produced another turn in Danish politics. The hostility which Charles XII. of Sweden showed to England at the end of his reign only resulted in England, Hanover, and Denmark uniting to divide a great part of the German territories of Sweden. The close connection of Denmark with Russia was, before the days of the younger Pitt, a new guarantee of English friendship, which not even the divorce of the English princess Matilda from Christian VII. and the short-lived French policy of Struensee could affect. In 1780, and again in 1801, Denmark joined the League of the Neutrals against England; but in the former case peace was maintained, while in the latter the bombardment of Copenhagen by Parker and the death of Paul of Russia ended the dispute. In 1807 England, fearful lest Napoleon should use the Danish navy against England, sent an expedition to Copenhagen, which effected its object by seizing the Danish fleet at the expense of our friendly relations with Denmark. When peace was made in 1815, England retained of her Danish conquests Heligoland. During the nineteenth century the Schleswig-Holstein question was at the root of most of the dealings between England and Denmark. The Treaty of London, which settled the Danish succession, was largely the result of English intervention. The war against Germany in 1864 was rashly entered into by the Danes, in the belief that England would help them to retain their hold over the duchies. They were, however, disappointed, and their loss of the much-disputed territories to Prussia largely neutralised the good effect which the marriage of the daughter of their new king to the Prince of Wales had occasioned.

Dahlmann's *Geschichte von Dännemark* is a good authority on Danish history to the Reformation; Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, brings out the early dealings; Schanz, *Englische Handelspolitik*, the trading relations. [T. F. T.]

Deogaom, The Treaty of (Dec., 1803), was concluded between the East India Company and the Rajah of Berar. Its stipulations were that Cuttack should be ceded to the English; that the lands west of the Wurdah, which had belonged to the Nizam, should be restored to him; that the English should arbitrate on his differences with the Nizam and Peishwa; and that all Europeans of any nation at war with England should be excluded from Berar.

Deorham, The Battle of (577), is the name given to the great victory by which Ceawlin of Wessex broke up the territory still held by the Welsh into two parts, by severing the Britons south of the Bristol Channel from those north of that estuary. As a consequence of this victory, Bath, Gloucester, and Cirencester fell into the hands of the West Saxons. Deorham has been identified with Dereham, a village between Bath and Chipping Sodbury.

Deposition, The Right of. It is very difficult in early English history to disentangle the true instances of a king's solemn deposition by the act of his Witan or his people from those where it may merely have been the result of a domestic intrigue or disorderly rebellion. Of the latter kind Northumbria offers the best examples, for out of fifteen kings ruling over this realm in the eighth century, only two seem to have met with a natural death while still in possession of the throne. But of these thirteen unfortunate kings, only three can be claimed as in any way exemplifying Kemble's fifth canon, "that the Witan had the power to depose the king if his government was not conducted for the benefit of his people." If we turn to Wessex, the question becomes a little clearer. According to Henry of Huntingdon, Sigeberht was deprived of his kingly office in 755, after the mature deliberation of the nobles and people, and with the consent of the whole nation. This reads like the formal act of a Witan, conscious of its own rights, and not fearing to assert them to the full; but it is only fair to add that one version of the "Chronicle" makes the statement in a more personal manner than that just given, and runs: "In this year Cynewulf deprived King Sigeberht of his kingdom." But another text is even more explicit than Henry of Huntingdon in ascribing the action to the Witan. More than two centuries and a half later it appears that the crown of England was duly transferred by the English Witan from Ethelred to Swend. The same inherent right of a people to discard its ruler if he neglects its interests may be seen in the action of the Northumbrians when they deposed Tostig from his earldom—an instance which seems somewhat forcibly to bring out the fact that down to the very latest times some traditions, however faint, of their old independence clung to the great English kingdoms, long after they

had been incorporated with the West Saxon monarchy. To sum up the foregoing remarks, it seems evident that the power of deposition was in early English times recognised as being quite within the compass of the rights of that body which undoubtedly had elected the sovereign to the throne; and it is unnecessary to call in examples of similar proceedings from the annals of kindred Teutonic races on the Continent.

The same twofold power of election and deposition seems to have been recognised for many hundred years after the Conquest. That which gave had the right to take away also. But by the time of our next instance of the execution of this power, things were wearing a somewhat different aspect. The royal power had been growing for many centuries; a vague feeling of indefeasible right was abroad; the Church lawyers had done much to magnify the power and the sacredness of the kingly office. Accordingly, when Bishop Stratford brought his detailed charges against Edward II. before the Parliament of 1327, it was considered necessary to secure the king's own consent to his son's election. Again, in 1399 the same problem had to be faced; for even then partisans of Bolingbroke did not seem quite sure of the extent of the rights of Parliament. The question was debated whether Richard II. should be requested to resign or be deposed, and it was finally determined to make things perfectly legal by adopting both courses. Richard consented to perform his part of this programme, and Parliament, after hearing the long catalogue of charges brought against the king, voted that they formed a sufficient ground for his deposition. In these two last instances of deposition we seem to see signs that Parliament hesitated as to the extent of its powers, and required the king's resignation before venturing to assert its own authority. The case of Charles I. is so exceptional that it hardly comes under view of this article. But by the time of the Revolution of 1688, the doctrine of the king's divine right had been formulated in definite terms, and whether accepted or not, had a strong influence even on the minds of Whigs. Unable to muster up sufficient courage to state boldly its right of deposition, Parliament on this occasion took refuge in the theory of abdication, and made the king's act in fleeing from the kingdom equivalent to the verbal resignation which had been extracted from the unwilling lips of Edward II. and Richard II.

To sum up, it may be said that the power of deposition was in early English times a practical, if not a theoretical, right, belonging to the Witan and the nation; but after the Conquest, men being less and less inclined to break in upon the divinity which to their eyes hedged round a king, while still exercising the old right upon occasion, justified it to themselves by requiring a voluntary renunciation on the part of the king himself of the powers conferred on him at his consecration; and when this could not be obtained, allowed the fact of the king's absence to be translated into an act of abdication.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, esp. vol. i., ch. vi., for the deposition of the Anglo-Saxon kings; Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.*, and Pauli, *Hist. of Eng.*, for Richard II.; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*, for James II.

[T. A. A.]

Derby. The chief town of Derbyshire was originally known by the name of Northworthig, and owes its modern name of Derby, or Deorby, to the Danes, by whom it was held from 874 to 918, when Ethelfleda, Alfred's daughter, re-captured it. Later it was restored to them as one of the five boroughs, but again united to the English crown by Edmund. Under Edward the Confessor it was a royal borough. William the Conqueror conferred it on William de Ferrers, and Henry I., who seems to have conferred on the town its first charter, granted it to the Earls of Chester. In the Civil War of the seventeenth century, though at first Royalist, it was soon taken by the Parliamentarians, and remained in their hands till the end of the war. In later history it is chiefly famous as marking the farthest point reached by the Young Pretender in 1745.

Derby Dilly, The. In 1834 Lord Stanley resigned office on the question of secularising the surplus of the Irish Church revenues, and with Sir James Graham, Lord Ripon, the Duke of Richmond, and some others, formed an intermediate party between the Whigs and the Tories, declining all connection with either. This unnatural state of isolation deprived the country for some time of the services of some of its ablest statesmen. The clique was derisively known as the "Derby Dilly," from its leader, Lord Stanley, the heir to the earldom of Derby. In 1841, however, this third party came to an end, most of its members joining Sir Robert Peel's government.

Derby, Earldom of. Robert de Ferrers, lord of Tutbury, was created Earl of Derby in 1138. The earldom continued in his family for eight generations, until Earl Robert (de Ferrers) was deprived, in consequence of his action in the Barons' revolt, by the Dictum de Kenilworth, 1266. The earldom was revived, 1337, in favour of Henry Plantagenet, afterwards Duke of Lancaster, and father-in-law of John of Gaunt, whose son Henry, afterwards king, is styled Earl of Derby during his father's lifetime. In 1485 the title was granted to Thomas Stanley, second Lord Stanley, in whose family it still remains. The elder line came to an end with the death of James, tenth earl, 1736, when the title devolved upon Sir Edward Stanley, descendant of a brother of the second earl and the lineal ancestor of the present holder of the title.

Derby, Thomas Stanley, 1st Earl of, and 2nd Baron Stanley (*d.* 1504), was a nobleman who played a prominent part during the reigns of Edward IV., Richard III., and Henry VII. He married Warwick's sister Eleanor, and gained Edward IV.'s favour. In Edward's pretended war upon France (1475), in support of Charles the Bold, Stanley was the ready recipient of the bribes of the French king, and it was in a great measure in consequence of his counsel thus inspired that Edward IV. became a party to the Treaty of Pecquigny, Sept. 13, 1475. During the brief reign of Edward V. Lord Stanley figured as a loyal upholder of the rights of his young sovereign, and was one of the nobles arrested at the council board in Richard of Gloucester's *coup d'état* of the 13th June, 1483. Gloucester, however, not only forbore proceeding to extremities with him, but sought to secure his service by conferring upon him the high office of Constable of England. On the death of his first wife, Eleanor Neville, Lord Stanley married Margaret Beaufort, mother of Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond. On the landing of Henry Tudor at Milford Haven, Lord Stanley, on a plea of illness, refused to join Richard, and was only kept from following the example of his brother, Sir William Stanley, who had openly united with the invader, by the fact of his son, Lord Strange, being detained in Richard's hands as a security for his father's good faith. He still, however, kept in the neighbourhood of the invaders with a force of some 5,000 men, and it was his sudden support of Richmond in the heat of the battle that decided the day. At the coronation of his step-son, Henry VII., at which he officiated as High Constable, he was raised to the dignity of Earl of Derby; and apparently continued in friendly relations with Henry VII. to his death.

Derby, Edward Stanley, 3rd Earl of (*d.* 1572), on the death of Edward VI., declared in favour of Mary, and by his example aided materially in preventing any recognition of Lady Jane Grey by the country at large. He filled the office of Lord High Steward at Mary's coronation, and subsequently did all he could to prevent the queen's marriage with Philip of Spain. Under Elizabeth, Lord Derby's religion prevented him from finding any great favour at court; but in spite of strenuous efforts made by the Catholic peers to entice him into taking an active part in the Northern rebellion of 1569, he refused to implicate himself.

Derby, Ferdinando Stanley, 5th Earl of (*d.* 1594), was the grandson of Eleanor, Countess of Cumberland, who was herself the granddaughter of Henry VII., through his daughter Mary, the wife of Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk. The Jesuits, upon his succession to the title, urged him, through an agent named Hesketh, to assume the title of King of England; but the earl revealed the plot to the government, and was poisoned for his loyalty by the conspirators.

Derby, James Stanley, 7th Earl of (*b.* 1607, *d.* 1651), at the outbreak of the Civil War was appointed by the king Lord-Lieutenant of Cheshire and Derbyshire, as he was then generally believed to have a great influence upon the people of those two counties. He is said to have shed the first blood of the Civil War in a skirmish at Manchester, July 15, 1642. But his influence was overrated, and his ability apparently insufficient for the post he held: he was distrusted by the king, and not supported by the people. In spite of several successes, he was forced to abandon the struggle and retire to the Isle of Man. Lathom House was heroically defended by his countess, Charlotte, till December, 1643. In 1651 he joined Charles II. on his march into England, but whilst endeavouring to raise Lancashire, was surprised and defeated by Col. Robert Lilburn at Wigan. He himself escaped, and took part in the battle of Worcester, but was taken prisoner, tried by court-martial, condemned to death, and beheaded at Bolton, October 15, 1651. The countess continued to hold the Isle of Man till it was reduced by Fairfax in Nov., 1651. "He was a man," says Clarendon, "of great honour and clear courage, and all his defects and misfortunes proceeded from his having lived so little time amongst his equals that he knew not how to treat his inferiors."

Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion;* Whitelocke, *Memorials.*

Derby (*b.* 1775, *d.* 1851), Edward Smith Stanley, 13th Earl of, was first returned to Parliament in 1796 for Preston. In 1812 he was elected for Lancashire, which he continued to represent till the changes effected by the Reform Bill. In 1832 he was called up to the House of Lords, by the title of Baron Stanley of Bickerstaffe, to strengthen the Whig ministry. In 1834, on his father's death, he succeeded to the earldom of Derby.

Derby, Edward Geoffrey Smith Stanley, 14th Earl of (*b.* 1799, *d.* 1869), entered Parliament in 1820 as member for Stockbridge. He made his first speech, after three years' silent voting, in favour of a private bill for lighting Manchester with gas, and its ability was noticed by Sir James Mackintosh. In 1827 he took office under Mr. Canning as Under Secretary for the Colonies. On the death of Canning, Stanley refused to join the Goderich ministry. He was a strenuous advocate of Catholic Emancipation, Parliamentary Reform, reciprocity in free trade, with a moderate fixed duty on corn, and the foreign policy of Mr. Canning. Therefore, from 1828 to 1830 he remained in opposition. He then took office under Lord Grey as Chief Secretary for Ireland. Mr. Stanley was quite as earnest as

Lord John Russell himself, and much more vehement, in his advocacy of the Reform Bill. The state of Ireland was full of danger. The triumph in the matter of Catholic Emancipation, and many grievances, real or fancied, had incited the people to attempt an agitation for repeal of the Union, and every kind of outrage was rife. It fell to Mr. Stanley's lot to introduce a Coercion Act in this emergency, and, as a consequence of this, he became very unpopular in Ireland, and was frequently embroiled with Daniel O'Connell. In May, 1833, Mr. Stanley was charged with the duty of bringing forward the measure for the emancipation of the slaves, and made a speech of remarkable eloquence. In 1834, being now by courtesy Lord Stanley, he separated himself from the Whigs on the question of the Irish Church, and with Sir James Graham, the Duke of Richmond, and some others, formed the intermediate party known as the "Derby Dilly" (q.v.). He rejected the overtures made to him by Sir R. Peel in 1834, but accepted them in 1841, and took office as Secretary of State for the Colonies. But on the question of free trade in 1846 Stanley separated from Peel, and was formally, and by the advice of the Duke of Wellington, installed in the leadership of the Tory party, with Lord George Bentinck and Mr. Disraeli as his lieutenants.

In 1852 he held office for ten months, but by the end of the year had to give way to the Coalition ministry of Lord Aberdeen. In 1858, being Prime Minister again, he succeeded in passing his India Bill, but was defeated on the question of Parliamentary Reform. An appeal to the country was ineffectual, and he resigned office in June, 1859. In 1866 his party succeeded in defeating Lord Russell's new Reform Bill, but only to pass next year a similar one, which its opponents declared to be of a still more sweeping character. Early in 1868 Lord Derby surrendered the leadership of his party into the hands of Mr. Disraeli, and retired into private life on October 23, 1869. From 1852 to his death he was Chancellor of the University of Oxford. He was a man of cultured taste, and a good Greek scholar, and in 1864 published a blank verse translation of the *Iliad*, which attracted a considerable amount of notice at the time. Lord Derby's speeches were greatly admired for their eloquence and fire, and he is often spoken of as the "Rupert of Debate."

Derby, Edward Henry, 15th Earl of, (*b.* 1826, *d.* 1893), son of the preceding Earl, entered Parliament in 1848 for Lyme Regis, and became Under Secretary for Foreign Affairs in his father's first ministry. In Lord Derby's second administration, in 1858—9, he was Secretary of State for India, and managed the transfer of the government from the directors of the East India Company to the crown. He was Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs in 1866, and succeeded to his peerage in 1869. In 1874 he was Secretary for Foreign Affairs in Mr. Disraeli's cabinet, but resigned simultaneously with the Earl of Carnarvon, the Colonial Secretary, owing to differences with his colleagues on the Eastern Question in 1878. In 1880 he abandoned the Conservatives, and in 1882 joined Mr. Gladstone's ministry as Colonial Secretary. In 1886 he parted company with Mr. Gladstone on the Home Rule question, and became one of the leaders of the Liberal Unionists.

Dering, Sir Edward (*b.* 1598, *d.* 1644), was a gentleman of Kent, created baronet in 1627, and member for the county in the Long Parliament. In the discussions on ecclesiastical questions he distinguished himself by his opposition to Laud's innovations, and was even persuaded to introduce the "Root and Branch" Bill, which he afterwards opposed. He also opposed the Grand Remonstrance, and was, in February, 1642, sent to the Tower for printing his speeches. At the beginning of the war he raised a regiment for the king, but in 1644 took the Covenant, paid a composition for his estate, and returned home to die (June 22, 1644). Sir Edward published a volume of his speeches without the leave of the House of Commons, and for this reason was expelled the House, and his book was ordered to be burnt by the hangman.

Proceedings in Kent (Camden Soc.), 1861.

Derwentwater, James Ratcliffe, Earl of (*d.* 1716), was a grandson of Charles II. by his mistress, Moll Davis. He was a Roman Catholic, and deeply implicated in the rebellion of 1715, for which he was tried and executed in the following year, at the early age of twenty-eight.

Desborough (or Disbrow), John (*b.* 1608, *d.* 1680), son of James Desborough, of Eltisley, Bucks, was bred an attorney, and married in 1636 Jane, sister of Oliver Cromwell. In 1642 he became quartermaster in the troop raised by his brother-in-law, served throughout the war, and rose to the rank of major-general. He was nominated one of the commissioners to try the king, but refused to act. During the Protectorate he was in succession Commissioner of the Navy, member of the Scotch Council, Major-General in charge of the counties of Wilts, Dorset, Somerset, Devon, and Cornwall, and one of the admirals of the fleet after Blake's death. He was one of Cromwell's Council of State, and appointed a member of his House of Lords, but opposed his taking the crown. After Cromwell's death, he joined the Wallingford House party, helped to overthrow Richard, and to turn out the restored Long Parliament. At the Restoration he was incapacitated from all public employment. He died at Hackney.

Noble, *The House of Cromwell.*

Desmond, Gerald, Earl of (*d.* 1583), was the head of the great house of the southern Fitzgeralds, who were all-powerful in Munster. Sir Henry Sidney had recommended that this province should be made into an English presidency and English colonists introduced. But the queen, who had set herself against this plan, demanded that Desmond's influence should be attacked in another way. He was consequently soon arrested for treason. In 1568 he submitted to Elizabeth, and surrendered his property into her hands. But in 1574 he broke out in rebellion again, and once more in 1579. Next year he was cooped up with the Spaniards by Lord Grey at Smerwick, but escaped the horrible fate of the garrison. At last, after wandering about for more than two years, his hiding-place was betrayed to the English, who surrounded his cabin, and murdered him in his bed (1583).

Desmond, Sir John (*d.* 1581), was the brother of Gerald, Earl of Desmond. In the hope of compromising his brother with the English he murdered two English officers at Tralee (1579). The whole clan then sprang to arms. Sir John was taken prisoner at the fall of Kilmallock, in 1580, but as he spoke English fluently, he managed to escape. In December next year he fell in with Sir John Zouch on the Avonmore River; that officer slew him, and sent his head to Dublin.

Desmond, Maurice Fitzgerald, Earl of, was one of the early Norman conquerors of Ireland. Having engaged to give help to Dermot, King of Leinster, he landed at Wexford in 1169. In conjunction with that monarch he conquered Dublin, where he was besieged by Roderic and an immense host of Irish in 1171. By his advice the beleaguered English sallied forth in three small troops, and utterly routed the enemy—a disaster which led to the dispersion of the other Irish armies. When, in 1171, Henry II. visited Ireland, he appointed Maurice one of the three chief governors of Dublin. He was with his colleague De Lacy when that baron was so nearly murdered by O'Rourke's treachery. Later, Wexford was given him as a fief, and here he died, 1176. Giraldus Cambrensis describes him as a man of action rather than of words, valiant, and second to none in activity of enterprise.

Giraldus Cambrensis, *Expugnatio Hiberniæ.*

Despard, Edward Marcus, Colonel (*b.* 1751, *d.* 1803), was born in Ireland, and was early employed in military service in the West Indies and the Bay of Honduras, where he was made superintendent of the English colony. His conduct in this office seems to have given offence to the settlers, and he was recalled, but could never obtain an official investigation. When the French Revolution broke out, he adopted the new principles, and was, in consequence, put in prison. On his release he attempted the assassination of George III.; for this offence he was tried and executed in March, 1803.

Despencer, Barony of. The first baron of this name is Hugh le Despencer, a Steward of Henry I. In 1264 Hugh le Despencer, Justiciar of England, was summoned to Parliament; in 1265 he was killed at the battle of Evesham [Despencer, Hugh le, 1]. His son Hugh was created Earl of Winchester in 1322, but in 1326 was declared a traitor, and hanged. The same fate befell his son Hugh "the Younger" a month later; and the honours of both became forfeit. Hugh, however, the son of the latter, appears to have been summoned to Parliament from 1338—1349, when he died, and the title devolved upon a nephew, whose son Thomas, fifth baron by writ, procured the reversal of the Act declaring his ancestors (Edward II.'s ministers) traitors. Thomas was created Earl of Gloucester, 1397, but was degraded, 1399, and beheaded by the populace, 1400, when his honours became forfeit. His attainder was, however, reversed in 1461, and the barony of Despencer fell into abeyance among the issue of his daughter and eventual heiress, Isabel, until in 1604 it was conceded to Mary Neville, wife of Sir Thomas Fane, in the person of whose son it became united to the earldom of Westmoreland. In 1762, and again in 1781, it once more fell into abeyance, but ultimately devolved upon Sir Thomas Stapleton, in whose family it still remains.

Despencer, Hugh le (*d.* 1265), was one of the leaders of the baronial opposition to Henry III. In 1258 he was chosen as one of the commissioners on the part of the barons at the Oxford Parliament, and in 1260 was appointed Justiciar, which office he held till 1262. In the next year he was once more advanced to the justiciarship, and when the war broke out he headed the citizens of London in their attacks on the houses of the royalists. He fought bravely at Lewes, took a prominent part in the government of De Montfort, and fell with Earl Simon in the battle of Evesham. His death is celebrated in one of the political songs of the time, which Mr. Blaauw translates as follows:—

"Despencer true, the good Sir Hugh,
Our justice and our friend,
Borne down with wrong amidst the throng,
Has met his wretched end."

Despencer, Hugh le (*d.* 1326), son of the above, and known as "the Younger," married Eleanor de Clare, one of the co-heiresses of the Earl of Gloucester. He was soon involved in quarrels with the husbands of the other co-heiresses, while the favour shown him by the king arrayed a great part of the baronage against him. He

was banished in 1321, but recalled soon after to acquire more possessions, and almost supreme power on the defeat of the Earl of Lancaster at Boroughbridge (1322). The success of the queen and Mortimer in 1326 obliged him to flee, but he was captured, and beheaded at Hereford by Mortimer's orders. The objects of the Despencers seem to have been primarily selfish, and they cared but little for the interests of the king. At the same time, it is evident that they wished to increase the importance of the House of Commons, and use it to counterbalance the baronage. But they entirely failed in their aims: for while they alienated the barons, they did not secure to themselves the affections of the people.

Despencer, Henry le (*d.* 1406), was the grandson of Hugh le Despencer the Younger. In 1370 he was made Bishop of Norwich, and in 1381 distinguished himself by putting down the revolt in Norfolk. In 1383 he undertook an expedition to Flanders, by which, under the guise of a crusade against the adherents of the anti-Pope element, he hoped to inflict injury on the French. He captured Gravelines, Ypres, and other places, but was eventually obliged to retire, and on his return to England was stripped of his temporalities by the king.

De Tallagio non concedendo, Statute of (1297), is the name given to the Latin form of the great statute known as the Confirmatio Cartarum, which forbade (1) any tallage or aid to be taken by the king without the consent of the bishops, earls, barons, knights, and other freemen of the realm; (2) any prize in corn, leather, or wool, &c., without the owner's consent; (3) the *maltote* (q.v.). Other clauses confirmed the charters and liberties of both clergy and laymen, pardoned the great earls and their partisans, whose firmness had secured Edward's consent to this law, and gave orders for the publication of the Charter. Dr. Stubbs considers that the original form of this statute is not the Latin, but rather the French one, which does not contain the word *tallage*, and *is* couched in more general terms. He suggests that the Latin form may be the rough draft, or informal statement, of the terms of the pacification, and may stand in the same relation to the French form, which became the permanent law of the land, as the Articles of the Barons stand in to the Great Charter of 1215. It was, however, referred to as a statute in the Petition of Right. The chief points to be noticed in comparing the Confirmatio Cartarum with the De Tallagio are that the former does not contain the word "tallage;" the latter does not reserve the rights of the king; the former renounces only "such manner of aids," &c., while the latter contains no such qualifying words.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.* and *Select Charters.*

Dettingen, The Battle of (June 27, 1743), was fought during the War of the Austrian Succession. Lord Stair, who was the English commander, wished to drive the French from Germany, and also, if possible, to invade Alsace and Lorraine. The Duke de Noailles, the French commander, marched into Franconia against him. Stair lay idly on the Maine with 40,000 men, awaiting 12,000 subsidised Hanoverians. Noailles scoured the country to the south of the river. Suddenly Stair marched up the river towards Franconia. He passed Hanau, and moved towards Aschaffenberg. About half-way between the two is the village of Dettingen. On reaching the plain of Dettingen, the English found that De Noailles had outmarched them, and thus cut them off from Aschaffenberg. Here they were joined by King George II. and the Duke of Cumberland. It was determined to secure, if possible, the retreat to Hanau. But Noailles had sent his nephew, the Duke de Grammont, across the river to occupy Dettingen. Bridges were thrown across the Maine, and Noailles' cannon played on the retreating English. It was determined to cut a way through Grammont's forces. The French commander, however, leaving a strong position behind a ravine, advanced to the attack, thinking he was only opposed by the advanced troops of the English. Led on by King George, the English infantry broke through the enemy. Grammont retired across the Maine; but the retreat became a rout, and 6,000 men were left on the field. George, wishing to extricate himself from his dangerous position, refrained from pursuit, and pushed on for Hanau. Stair, furious that his advice should be disregarded, sent in his resignation, which was accepted. Noailles withdrew into Alsace, whither he was followed by the king, and negotiations for peace were begun.

Lecky, *Hist. of Eighteenth Cent.*; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; Arneth, *Maria Theresia.*

Deusdedit, Archbishop of Canterbury (655—664), was a West Saxon by birth. His native name was Frithona, which he changed for his Latin appellation on being elected to the see of Canterbury. He is remarkable as being the first Englishman elevated to the archbishopric. He was conciliatory towards the British Church, and Christianity was widely extended in Mercia and Northumbria during his episcopate.

Devizes. The town of Devizes appears in English history for the first time when Roger, Bishop of Salisbury, built his great castle here, during the reign of Henry I. It was surrendered to Stephen by his son Nigel, Bishop of Ely, when that last-mentioned monarch threatened to hang Bishop Roger's son if the rebellion was persisted in. A few years later it was held by Fitz-Hubert on behalf of the Empress Maud.

Devizes, Richard of, was the author of a chronicle of the reign of Richard I. from 1189—1192. This fragment is of considerable historical value, both for the incidents of the Third Crusade and for the condition of England in Richard's absence. Of the writer little is known, except that he was a member of the Priory of St. Swithin at Winchester, and that he probably died before the completion of his work.

Devon, and **Devonshire,** Peerage of. The "third penny" of the county of Devon is said to have been granted to Richard de Redvers, Baron of Okehampton, who died 1137. His descendants bore indifferently the title of Earl of Devon or of Exeter until the failure of the eldest line, on the death of Isabel de Redvers, wife of William de Fortibus, Earl of Albemarle, in 1293. The earldom was, however, successfully claimed, 1335, by a cousin of the late countess, Hugh Courtenay, fifth Baron Courtenay, and it remained in his family until the attainder of Thomas Courtenay, sixth earl, 1461. In 1469, Humphrey Stafford, Baron of Southwicke, was created Earl of Devon; but he was beheaded in the course of the same year, and the patent of his creation was annulled by a statute of 1485, when the earldom was restored to the Courtenays in the person of Edward, great nephew of the third earl. Edward's grandson, Henry Courtenay, was created Marquis of Exeter in 1525, but on his attainder, in 1539, his honours became forfeit. His son Edward was restored to both titles; his death without issue, in 1556, left the earldom of Devon without a claimant until 1830—1, when it was restored to William Courtenay, heir male of the last earl of the Courtenay family. In the interval, in 1603, another earldom of Devon had been created in favour of Charles Blount, eighth Baron Mountjoy, in whose person it became extinct, 1606. William Cavendish, Baron Cavendish of Hardwicke, was created Earl of Devonshire in 1618. His great-grandson, William, fourth earl, was created Duke of Devonshire and Marquis of Hartington, 1694, for his services in connection with the Revolution of 1688—9.

Devon, William Courtenay, Earl of (*d.* 1511), was brother-in-law of Henry VII.'s queen, by his marriage with Edward IV.'s daughter, Catherine. When Perkin Warbeck, in the latter part of the year 1497, followed up his landing in Cornwall by the active siege of the city of Exeter, the Earl of Devon was foremost among the English nobles in a show of loyalty to Henry VII., and made a special effort to relieve the city before the arrival of the succours sent for that purpose by the king himself. In 1504, however, being implicated in the proceedings of the fugitive Earl of Suffolk by the evidence of one of Henry VII.'s spies, Sir Robert Curson, Courtenay was attainted, and deprived of his estates by the Parliament of that year, under the Speakership of Dudley, and was kept a close prisoner in the Tower during the remainder of the king's life.

Devon, Edward Courtenay, Earl of (*d.* 1556), was the son of Edward Courtenay, Marquis of Exeter, who was the son of Sir William Courtenay and Catherine, daughter of Edward IV. After the execution of his father, in 1539, for conspiring in favour of Reginald Pole, he was sent to the Tower, and confined there until his release by Mary, in 1553. Whilst still in prison he was spoken of as the probable future husband of the queen. On the announcement of Mary's determination to wed Philip of Spain, a strong party gathered round Courtenay, and urged him to marry the Princess Elizabeth and to declare her queen, whilst they undertook to rouse the country, and to gather together a sufficient number of men to ensure success. The chief of the conspirators were Sir Thomas Wyatt, Sir James Crofts, and the Duke of Suffolk. The plot was, however, betrayed to Gardiner by Courtenay, and the rebellion was easily crushed by the courage of the queen. Courtenay, mistrusted and despised for his weakness, was sent back to the Tower, and shortly afterwards exiled. He died at Venice in 1556. Dr. Lingard says that the dissoluteness of his life was the sole cause why Mary would not consent to take him as her husband. His character is thus summed up by Mr. Froude: "He was too cowardly for a dangerous enterprise, too incapable for an intricate one, and his weak humour made men afraid to trust themselves to a person who, to save himself, might at any moment betray them.

Noailles, *Ambassades en Angleterre;* Stowe, *Annals;* Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*

Devon, Charles Blount, Earl of (*b.* 1563, *d.* 1606), was the second son of Lord Mountjoy. Having won the favour of Queen Elizabeth, he became a rival of Essex, with whom he fought a duel, though afterwards the two became great friends. In 1594, Blount, who had now become Lord Mountjoy by the death of his brother, was made Governor of Portsmouth, and three years later accompanied Essex on his unfortunate expedition to the Azores. In 1601 he was made Lord Deputy of Ireland, and successfully crushed the rebellion. He was created Earl of Devon by James I. in 1603, and died in 1606.

Devonshire, William Cavendish, 4th Earl of, afterwards Duke of (*b.* 1640, *d.* 1707), sat as member for Derby in 1661. He was sworn of the Privy Council in 1679, but at the end of the year he petitioned for his dismissal. He was a zealous Protestant and opponent of the court party. In 1685 he was insulted in

a gambling house by a bravo named Colepepper. Indignant at meeting this man at court, contrary to the king's promise, he publicly insulted him, after his challenge had been declined. He was tried before the King's Bench, pleaded guilty, and was fined the enormous sum of £30,000. He was imprisoned, but hearing that he was about to appeal from the judgment of the King's Bench, James allowed him to go free, on giving a bond for the amount of the fine. He eagerly joined the Revolution scheme, and was one of those who signed the invitation to William of Orange. When William landed in England, Devonshire appeared in arms at Derby, and proceeded to Nottingham, which became the head-quarters of the Northern insurrection. A meeting of peers was held at his house to discuss the settlement of the crown. Soon after the Revolution he was made Lord High Steward, and Knight of the Garter. On the departure of William to Ireland, Devonshire was created one of the Council of Nine, and vigorously superintended the fitting-out of the fleet. In 1691 he accompanied the king to Holland. He was accused, apparently falsely, by Preston of dealings with St. Germains, but the king declined to listen to the confession of the informer. He was created Duke of Devonshire and Marquis of Hartington in 1694. On William's departure for the Netherlands, he was appointed one of the Lords Justices. We subsequently find him declaring against the bill on the Irish land-grants. He also opposed the second Partition Treaty, on which his opinion had not been asked. He was present at the death of William III. He was created Lord Steward in the reign of Queen Anne. He accompanied her to Cambridge in 1705, and was created an LL.D. He died, professing repentance, at Devonshire House, Piccadilly. "In wealth and influence," says Macaulay, "he was second to none of the English nobles, and the general voice designated him as the finest gentleman of his time. His magnificence, his tastes, his talents, his classical learning, his high spirit, the grace and urbanity of his manners, were admitted by his enemies. His eulogists, unhappily, could not pretend that his morals had escaped untainted from the widespread contagion of that age."

Devonshire, Spencer Compton Cavendish, 8th Duke of. [Hartington.]

Devorgoil, or Devorguilla, was the daughter of Alan of Galloway and of Margaret, daughter of David of Huntingdon. In 1233 she married John de Baliol, the Lord of Harcourt and Castle Barnard, in England. Upon the death of Alan (1234), the husbands of his three daughters divided his territory amongst them. It was Devorgoil who, after she had become a widow, founded and endowed Balliol College, Oxford; and it was her son who is known in history as the King of Scotland and competitor of Robert Bruce.

D'Ewes, Sir Symonds (*b.* 1602, *d.* 1650), was educated at Cambridge. He was knighted by Charles I., and received a baronetcy in 1641. When the Civil War broke out, however, he joined the Parliamentary party. He compiled a *Journal* of all the Parliaments (both Lords and Commons) of Queen Elizabeth's reign—a work which was published several years after his death, in 1682, and is of the greatest importance for the domestic events of the last half of the sixteenth century. His *Memoirs* were published from the MSS. in 1845, by Mr. Halliwell.

Deydras, John (1324), was an impostor, who claimed to be the true son of Edward I., asserting that he had been changed in his cradle. The unpopularity of Edward II. led some people to give credence to his story, but his followers were few, and he was quickly seized and executed.

Dhoondia Waugh was an Afghan chief who took service with Tippoo Sahib. On the final capture of Seringapatam, 1799, he escaped, and commenced a career of plunder on his own account, but was pursued by Colonel Wellesley, defeated, and killed September 10, 1799.

Dialogus de Scaccario is the title of a work compiled in the twelfth century by Richard Fitz-Nigel, at one time Treasurer of the Exchequer, and Bishop of London from 1189—1198. This treatise is divided into two books, both of which are thrown into the form of a dialogue between a master and a scholar. The first book, in eighteen chapters, describes what the Exchequer is: the origin of its name, the duties of its various officers, with their rights and honours, the definition of the various legal terms used in the government of the country, such as hundred, murdrum, danegeld, county, &c., and the business of the Treasury. The second book, divided into twenty-eight chapters, treats of summonses, the rendering of accounts into the Exchequer, and of the sheriffs and the different branches of the king's revenue. The *Dialogus de Scaccario* was first printed by Madox in his *History of the Exchequer*, and has been again published by Dr. Stubbs in his *Select Charters*. The date of its composition is probably about the year 1176 or 1177. It is a work of great importance, and throws a flood of light upon the administrative system of the Angevin kings.

Diamond, The Battle of, was a great faction fight fought near a hamlet bearing this name in Armagh, on September 21, 1795, between the Peep o' Day Boys and the Defenders (q.v.). The victory remained with the former party, who slew forty-eight of their opponents. It was shortly after this fight that the first Orange Lodge was founded.

Diceto, Ralph de (*fl.* 1202), was a chronicler, whose writings are of considerable importance for the reigns of Henry II. and Richard I. This author was for a long period Dean of St. Paul's and Archdeacon of Middlesex. The former office he appears to have held as early as 1163, while to the latter he was elected in 1181. In this last capacity he caused a survey of the estates of that church to be made, part of which is still preserved, and has been issued by the Camden Society, under the title of *The Domesday of St. Paul's.* Ralph seems to have been employed in many important missions by Henry II., and assisted Archbishop Baldwin at the coronation of Richard I. His two principal works are *Abbreviationes Chronicorum* and *Imagines Historiarum.* The former of these consists of a history of the world from the Creation down to 1147, and is largely composed of extracts from classical and mediæval writers. In parts it is largely based on Robert de Monte, a writer who is the primary authority for the early years (1147—1158) of Ralph's more important *Imagines.* But even this last work can only be described as contemporaneous, in the strict sense of the word, from the year 1173 to its conclusion, 1201, for which period it is of considerable value. Several minor historical documents are ascribed to the same hand. Ralph de Diceto's histories have been edited by Dr. Stubbs for the Rolls Series.

Digby, Sir Kenelm (*b.* 1603, *d.* 1665), was son of Sir Everard Digby, who was executed for his share in the Powder Plot. In 1628 he undertook a privateering voyage to the Mediterranean, in which he distinguished himself by defeating a Venetian squadron at Scanderoon. In 1636 he became a Catholic, and was employed by the queen, three years later, to obtain money from his co-religionists. During the greater part of the Civil War and the Protectorate he lived abroad, occupying himself with the study of natural philosophy. A literary contemporary compared him to Pico della Mirandola for the universality of his knowledge, and a scientific one styled him "the Pliny of his age for lying." "The truth is," says John Evelyn, "Sir Kenelm was an arrant mountebank."

Digges, Sir Dudley (*b.* 1583, *d.* 1639), was a member of Parliament in James I.'s reign, and was occasionally employed by the king on public business: as, for example, on the embassy to Russia in 1618. He was one of the chief managers of Buckingham's impeachment in 1626. He was imprisoned on more than one occasion for his language against the court, and in the Parliament of 1628 he strongly advocated the Petition of Right. He subsequently made his peace with the king, and in 1630 had a reversionary grant of the Mastership of the Rolls. He held that office from 1636 to his death in 1639.

Dilke, Sir Charles (*b.* 1843), the son of Sir Charles Wentworth Dilke, was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge. After leaving college, he made a prolonged tour through the United States and the British Colonies and India. On his return, he published a volume called *Greater Britain*, which attracted much attention. He was elected in 1868 Radical member for Chelsea. In 1872 he moved for an inquiry into the Civil List, a step which led him to be popularly credited with Republican views. In 1880 he took office as Foreign Under Secretary, and in 1882 became President of the Local Government Board. He retired from public life in 1886, but returned to the House of Commons in 1892. His *Problems of Greater Britain* appeared in 1890.

Dinkur Rao. The title of the Chief minister of Scindiah. Under the Act of 1861 he became one of the Legislative Council of India

Dirleton Castle, seven miles north of Haddington, was, after a long siege, taken by Bishop Anthony Beck for Edward I., in 1298 It was destroyed in 1650 by General Lambert.

Disarming Acts (Ireland). By the 7 Will. and Mary, 1695, all Catholics were ordered to deliver up their arms, excepting only those who were protected by the Treaty of Limerick and other Articles, and who were consequently allowed to keep a sword and pistols, also a fowling-piece. All gun-makers were to be Protestants, and to admit only Protestant apprentices. Every justice of the peace might search for arms. The Act was not very strictly carried out. In 1730, for instance, a Catholic gentleman was convicted of carrying arms, but it was held that the Act applied only to those alive when it was passed. In 1732 Lord Gormanstown and some other gentlemen appeared at Trim Assizes with their swords; they were convicted, but after an apology, pardoned on the petition of the Grand Jury. In 1739 a new Disarming Act was passed, but little observed. In 1793 these Acts were repealed as regards Catholics, but a new Act (33 George III.) was passed forbidding any person to keep arms without a licence, and allowing a search for arms to be made.

Discipline, The Book of (1561), was the name given to a compilation adopted by the Reformers in Scotland as a basis for the re-organisation of their Church and its practice. It did not, however, receive the sanction of the Estates. In 1581 the *Second Book of Discipline* was issued, but likewise failed to pass the Estates.

Disinherited, The, was the name given to the remnant of the baronial party who held out after the battle of Evesham, a general sentence of forfeiture having been issued against all those who had fought on the side of De Montfort. The disinherited lords occupied Kenilworth and the

Isle of Ely; the former place surrendered at the end of 1266, on the terms given by the "Dictum of Kenilworth," but those who were unwilling to accept them maintained the struggle in the Isle of Ely. The latter party was not reduced till 1267, but was even then allowed the same terms that the defenders of Kenilworth had obtained.

Disinherited Barons, The, were certain lords who had claims in Scotland, and on whose behalf it was provided by the Treaty of Northampton, 1328, "that they should be restored to their lands and estates, whereof the King of Scots had taken possession." The Scotch regency, on various pretexts, delayed to carry out this article, the result being that the barons resolved to support Edward Baliol and to invade Scotland. Chief amongst them were Beaumont Earl of Buchan, Thomas Lord Wake, David de Strathbogie, and Henry de Ferrers. On the success of Baliol (1334), the barons began to quarrel amongst themselves over their spoils, and Baliol soon had to quit the kingdom he had partially won.

Dispensing Power, The, was the name given to the royal prerogative, by which the sovereign was enabled to exempt individuals from the operation of the penal laws. It is analogous to, and frequently confused with, the *Suspending Power*, by which a right was claimed to abrogate one or more statutes entirely. The origin of this idea may be traced to the ancient royal prerogative of pardoning individual offenders, from which, in an age of unscientific legislation, the transition to a power of previously annulling the penalties of a statute was easy. It found countenance in the clause *non-obstante*, "any law to the contrary," introduced by the Popes into their Bulls in the thirteenth century. Henry III. imitated this clause in proclamations and grants, but not without protest; and in 1391 the Commons granted to Richard II. the right, with the consent of the Lords, of dispensing with the Statute of Provisors until the next Parliament, asserting, however, that this was a novelty, and should not be drawn into a precedent. The free use of the dispensing power alone made it possible to combine the retention of the Statutes of Provisors and Præmunire with friendly relations with the Papacy. The power was frequently disputed by Parliament, and although asserted by Henry V. in 1413, with regard to a law for expelling aliens from the kingdom, a statute passed in 1444, limiting the patents of sheriffs to a year, especially forbade the king to dispense with this provision, or to remit the penalties for breaking it. Under Henry VII. the dispensing power was frequently employed (the judges even deciding that the king might grant exceptions to the statute of 1444); but in this reign an important limitation was introduced, by an agreement among lawyers, that the king could not dispense with the penalties for an offence against the common law (*malum in se*), but only of one created by statute (*malum prohibitum*). In the reign of Henry VIII., however, the dispensing power became almost unlimited; it was true that the king could not dispense with future Acts of Parliament, but he could "with things in future whereof he hath an inheritance." The ingenuity of lawyers failed to decide finally the limits of this prerogative, either during the Tudors or the two first Stuarts, by whom it was frequently exercised: Lord Coke, for instance, leaving the question as he found it by deciding that "no Act of Parliament may bind the king from any prerogative which is inseparable from his person, so that he may not dispense with it by a *non-obstante*." After the Restoration the dispensing power was revived by Charles II. for the new purpose of admitting Catholics to office, and in virtue of it, he issued the Declaration of Indulgence. In 1673 the country party ventured to challenge the right, asserting, though on insufficient grounds, that it was confined to secular matters, and by threatening to withhold supplies, induced the king to cancel the Declaration. James II., however, determined to use the power on a wholesale scale for the purpose of admitting Catholics to ecclesiastical as well as secular offices, and, after dismissing refractory judges and barristers, brought the question to an issue in Sir Edward Hale's case (1686). This was a collusive action—the plaintiff, Godden, being the defendant's servant, who claimed as an informer a penalty of £500, to which his master was liable for holding the command of a regiment without taking the Sacrament. The defendant pleaded letters patent from the king, and the judges, with one exception, decided that the king might dispense with penal statutes in particular cases. This decision, by perpetuating a legal anomaly, is said by Hallam to have "sealed the condemnation of the House of Stuart." Armed with this weapon, James immediately proceeded to admit Roman Catholic lords to the Privy Council, and to authorise clergymen to hold benefices. For these and other arbitrary acts he lost the crown, and the Bill of Rights abolished both the Suspending and Dispensing power, declaring that "the pretended power of suspending laws and the execution of laws by regal authority without Act of Parliament is illegal; and that the pretended power of dispensing with laws by regal authority without Act of Parliament, as it hath been assumed and exercised of late, is illegal."

Matthew Paris, *Hist. Major.*, 810 and 854: Coke, *Reports*, 18; *State Trials*, xi. 1165—1280; Broom, *Const. Law*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*, vols. i. and ii.; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*, ch. xiv.

Disraeli, Benjamin. [Beaconsfield.]

Dissenters. [Nonconformists.]

Dissenters' Chapels Bill (7 and 8 Vict.). In 1844 Lord Lyndhurst carried this measure, which provided that where the founder had not expressly defined the doctrines or form of worship to be observed, the usage of twenty-five years should give trustees a title to their endowment. Its occasion was an attack by some of the Nonconformists on the ten Presbyterian congregations which had diverged into Unitarianism during the eighteenth century, and which had in most instances considerable endowments.

Divine Right. In England the doctrine of divine right of sovereigns grew up during the sixteenth century, flourished during the seventeenth, and died a natural death in the eighteenth. The idea of the sacredness of hereditary right had made great progress during the fifteenth century. The false pedigree put forth by Henry of Lancaster to justify his claim to the crown, the history of the Duke of York's pretensions to the throne, the theory by which Richard III. strove to justify his usurpation, and the care with which Henry VII. guarded his hereditary title against anything which might seem to impair it, mark the advance of this view. The theory of election fell more and more into the background. At the coronation of Edward VI., the king was presented to the people as their lawful and undoubted sovereign before he took the oath to preserve the laws and liberties of the realm. Thus the very form of an election contract was destroyed. The accession of James I. was the triumph of hereditary over Parliamentary title. The resolution which recognised him as king stated, "that immediately on the decease of Elizabeth, late Queen of England, the imperial crown of the realm of England . . . did by inherent birthright, and lawful and undoubted succession, descend and come to your most excellent Majesty, as being lineally, justly, and lawfully next and sole heir of the blood royal of this realm." Already in two of the religious confessions of Henry VIII.'s reign—the *Institution of a Christian Man* (1537) and the *Necessary Doctrine and Erudition* (1543)—the duty of passive obedience had been established as a necessary consequence of the fifth commandment. In the Canons of 1606 the clergy went so far in enforcing this view that the king felt that the obedience they demanded for a *de facto* king undermined his hereditary title. He was also obliged, at the complaint of Parliament, to condemn the theory of his absolute power put forth by Cowell, the Professor of Civil Law at Cambridge, in his *Law Dictionary*. Under Charles I. the House of Commons complained of the sermons of Sibthorpe and Mainwaring (1627), and in their remonstrance of May 26, 1642, asserted that the "erroneous maxim being infused into princes that their kingdoms are their own, and that they may do with them what they will, as if their kingdoms were for them and not they for their kingdoms . . . was the root of all the subjects' misery." The Act by which Charles II. was made to succeed immediately on his father's death, and his reign dated accordingly, was a practical acknowledgement of the doctrine of divine right. The Church of the Restoration made the absolute duty of non-resistance part of its teaching, and it was also made part of the oath of allegiance. Both Oxford and Cambridge proclaimed this duty, and the former university burnt the works of its opponents. Closely connected with the doctrine of the divine right was the custom of touching for the "king's evil," which was, in the eyes of the people, "a visible, palpable attestation of the indefeasible sanctity of the royal line." A Latin service for this ceremony had been drawn up under Henry VII.; under Charles I. an English one took its place, and during the reign of Anne was inserted in the Prayer Book. In a single year Charles II. touched 8,500 persons; in the course of his reign it is estimated that one hundred thousand persons received his healing touch. William III. naturally never attempted to exercise this power, but Anne revived the ceremony. It was again abandoned by the Hanoverian kings, and the practice was only maintained by the exiled heirs of the Stuarts. During the same years the theory of divine right was passing away. It revived under Anne, and its efficacy was preached by Sacheverell and other divines. But when George I. came to the throne, with a title based on the Act of Settlement alone, it was impossible for any party which accepted the Hanoverian succession to still maintain this doctrine. Moreover, as the Tories were in opposition, they had no motive for exalting the monarchy. The Jacobites alone continued to make this tenet part of their faith, and they became practically extinct by the accession of George III.

Sir R. Filmer, *Original of Government*, 1652, and *Political Discourses*, 1680; Allen, *Royal Prerogative*.

Dodington, George Bubb (*b.* 1691, *d.* 1762), was a politician of some prominence in the first half of the eighteenth century. He entered Parliament in 1715 as member for Winchelsea, and was almost at once despatched as ambassador to Spain, where he signed the Treaty of Madrid, and remained till 1717. He inherited a magnificent property, and attached himself to Walpole's party, but deserted that minister in 1741. Before this he had, in 1737, used all his influence with Frederick, Prince of Wales, to dissuade him from openly setting his father at defiance, but was one of the leading friends and counsellors of the prince for many years. After holding several offices, he became the confidential friend of Lord Bute, in the first year of George III.'s reign,

and was by that nobleman's influence created Baron Melcombe. He did not, however, long enjoy his new honours, but died the next year. He had some claims to being a patron of men of letters, and it was to him that Thomson dedicated his *Summer*. Among his friends were Young, Fielding, and Lyttleton. He left behind him a *Diary* (published in 1784), which is still one of the leading authorities for the minor history of the times in which he lived.

Dodowah, The Battle of (1826), took place on the Gold Coast, between a British force, under Colonel Purdon, and the Ashantees, who, after fighting with desperate bravery, were compelled to give way.

Dollar, The Battle of (875), resulted in a complete victory for the Danes, under Thorstem, over Constantine and the men of Alban. As a consequence of this defeat, Constantine was compelled to cede Caithness, Sutherland, Ross, and Moray to the invaders. Dollar is on the borders of Fife and Perthshire.

Dolly's Brae, The Riot at, occurred on July 12, 1849. Fifteen hundred Orangemen marched through this defile, which is near Castlewellan, to congratulate the Earl of Roden, their provincial grand master. On their way back they were fired on by the Roman Catholics, an attack which the Protestants were not slow to return. The result of the affray was that the latter body drove back their opponents, who left four dead and forty wounded on the field. The question was taken up in Parliament, and the Earl of Roden was eventually dismissed from his lord-lieutenancy.

Annual Register; Hansard's Debates, 1849.

Domesday is the name given to the great survey of England, made by order of William the Conqueror. The name is not found before the *Dialogus de Scaccario* (q.v.), in which (i. 16) it is said that the English called the book of the survey "Domesdei," or "the day of judgment," because of the strictness of the examination. It has also been held to refer to the day of holding the courts at which the inquest was made. In 1084 England was threatened with invasion by Canute of Denmark. At the beginning of that year the king laid a heavy "geld," or tax, on all England of six shillings on the hide. The invasion of the Northmen was not made. The threatened danger, however, and the tax which seems connected with it, probably made the Conqueror anxious to ascertain the capabilities of his kingdom, both as regards defence and taxation. At the mid-winter meeting of the Witan, after "deep speech" with the great men, the king ordered that a survey of the kingdom should be made. For the purpose of the survey the country was divided into districts, and a body of commissioners was sent to hold an inquest in each district. The names of those sent into the midland counties are preserved, and show that men of high position were employed in the work. They were bidden to inquire who held each estate in the time of King Edward, who held it at the time of the inquest, what its value was at the two dates, whether that value could be raised, and by what title it was held. In order to find out whether an estate was capable of contributing a larger sum to the royal treasury, minute inquiries were to be made as to its extent, and the men and beasts it supported. The commissioners gained their information in the way in which such matters were usually managed in England. They took the same witness of the sheriff and the French (foreign) barons, and the whole hundred, of the priest, the reeve, and six villeins of each township: that is, they learned the particulars they wished to know by answers made on oath in the hundred court. It was not the first time that an inquest had been held to ascertain the value of the land throughout the country for the purpose of taxation; for in the time of Ethelred the country had been surveyed and divided for the assessment of the danegeld, and an inquest seems to have been held for the geld of 1084. It is evident, however, that these had not been of the searching nature of the Domesday Survey, which was intensely disliked by Englishmen. The inquest was finished in the summer of 1086.

Questions of right, as well as the nature of the inquest, led to irritation and to some bloodshed. With matters of title the commissioners did not concern themselves further than to record the conflicting claims, and in doing this they treated the people of each race alike. Cases of illegal occupation are often ranged in a class by themselves, and include possessions gained by defective or disputed titles, as well as by acts of violence. These are the *terræ occupatæ* of the western shires, and the *invasiones* of Essex, &c. Few indications can be found in the record of the violence of the Conquest. The rights and obligations of each landholder are settled by those of his *antecessor*, and the date at which these are ascertained is that of the death of King Edward. There is seldom anything to show that the new possessor did not succeed his *antecessor* peacefully, and, as far as possible, all reference to the reign of Harold is avoided. Nevertheless the record bears witness to a sweeping confiscation of the lands of the wealthier and more powerful class, and in a lesser degree of the smaller owners also, to widespread devastation, and to the ruin of many boroughs. Two systems of measurement are used in Domesday: the one by the *hide*, the other by the *carucate*. The hide is used to signify an area of a certain rating value. It is an old

English term, and though it implies an area, seems in Domesday at least to be of uncertain extent. The foreign carucate is the co-relative of the hide, but has a more constant reference to area. It is sometimes used of land which is non-hidated, *i.e.*, not rated for the payment of taxes. In both hide and carucate the *terra ad unam carucam*, or one plough-land of definite extent, is a principal factor.

The latest investigation of Anglo Saxon institutions is contained in Prof. F. W. Maitland's *Domesday Book and Beyond*. Among the more notable conclusions are the following :—(1) Domesday being primarily a tax-book, many of its leading distinctions are fiscal rather than legal or economic. For example, the difference between the sokemen and the classes below them is that the former are personally responsible for the geld, while the latter pay it through a lord. Similarly, the term "manerium" has none of its thirteenth century meaning, but simply implies an area—be it an immense tract or only twelve acres, be its annual value £150 or 1s.—which is treated as a unit by the tax-gatherer. (2) The line between the villani, bordarii, and cotarii was an economic one, and not a matter of status. They were not legally "ascripti glebæ." The distinction between the "sochemannus" and the "liber homo" cannot be ascertained. (3) The villans of Domesday were not necessarily the justice-ables of their lords; still less were the sokemen. All depended on whether the lord had sac and soc (q.v.), a right which could only be claimed by royal grant. Grantees, however, could in their turn become grantors, and thus justice had already become sub-infeudated. (4) The free lordless village was as normal a feature in 1066 as the village completely subjected to seignorial control. Such free townships, however, had very little communal organisation, for they had no court and often no reeve. (5) The Anglo-Saxon borough is primarily a fortress, a unit in a scheme of national defence, the sphere of a special peace and of a separate court. The burgesses rarely all have the same landlord—in fact, historically they may be traced back to the complements of men sent by the neighbouring landowners to defend the post. The commercial element is not a necessary characteristic of a borough. (6) Seignorial justice may be traced back in England to a very remote time. Even in the seventh century there were "immunists" with exalted rights within their territories; while in the tenth century a royal grant of land generally included as a matter of common form a grant of jurisdiction, extending to both the free and the unfree. (7) It is impossible to believe that the English villages as a whole have a servile origin. In the west the English may, here and there, have adopted Celtic agrarian arrangements unchanged; but elsewhere from the very first we find the typical holding a large hide of 120 acres or thereabouts, an area only suited to the freeman. The virgate of thirty acres, so often pointed to as the typical servile holding, is obviously of later origin, being only a fraction of the hide, derived by splitting it into parts.

Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, iv., c. 21, v., c. 22, and App.; Eyton, *Key to Domesday, Domesday Studies, Dorset and Somerset*; Sir. H. Ellis, *Introduction to Domesday*; Maitland, *Domesday Book and Beyond*, 1897. The Domesday Book was reprinted by the Record Commission, 1783—1810, and in fac-simile 1864—5.

Dominica, the largest, though not the most important, of the Leeward Islands, was discovered by Columbus, 1493, on a Sunday, whence its name. Though claimed from 1625 onwards by England, it was colonised by the French, but in 1754 was captured by the British forces, and was formally ceded to England by the Treaty of Paris, 1763. In 1778 it was ravaged by the French, and was taken by them in 1781, and retained for a period of two years. In 1795 another attack was made on Dominica, and in 1805 the island was once more ravaged by a French force under La Grange. In 1813 Dominica was the scene of a Maroon war, but the insurgents were speedily crushed; and the insurrection was made a pretext for the employment of most severe measures against the slaves. Since 1871 Dominica has belonged to the federation of the Leeward Islands (q.v.), but increased local autonomy was granted to it in 1894. The population is mainly French-speaking and Catholic.

Attwood, *Hist. of Dominica.*

Dominica, The Battle of (April 12, 1782), resulted in the destruction of the French naval power in the West Indies. On the 9th of April the division of Sir Samuel Hood, which, consisting of eight ships, had got separated from the rest of the fleet under Rodney, had maintained for an hour an unequal contest with fifteen French ships, and the French admiral had thought it wise to retire when the rest of the British fleet came up. The next two days were occupied in trying to bring the French to action, and on the 12th Rodney succeeded in doing so. Favoured by the wind, he took advantage of a break in the French line, and advancing in column, cut the French fleet in two. Sir Samuel Hood, who was leading the English van, at once became engaged with that of the French fleet, while Rodney was busy with the enemy's centre. The action was vigorously carried on, and the atmosphere, which was very still, soon became so enveloped in smoke that the fleets mutually ceased firing. When at length the smoke cleared away, the French were seen in full retreat. A chase was immediately begun, and five ships were taken or destroyed, including the enormous *Ville de Paris*. Four more were soon afterwards captured by Hood when cruising among the islands. The English

loss in the two actions of the 9th and 12th was comparatively small. Rodney and Hood were both raised to the peerage. The battle itself is famous in naval history as being the first in which the manœuvre of breaking the line was practised.

Allen, *Naval Battles*; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*

Dominicans, The, or Black Friars. This order was founded by Dominic in the beginning of the twelfth century, and approved by Innocent III. in 1215. Thirteen brethren of this order crossed into England in 1221, and before long fixed their abode at Oxford, where they soon became prominent in the schools. Their second English house was the Blackfriars in London, originally situated where Lincoln's Inn now stands, but removed from this place about 1279. At the time of the dissolution of the monasteries there were fifty-eight Dominican houses in England and Wales, several of them being situated in the principal towns, such as Bristol, Northampton, Salisbury, York, and Leicester. [Friars.]

Dominis, Marco Antonio de (*b.* 1566, *d.* 1624), was a Jesuit, who, in 1604, became Archbishop of Spalatro. He made the acquaintance of Bishop Bedell in Italy, and was induced by him to quit his archbishopric and come to England, where he published his work, *De Republica Ecclesiastica* (1617), which was aimed at some of the evils, temporal and ecclesiastical, of the Papal system. De Dominis professed himself a Protestant, and was much patronised by James I. and the High Churchmen in England. He received the Mastership of the Savoy, and was made Dean of Windsor. In England he saw that his ambition was not likely to be gratified by the highest honours of the Church. He, therefore, returned to Rome (1622), where his old schoolfellow, Gregory XV., was Pope, and seems to have entertained the idea that by his efforts England might be restored to the Church of Rome. But on the death of Gregory, De Dominis was arrested by the Inquisition, and imprisoned in the castle of St. Angelo, where he died.

Newland, *Life of De Dominis*; Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng., 1603—1642.*

Donald, son of Constantine and King of Alban (*d.* 900), was the first ruler styled by the chroniclers "King of Alban." He reigned from 889 to 900, and was occupied during the early part of his reign in repelling the attacks of Sigurd, the brother of Harald Harfagr, and the newly-appointed earl of those Norwegians who had fled from their native country on the accession of the new king, and had already begun to colonise the Orkney Islands. The new-comers invaded Caithness and Sutherland, and the presence of the King of Alban was constantly required in those parts to keep them at bay, though their incursions could hardly affect that part of Scotland over which Donald really reigned. Later on, a fresh body of Danes from Dublin swept down upon the kingdom of Alban itself, and Donald was slain at Dunotter in contest with them.

Donald Baloch of the Isles was a relative of Alexander of the Isles, on whose captivity he raised a force and defeated the royal troops under the Earl of Mar at Lochaber (1431). James I. of Scotland was exceedingly angry at the ill-success of his lieutenant, and increased the taxes throughout his dominions five-fold for the purpose of finding funds for a royal progress through the Highlands. Shortly after, Donald was compelled to seek refuge in Ireland, where he was killed.

Donald Bane, King of Scotland, was brother of Malcolm Canmore, whom he succeeded in 1093. After reigning six months, he was driven out by his nephew Duncan. In 1094, however, on Duncan's death, he recovered the throne, which he shared for three years with Edmund, son of Malcolm. For some three years Donald Bane continued to rule over the Scots north of the great firths, while Edmund, as the son of the Saxon Margaret, reigned over the more Saxon population of the Lowlands. At last, in 1097, Edgar Atheling, with the assistance of an English force, after defeating and imprisoning his nephew Edmund and Donald Bane, set his other nephew Edgar on the Scotch throne. Two years later Donald Bane was taken prisoner, and after being blinded, was condemned to perpetual imprisonment till his death. He was buried in Dunfermline Abbey.

Skene, *Celtic Scotland*; Robertson, *Early Kings of Scotland.*

Donald Bane MacWilliam (*d.* 1187) claimed to be a descendant of Duncan, son of Malcolm Canmore. In 1181, during the absence of William the Lion at the English court, he tried, with the aid of many of the Scottish barons, to make himself king of the country north of the Forth and Clyde, and for six years he there maintained a sort of irregular warfare, which ended in his defeat and death in the Spey Valley (July, 1187).

Donald Brec, or **Domnal Breac,** the son of Eocha (q.v.), was King of Dalriada (629—642). In 634 Donald was defeated by the Angles at Calathios, while attempting to wrest from their hands the district between the Avon and the Pentland Hills. In 637 he crossed over to Ireland with a large army to aid Congal Claen, King of Ulster, against the King of Ireland, but was utterly routed at the battle of Magh Rath. After another attack upon the Anglian territory, in which he was assisted by the Britons of Alclyde, he seems to have fallen out with this last race upon the death of the great Rhydderch Hael, and was slain in battle with the new King of Alclyde at Strathcarron

(642). On his death, the kingdom of Dalriada reverted to anarchy.

Dorchester, Dudley Carleton, Viscount (*b.* 1573, *d.* 1632), was ambassador to the republic of Venice from 1610 to 1615, and to the United Provinces from 1615 to 1626. During the second Parliament of Charles I. he maintained the cause of the king in the House of Commons, and attached himself to the party of Buckingham. In May, 1626, he was created Baron Carleton, and on July 25, 1628, Viscount Dorchester. On December 14 in the same year he was appointed Secretary of State, and in that capacity advocated peace with France and alliance with the German Protestants. Clarendon says that his knowledge of "foreign employment, and the condition of other princes and nations," was combined with an utter ignorance of English institutions and temper.

Dorchester. I. In Dorset, a Roman station, called Durnovaria, or Durinum, was a place of some importance under the Anglo-Saxon kings, and was made the seat of a mint by Athelstan. The remains of the ancient Roman fortifications were destroyed, and a Franciscan priory built from the materials in the reign of Edward III. The town was incorporated in the same reign, and returned two members to Parliament from the year 1295 to 1885. II. In Oxfordshire, on the Thames, near Wallingford, the scene of the baptism of Cwichelm (q.v.), and the seat of a famous abbey and of a bishopric which was united with the see of London by Remigius in 1086.

Dorchester, Catherine Sedley, Countess of (*d.* 1717), was the daughter of Sir Charles Sedley (q.v.), and mistress of James II., by whom, in 1686, she was made Countess of Dorchester. She was more celebrated for her wit and vivacity than for her beauty; and notwithstanding her ridicule of the Romish priests who thronged his court, seems to have maintained her ascendency over James. After his exile she was married to the Earl of Portmore.

Dorislaus, Isaac (*d.* 1649), was the son of a minister of the Dutch Reformed Church. He was appointed Judge Advocate of Essex's army on account of his great knowledge of civil law, and assisted in the preparation of the charge against Charles I. In May, 1649, he was sent as ambassador from the Commonwealth to Holland, where he was murdered at the Hague by some servants of Montrose, headed by Colonel Whitford (May 12 or 15, 1649). He was buried in Westminster Abbey, but exhumed at the Restoration.

Peacock, *Army Lists of Cavaliers and Roundheads.*

Dorset, Peerage of. In 1397 John Beaufort, Earl of Somerset, eldest son of John of Gaunt, was created *Marquis of Dorset,* as well as Marquis of Somerset; the title was continued in this branch of the Beaufort family till the execution and forfeiture of Henry, Duke of Somerset, 1463. In 1475, Thomas Grey, Lord Ferrers of Groby, was created Marquis of Dorset; his grandson, Henry, third Marquis of Dorset, and Duke of Suffolk, was attainted in 1554. In 1603 Thomas Sackville, Lord Buckhurst, was created *Earl of Dorset.* Lionel, seventh earl, was created Duke of Dorset in 1720. In 1843 Charles, the fifth duke, died unmarried, and the dukedom became extinct.

Dorset, Thomas Grey, 1st Marquis of (*d.* 1501), was a son of Elizabeth Woodville, the subsequent wife of Edward IV., by her first husband, Sir John Grey. Sharing in his mother's prosperity, he was created Marquis of Dorset in 1475, and escaped the hostility displayed by Gloucester in 1483 to all the members of the queen-dowager's family by taking refuge in the Sanctuary at Westminster. Escaping thence in safety, he joined with his uncle, Sir Richard Woodville, in an attempt to seize the Tower and raise a fleet; but failure drove him once again to concealment, until Buckingham's rebellion afforded him another opportunity of being actively hostile to Richard III. This movement likewise failing, he forthwith fled over the sea to make one of the powerful party of malcontents supporting the Earl of Richmond in Britanny. On his return from France, where he had been left by Henry VII. as security for the French king's loan, he enjoyed the royal favour, though during the Simnel imposture he was imprisoned in the Tower, but soon released. In the same reign he served against the French (1491); four years later was one of the leaders when the rebels were vanquished at Blackheath.

Dorset, Henry Grey, 3rd Marquis of (*d.* 1554), married Frances, daughter of Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk, and Mary, sister of Henry VIII. By her he became the father of Lady Jane Grey. His weak and ambitious character caused him to lend a ready ear to Northumberland's proposals for obtaining an alteration of the succession in favour of his daughter. When this plot failed, Suffolk was pardoned on payment of a fine, but in the following year raised a rebellion in the midland counties, in conjunction with that of Sir Thomas Wyatt (q.v.) in Kent. His few troops were defeated near Coventry by the Earl of Huntingdon, and the duke, having taken shelter with one of his retainers named Underwood, was by him betrayed to his pursuers. He was condemned, and executed Feb. 23, 1554, a few days after his daughter, Lady Jane Grey.

Tytler, *Eng. under Edward VI. and Mary.*

Dorset, Thomas Sackville, 1st Earl of (*b.* 1536, *d.* 1608), was the son of Sir Richard

Sackville. He was educated at Oxford and Cambridge, studied at the Inner Temple, and served in various diplomatic employments on the Continent. In 1567 he was created Lord Buckhurst. In 1587 he was ambassador to the United Provinces, and succeeded Burleigh as Lord Treasurer. In 1604 he was created Earl of Dorset. He was the joint author with Thomas Norton of the tragedy of *Gorboduc* (1561), the earliest blank-verse drama in our language.

Dorset, Charles Sackville, 6th Earl of (*b.* 1637, *d.* 1706), sat for East Grinstead as Lord Buckhurst in 1660, but declined all public employment. In 1675 he became Gentleman of the Bedchamber, and next year succeeded to his father's title. In the reign of James II. he was dismissed from the lord-lieutenancy of Sussex. He entered into communication with the Prince of Orange, and on the landing of William, assisted the Princess Anne in her flight from Westminster. He became Lord Chamberlain, and employed his patronage in helping genius and misfortune. On the departure of William for Ireland, he was appointed in Mary's Council of Nine. In 1691 he accompanied William to Holland. He was declared by Preston, on the detection of his plot, to be in communication with the Jacobite court of St. Germains. The accusation was probably untrue, although Dorset was no doubt angry at William's leanings towards the Tories. Dorset is better known as the patron of Prior, Dryden, Congreve, and Addison, than as a politician. Macaulay thinks that "had he been driven by necessity to exert himself, he would probably have risen to the highest posts in the State."

Johnson, Life of Dorset; Macaulay, *Hist. of England.*

Dost Mahomed (*d.* 1863) was the brother of Futteh Khan, the vizier of Mahmood Shah in Afghanistan. In conjunction with his brothers, he succeeded to the throne of Cabul on the expulsion of Mahmood, brother of Shah Soojah. In 1834 Dost Mahomed successfully quelled the attempt of Shah Soojah to recover Afghanistan, but during this war he lost the province of Peshawur definitely to Runjeet Singh. In 1836 Dost made overtures to Lord Auckland for arbitration, and on his refusal appealed to the King of Persia. In 1837 he sent an expedition to Peshawur, and at Jumrood won a fruitless victory. In 1838 overtures for an alliance were made to Dost Mahomed, and an embassy sent to Cabul under Captain Burnes. Dost Mahomed declared his willingness to dismiss the Russian and Persian envoys, provided the English would assist him to recover Peshawur. This the Governor-General refused, and Dost Mahomed therefore turned to Persia and Russia, and the latter power guaranteed the defence of Candahar. Thereupon the English determined to depose him, and to attain this object, the Afghan expedition of 1839 was despatched. Deserted by Persia, with a British army advancing on Cabul, Dost Mahomed fled with a handful of followers to the Hindoo Koosh. After being kindly received by the chief of Khooloom, he passed on to Bokhara, where he was detained by the Ameer; but on effecting his escape, he returned to Khooloom, gathered an army of Oosbegs, and crossing the Hindoo Koosh, proclaimed a religious war. He was defeated, however, September 18th, by Brigadier Dennie. After another attempt to raise the country against the English, he surrendered to Sir William Macnaughten, and was brought to Calcutta. He was released in 1842. In the second Sikh War he made common cause with the Sikhs, and captured Peshawur, from which, however, he was shortly after driven out. In 1856—7 an English army was despatched to aid him against the Shah of Persia, who had seized Herat. Before he died, he had succeeded to some extent, at least, in uniting the Afghan power. On his death, which occurred in 1863, the country was divided between the partisans of his eldest son, and the younger one, Shere Ali, to whom Dost Mahomed had bequeathed his throne. [Afghan Wars.]

Doughty, Thomas, was Drake's second in command in the famous voyage of 1577. He was appointed captain of a Portuguese vessel captured near Santiago. Soon after quitting the Plate River, Doughty deserted with his men, but was soon overtaken, and his crew transferred to Drake's own ship, the *Pelican*. On the Patagonian coast the adventurers came upon a gibbet, on which, more than fifty years before, Magellan had hanged his mutineers; and this spot was now put into fresh service for the execution of Doughty. A court-martial was extemporised; Doughty was found guilty, and beheaded, after first embracing the admiral and partaking of the holy communion. A story of the time makes Drake to have been the executioner in person.

Douglas Castle (in Lanarkshire), during the wars of Scotland with Edward I., obtained the name of the "Perilous Castle of Douglas," from the difficulty of holding it against the Scots. It was three times re-captured from the English by Sir James Douglas, and its garrison destroyed. About the year 1451 it was demolished by James II.'s orders, while the earl was absent in Rome. It was, however, rebuilt, and was in 1639 garrisoned by the Covenanters.

Douglas, The Family of, is supposed to be of Flemish origin. The first member of the family known to history is Sir William Douglas, the friend and supporter of Wallace. The vast possessions of the Douglas family in the south of Scotland rendered them formidable antagonists to the royal power, and the fact that Archibald Douglas married a

daughter of Baliol's sister, while the Stuarts were only descended from a younger daughter of David of Huntingdon, made it at one time by no means impossible that a Douglas would succeed in driving the Stuarts from the throne. Besides their estates in Scotland, the Douglases had at one time extensive lands in England, just as the Percies had similar claims in Scotland. These claims were to have been satisfied for both families according to the Treaty of Northampton; and it has been remarked that a slight difference in the distribution of the estates of either family would have "inverted their position, and made the Percies national to Scotland, the Douglases to England."

Douglas, THE PEERAGE OF, dates from Sir William Douglas, who was created Earl of Douglas in 1357. The earldom came to an end in 1455 with the attainder of James, ninth earl, after the battle of Arkenholm and the unsuccessful Douglas rebellion. The *Peerage of Angus* had been conferred on George, illegitimate son of the first Earl of Douglas, in 1389. In the Douglas rebellion the Anguses adhered to the crown, and got a large portion of their relatives' estates. In 1633 William, eleventh Earl of Angus, was created *Marquis of Douglas*. In 1703 Archibald, third marquis, was created *Duke of Douglas*. The dukedom of Douglas became extinct with him in 1761. The estates of the Douglas family were the subject of a protracted law-suit, known as the *Douglas Cause*, between the Duke of Hamilton and Archibald Stewart, nephew of the Duke of Douglas, who obtained the estates by a judgment of the House of Lords in 1771, and was created *Baron Douglas* in 1790. The peerage became extinct in 1857. The marquisate of Douglas and earldom of Angus passed to James, seventh Duke of Hamilton, on the death of Archibald, Duke of Douglas, in 1761, who was descended, by a second marriage, from William, first Marquis of Douglas (*d.* 1633.) [HAMILTON.]

Douglas, WILLIAM, 1ST EARL OF, was the son of Sir Archibald Douglas. On his return from France, where he had been educated, in 1346, his first exploit was to drive the English out of Douglasdale and Teviotdale. He was the godson of Sir William Douglas, the Knight of Liddesdale (q.v.), whom he murdered in Ettrick Forest (1353) in revenge. In 1356 he was present at the battle of Poictiers; and in 1357 was created Earl of Douglas. On the death of David II. he is said to have intended to have disputed the succession of the house of Stuart, but was bought off by an alliance between his son and Margaret, daughter of Robert II.

Douglas, JAMES, 2ND EARL OF (*d.* 1388), the son of William, Earl of Douglas, married Margaret, daughter of Robert II. He succeeded to the title in 1384. He was renowned for his bravery and skilful generalship. In 1385 he took part in a raid upon England in conjunction with a body of French troops under John of Vienne. In 1388 he penetrated as far as the gates of York, and was carrying away Henry Percy's (Hotspur) pennon to Scotland, when he was met by the Percies at Otterburn. This battle resulted in the defeat of the English, who fled from the field, leaving their leader, Hotspur, in the hands of the enemy; but it was dearly purchased by the Scots with the death of the Earl of Douglas.

Douglas, ARCHIBALD, 4TH EARL OF (*d.* 1424), was the son of Archibald, third Earl of Douglas. In 1400 his ambition procured the marriage of his sister Marjory with the Duke of Rothesay (q.v.), the heir to the Scottish crown, and he is said to have been privy to the murder of that young prince in 1402. In the September of the same year he headed an army collected for the invasion of England, but was defeated and taken prisoner at the battle of Homildon Hill. On his release, he joined Percy, in whose cause he was again defeated and taken prisoner at Shrewsbury (q.v.), 1403. In 1421 he crossed over to France to fight against the English in that country. There he was created Duke of Touraine, and falling in the battle of Verneuil, was buried at Tours.

Douglas, WILLIAM, 6TH EARL OF (*d.* 1440), and third Duke of Touraine, was the son of Archibald, fifth Earl of Douglas, who died 1439. On succeeding to the earldom, he incurred the enmity of Sir William Crichton, who invited him to pay a visit to the young king, James II., at Edinburgh Castle, and there, after some form of trial, had him beheaded, along with his brother David (1440). The young earl was but some eighteen years old at the time of his death.

Douglas, WILLIAM, 8TH EARL OF (*d.* 1452), succeeded to the estates on the death of his father, James the Gross (1443). He was a man of turbulent spirit and vast power, possessing a large part of southern Scotland. Having been appointed Lieutenant-Governor by James II., he rapidly concentrated his power by entering into alliances with the Earls of Crawford and Ross and other great nobles, and by setting on foot intrigues with foreign powers and with the English, whom he had defeated on the borders. In 1450 he passed in state across the seas to spend the Jubilee in Rome. He speedily lost the king's favour, and was deprived of his office: a judgment for which, however, he retaliated by various acts of defiance of the royal authority. He ravaged the lands of many of the king's more immediate friends, even daring to put to death Sir John Herries, and assumed the position of an independent prince. In 1452 James II.

summoned him to an interview at Stirling, during which the king, enraged at his insolence, stabbed him in the throat, whereupon he was quickly despatched by Sir Patrick Gray. He married his cousin, Margaret Douglas, the "Fair Maid of Galloway," and so re-united the possessions of the house of Douglas.

Pitscottie, *Chronicle.*

Douglas, JAMES, 9TH EARL OF (*d.* 1488), was the brother of William, Earl of Douglas (stabbed by James II. of Scotland), whom he succeeded as head of the family, Feb., 1452. Almost his first act was to nail a defiance of the king to the walls of the Parliament House, charging him with murder and perjury. He then declared war against James, for which act his lands were subsequently declared forfeited to the crown by an Act passed in 1454. But before long the Angus branch of his own family sided with the king, and in 1455 the Earl of Douglas was defeated at Arkenholm, two of his brothers perishing in the battle. James Douglas was compelled to seek refuge in England, where he remained until he was taken prisoner in a border foray, 1484, and was soon after confined in the monastery of Lindores, where he died in 1488, the last of his line.

Douglas, SIR ARCHIBALD (*d.* 1333), was the youngest brother of the famous Lord James Douglas, and a warm adherent of David II. In 1362, having defeated Edward Baliol at Annan, he made a successful raid into Cumberland. On the capture of Sir Andrew Murray (1333), Douglas was chosen Regent of Scotland; but in the same year he was defeated and taken prisoner at Halidon Hill, and shortly afterwards died of his wounds.

Douglas, SIR GEORGE (*d.* 1547), was a brother of Archibald, sixth Earl of Angus. Having given offence to James V. of Scotland, he was banished to England along with his brother (1528). Some years later he took part (1532) in a raid on Scotland, to which country he did not return until the death of James V., 1542, when his forfeiture was rescinded. He was one of the Assured Lords (q.v.), and was urgent in promoting the marriage of Mary with Edward, but did not do much real service to Henry VIII., except by giving good advice to his ambassador, Sir Ralph Sadler. He perished at the battle of Pinkie (1547).

Douglas, JAMES, LORD (*d.* 1330), called "The Good," was the son of Sir William Douglas, the friend of Wallace. Many stories, more or less incredible, are told of him, as of most of the other patriots who were fighting for Scotland at this time. He was an able and gallant partisan of Robert Bruce, his first exploit in the king's cause being the capture of the castle of Douglas from the English in 1306, and the massacre of its garrison. He was in command of one of the divisions of the Scottish army at Bannockburn in 1314, and in the same year harried Northumberland in conjunction with Edward Bruce. On the departure of Robert Bruce for Ireland, in 1316, the charge of the kingdom was committed to Douglas, who managed to defeat all attempts at invasion on the part of the English nobles. In 1319 he invaded England to create a diversion in favour of the beleaguered castle of Berwick, and won a complete victory at Milton, in Yorkshire. In 1327, whilst on a similar expedition, he surprised the English camp by night at Stanhope Park, in Durham, cutting, it is said, the very ropes of King Edward's tent. Later on, he was one of the Scotch commissioners at the conclusion of the Treaty of Northampton. After the death of Bruce (1329), Douglas set out on an expedition to Palestine for the purpose of conveying the king's heart to Jerusalem, but being diverted from his original enterprise, was slain in battle with the Moors in Andalusia, 1330. His body was brought back to Scotland, and buried at Douglas.

Dalrymple, *Annals of Scotland*; Burton, *Hist. of Scotland.*

Douglas, SIR WILLIAM (*d.* 1353), the Knight of Liddesdale, was taken prisoner (1332) by Sir Antony de Lucy in a raid into Scotland, and by order of Edward III. was put in irons. On his release, he did good service against the English, whom he expelled from Teviotdale (1338). In 1342 he took Alexander Ramsay prisoner owing to a private feud, and starved him to death in his castle of Hermitage; but this crime was pardoned by David II., who even made its perpetrator Governor of Roxburgh Castle. Douglas was taken prisoner at the battle of Neville's Cross, and while in captivity, entered into treasonable negotiations with Edward III. He was assassinated in 1353, whilst hunting in Ettrick Forest, by his godson, William, Lord Douglas.

Dalrymple, *Annals of Scotland.*

Douglas Rebellion, THE (1451). When Wiliiam, the eighth Earl of Douglas, returned from Rome in 1451, he found the king's movements directed by Crichton, and unable to brook a sense of inferiority, he persuaded his own dependants and the Earls of Crawford and Ross to enter into a confederacy with him. In February, 1452, he was murdered by James's own hand, leaving his title and estates to his brother James, who at once took up arms to avenge his relative's fate. Though reconciled to the king for a time, he soon grew restless, and entered into treasonable communications with the Duke of York, and even sent a letter of defiance to James, who soon drove him to the borders, where, however, the rebellious nobleman gathered a force of 40,000 men, and was forced to retreat to Fife. At Arkenholm the two armies

met, but the power of Douglas was thinned by the desertion of his kinsman, the Earl of Angus, and the defection of the Hamiltons. Abandoned by almost all his followers, the Earl James fled to Annandale, and thence to England. His estates were declared forfeited by the Scotch Parliament, and in 1484 the earl himself was taken prisoner while invading his native land, and condemned to lead a monastic life till his death (1488).

Dover, called by the Romans Dubris, was a place of considerable importance in the early history of England. It was one of the Cinque Ports, and a very usual port for embarkation to the Continent. It was here that Eustace, Count of Boulogne, committed the outrage which led to the banishment of Godwin (1051). At this time the town held its privileges by supplying the crown with twenty ships for fifteen days. Harold founded a castle here. After the battle of Hastings the town was burnt by William's troops, and a few years later Eustace of Boulogne attempted to seize it by force during William's absence abroad (1067). It was taken by the French in 1296; in 1520 it was the scene of Henry VIII.'s interview with Charles V., and in 1670, of the negotiations which led to the Treaty of Dover. [Cinque Ports.]

Dover, The Treaty of (1670), was concluded between Charles II. and Louis XIV., chiefly through the instrumentality of Charles's sister, the Duchess of Orleans. By this treaty:—(1) England and France were to declare war against Holland; and England was to receive the province of Zeeland in case of success. (2) The Prince of Orange was, if possible, to receive an indemnity. (3) Charles was to assist Louis to make good his claim on the Spanish succession, and to receive as his reward Ostend, together with any conquests he might make in South America. (4) Charles was to receive a subsidy of £300,000 a year from Louis. These four clauses comprised the whole of the public treaty, which was signed by Shaftesbury and the other ministers, but there were secret clauses known only to Clifford, Arlington, and Arundel, by which Charles was to re-establish Roman Catholicism; while to enable him to crush any opposition in carrying out this scheme, Louis was to give him £200,000 a year and 6,000 French troops.

Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*

Downing, George (*d.* 1684?), was member for Carlisle in 1657. It was he who seems to have first suggested that the "Instrument of Government" should be abolished, and a new constitution, which aimed at reproducing the old constitution under a dynasty of Cromwells substituted for it. After the Restoration, he was English ambassador at the Hague, and in 1664 was strongly in favour of making reprisals on the Dutch, a course of conduct which was adopted, though not in the king's name. A year later he proposed in the House of Commons that the method of contracting government loans through the goldsmiths should be abolished, and that the Treasury should constitute itself a bank; and when his plan was adopted, he received a subordinate part in that department of State. In 1672 he was again ambassador in Holland, and in 1678 had once more to defend his financial schemes in the House, but this time without effect.

Downs, The Battle of the (1666), was fought between the English fleet, commanded by the Duke of Albemarle, and the Dutch, under De Ruyter, De Witt, and Van Tromp. The battle lasted for several days, commencing on the 1st of June. On the 3rd, Albemarle retired, after setting fire to his disabled ships, and late in the evening was joined by his colleague, Prince Rupert. The battle was one of the most obstinate and bloody of all the indecisive battles fought between the Dutch and the English in the seventeenth century.

D'Oyley, Colonel, the president of the first military council in Jamaica (1656), succeeded Major Sedgewicke as governor, and by his severe measures compelled the disbanded soldiers to colonise the island for England, in accordance with the wishes of Cromwell.

Drake, Sir Francis (*b.* 1545, *d.* 1596), was born at Tavistock, in Devonshire. Early inured to a sea life, he accompanied his relative, Sir John Hawkins, to the Spanish main, and subsequently, in 1570, undertook a voyage on his own account to the West Indies. In 1572 he sailed with two vessels to make reprisals upon the Spaniards for the previous losses he had sustained at their hands, and made an unsuccessful attack on Nombre de Dios. On his return to England, Drake was at first employed by Elizabeth in Ireland; but in 1577 sailed, with her sanction, on another expedition. He plundered all the Spanish towns on the coasts of Chili and Peru, captured immense booty, and finally crossing the Pacific Ocean, returned to England round the Cape, thus circumnavigating the globe. On arriving in England, he was knighted by the queen, in recognition of his daring (1580). Five years later, Sir Francis was sent with a fleet to the West Indies, where he captured the cities of Santiago, St. Domingo, and Carthagena. In 1587, during the preparations for the Spanish Armada, he commanded a fleet which did much damage in the port of Cadiz, where he is said to have burnt 10,000 tons of shipping, an operation which he styled "singeing the King of Spain's beard." He then captured an immense treasure-ship off the Azores, and returned home in time to take a very active part in the defeat of the Armada, as vice-admiral of the fleet. In 1595, in conjunction with Sir John Hawkins, Drake sailed on an expedition to the West Indies, but nothing effectual was done; and Sir Francis died on board his

own ship off Porto Bello, Jan. 28, 1596, and was buried in mid-ocean.

Southey, *Lives of the Admirals;* Purchas, *Pilgrims;* Barrow, *Naval Worthies;* Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*

Drapier's Letters (1724) is the name of a pamphlet written by Swift against the new copper coinage which the government were attempting to introduce into Ireland, and the monopoly for coining which had been granted to a person named Wood. They profess to be the production of a certain M. B., a drapier, or draper, of Dublin, and he, writing as an ignorant, unskilled shopman, gives utterance to his own apprehensions of ruin. While professing extreme loyalty to the king, the honest shopman shows, or attempts to show, that the patent was unjust, to begin with; that its terms had been infringed, and that the new coins themselves were base. In this publication Swift hit the public taste of Ireland, and became unrivalled in popularity. So great was the impression produced by this work, that the patent had to be withdrawn from Mr. Wood, who was, however, compensated by a pension of £3,000 a year.

Drogheda is noted in history as being the place where the Papal legate Papera held a synod in 1152, on which occasion the authority of the Roman Church was greatly strengthened in Ireland. It was at this town that Poynings' Act was passed in 1494, and about the same time a mint was established there. In December, 1641, Drogheda was besieged by O'Neil with a large force of Irish, but was for three months successfully defended by Sir Henry Tichborne. On Sept. 3, 1649, Cromwell appeared before the town, which had been garrisoned by Ormonde with his best regiments, most of them English, altogether 2,500 men, commanded by Sir Arthur Aston, an officer of great reputation. On the 9th the bombardment began; a storm attempted by the Puritans on the 10th failed, and the garrison refused to surrender. On the 12th the storming of the place was again attempted, and succeeded, after a desperate struggle. The whole garrison was put to the sword, and Sir Arthur himself had his brains beaten out. Cromwell admits "that the officers were also knocked promiscuously on the head except two." Altogether, it seems that about 4,000 people perished, about half of whom must have been unarmed—so, at least, it would appear from the depositions of eye-witnesses. In 1690 Drogheda surrendered to William III., directly after the battle of the Boyne.

Cromwell's *Letters;* Carte, *Life of Ormonde;* Froude, *Eng. in Ireland.*

Droit d'Aubaine is an old rule by which the property of a deceased foreigner was claimed by the State unless the defunct man had a special exemption. This rule was not peculiar to England, but common to other countries. The derivation of the word "aubaine" has been variously explained as from *alibinatus*, or *advena*.

Droits of Admiralty are the rights claimed by the government of England on the property of an enemy in time of war. It has been customary in maritime war to seize the property of an enemy if found within our ports on the outbreak of hostilities, and this is then considered as forming part of the *Droits* of Admiralty. Prizes captured by non-commissioned vessels are also said to be subject to the same conditions. In the Revolutionary and Napoleonic wars large sums were obtained by the enforcement of these regulations, but for the most part the money so gained was devoted to the public service. By an Act of William IV.'s reign the Droits of Admiralty for that reign were to be put to public use, and the Lord High Admiral is no longer in possession of his claim to the tenth part of property captured on the seas.

Kent, *Commentaries;* Bonner, *Law Dictionary;* Burrell, *Law Dictionary.*

Druids, The, were the priests of the Goidelic Celts in Britain, Druidism, according to Prof. Rhŷs, having been adopted from the pre-Celtic population. Cæsar says that there were in Gaul only two classes who obtained any consideration, the common people being in a condition little above slavery. These two classes were the noble order, Equites, as Cæsar calls them, and the priestly order, the Druids. The last presided over all the religious functions. They had the care of public and private sacrifices, and they interpreted the religious mythology. To them the youth flocked in crowds for instruction. They were too, we find, the judges in all cases, both criminal and civil, settling questions of disputed boundaries or affairs of inheritance, as well as those connected with infractions of the law. If any one refused to abide by their decision, they could inflict on him the penalty of excommunication or interdiction from the sacrifices, which deprived him of all his civil rites, and cut him off from all commerce with his fellow-men. At their head was one chief Druid, who succeeded by election. Generally, the claim of one person to succeed to the vacant post was universally recognised; sometimes, however, disputed claims led to bloodshed. Once a year all the people who had any cause for hearing assembled in the most central part of Gaul, the country of the Ermites (Chartres), and were judged by the Druids: much, one may fancy, as the Israelites were judged by their judges. As has been already said [Celts], Britain was considered the especial nursery of Druidism.

Cæsar tells us, as a distinction, that the Germans had no Druids. But if by this were meant that the Germans had no sacerdotal

class, the statement certainly requires modification. The Germans, like most of the Aryan races after their earliest days, had a class of priests who stood side by side with their kings or chiefs. The Celtic Druids were, we may feel sure, a sacerdotal class, of the same kind as that which was found among their kindred nationalities: that is to say, their essential function was to stand foremost in the sacrifices, and to preserve by oral tradition the mythic histories, whether of gods or heroes, which had been composed in verse, as well as to compose fresh forms when required. They were both priests and bards: gleemen, as the Saxons said, or, as the Norsemen would have said, scalds. This was their essential character. It was in degree chiefly that their functions differed from those of the priests of, say, the heathen Saxons. The Celts were undoubtedly, as Cæsar describes them, a very religious people, and being such, they had raised their priesthood to a position of exceptional power, and from this exceptional position arose their functions as judges. We easily gather this much from Cæsar's account of the Druids; for we see that the enforcement of their decrees was not secured by ordinary legal, but by distinctly religious, penalties: they forbade men the sacrifices. If the people had not been exceptionally religious, this penalty would not have carried with it such exceptional terrors.

Being raised to such a high position, it is probable that the Druids took unusual care to fence themselves round with the mystery of a priestly caste; but the theory that they had a great and secret philosophy, which by oral tradition they handed down far into the Middle Ages, is an extravagant notion which has been cherished by enthusiastic and uncritical minds. [Brehons.]

Roget de Balloquet, *Ethnogénie Gauloise*, tome iii.; H. Gaidoz, *Esquisse de la Religion Gauloise*, and *Les Druides et la Gui de Chene;* Fustel de Coulanges in the *Revue Celtique*, tome iv.; Rhys, *Celtic Heathenism* (Hibbert Lectures).

Drumclog, The Battle of, was fought on the borders of Lanarkshire and Ayrshire, June 11, 1679, between a party of the Covenanters who had been surprised at a "conventicle" and the royal troops under Claverhouse. The Covenanters, led by Balfour of Burleigh and Hackston of Rathillet, were victorious.

Drumcrub, The Battle of (965), was fought between Duff, King of Alban, and Colin, son of Indulf, a rival claimant to the throne. The latter was completely defeated.

Drummond, Sir Gordon (*b.* 1772, *d.* 1854) was one of the English generals during the American War of 1812–14. In 1814 he defeated the Americans at Fort Oswego, and soon afterwards gained a second victory over them at Lundy's Lane. In August of that year, however, he was himself defeated at Fort Erie. In 1815 he was appointed Governor-General of Canada.

Drummond, Thomas, Permanent Under-Secretary for Ireland from 1835 to his death in 1840, was born in 1797 in Edinburgh, became an officer in the Royal Engineers, and was employed in the Government survey of Ireland, and subsequently in the Boundary Commission rendered necessary by the Reform Bill of 1832. Attracted to politics, he became Permanent Under-Secretary at Dublin Castle. He was largely responsible for the organisation of the Royal Irish Constabulary (1836). His policy was to govern Ireland by the ordinary law, recognising the grievances of the people and pursuing a conciliatory policy towards the Catholics. He was bitterly attacked by the landlord party, and the aphorism "Property has its duties as well as its rights" was coined by him in a reply to a protest from the Tipperary magistrates.

Life, by Barry O'Brien.

Drummond, Sir William (*d.* 1828), entered Parliament in 1795 as member for St. Mawes. In 1796 he was sent as envoy extraordinary to the Court of Naples, and in 1801 he was appointed ambassador at Constantinople. Sir William was more distinguished as a scholar than as a diplomatist, and published several learned works.

Drunken Parliament, The (1661), was the name given to the ultra-Royalist Scotch Parliament elected just after the Restoration. It restored the Lords of the Articles (q.v.), and annulled all Acts of the preceding twenty-eight years.

Drury, Sir William (*d.* 1579), attained considerable fame in the reign of Elizabeth as an able general and administrator. In 1567 he was in command of the border forces, and in 1570, in conjunction with Lennox, took Hamilton from the Duke of Chatelherault. In 1573 he conducted the siege of Edinburgh to a successful issue, and received the thanks of the queen. Three years later Drury was made President of Munster, and inaugurated his entrance upon the office with a succession of vigorous measures. He died at Cork, 1579.

Dryden, John (*b.* 1631, *d.* 1700), was educated at Westminster and Cambridge. At the Restoration he appears to have changed his politics; for after having, in 1659, written an elegiac poem on the death of Oliver Cromwell, we find him in 1660 ready with another in honour of the new king. From this time there hardly occurred any political event of importance that is not alluded to in his pages. The Dutch were satirised in 1662; and five years later the wonderful events of 1665—6 were celebrated in the *Annus Mirabilis*. In 1681 he published his greatest work, *Absalom and Achitophel*, a political satire, directed mainly against the intrigues of Shaftesbury and Monmouth on the question of the accession of

the Duke of York. All the characters in this poem are intended to represent the chief statesmen of the day under the thin disguise of Hebrew names. Thus David is Charles II.; Absalom, his favourite son, the Duke of Monmouth; Achitophel, the Earl of Shaftesbury; while the versatile Duke of Buckingham appears as Zimri. The attack on Shaftesbury was before long continued in *The Medal*, while by the next year, in the *Religio Laici*, he was again engaged upon one of the leading topics of the day, defending the Church of England against the attacks of the Dissenters. Under James II. Dryden turned Roman Catholic, and his pension as Laureate, an office to which he had been appointed about the year 1668, was renewed after a temporary cessation. Shortly after this the poet's gratitude evinced itself in the publication of the *Hind and the Panther* (1687), another political and religious poem, in which the "milk-white hind, unspotted and unchanged," represents the Church of Rome; while the panther, "the noblest creature of the spotted kind," stands for the Church of England, and other sects are represented under the guise of various beasts. With the Revolution his various offices were taken away from him, and he henceforward confined himself to purely poetical work.

An edition of Dryden's *Works*, with a *Life* by Sir Walter Scott, was published in 1808, and has been revised and re-issued by Mr. George Saintsbury.

Dublin has been from the very earliest times a place of great importance in Irish history. Its name bespeaks a Celtic origin, and it has been identified with the Eblana of Ptolemy. In the ninth century it fell into the hands of the Ostmen, or Danes, who, with occasional reverses, kept their footing in Ireland till the time of the English conquest. In 1171 the town was unsuccessfully besieged by Roderick, King of Connaught, with an immense host of Irish; and in the same year was the place where Henry II. received the homage of the Irish chiefs. The government of Dublin was then conferred on Hugh de Lacy. In 1207 the new English colony was granted a charter, and two years later was nearly exterminated by a native rising, which has given to the day of its occurrence the title of Black Monday. Richard II. appears to have visited Dublin twice, and was being entertained there when news came of Bolingbroke's invasion. In 1591 a charter of Queen Elizabeth founded Trinity College and the University of Dublin. A new University was founded here by the Irish University Act of 1908. In 1646 Dublin was besieged by the Papists, and was next year surrendered to the Parliamentarian forces. After the Revolution of 1688, James I. held a Parliament in this city, which, however, fell into the hands of William III. soon after the battle of the Boyne. In later times Dublin has been the head-quarters of several plots and seditious projects, such as the plot of Lord E. Fitzgerald (1798), of Emmett (1803), the Fenian Conspiracy of 1867, and the plot of the Invincibles in 1882. [IRELAND.]

Dublin, THE TREATY OF, conducted by Ormonde on behalf of Charles I. and the Irish Council of Kilkenny, became substantially, after the failure of Glamorgan's mission, the public part of Glamorgan's treaty (q.v.), and was concluded on March 28, 1646. The Papal nuncio and Owen Roe O'Neil strongly opposed it, and a synod at Waterford excommunicated all who adhered to it. It was practically set aside by the Irish advance on Dublin.

Clarendon, *Hist. of the Reb.*; Carte, *Ormonde.*

Duclair Episode. In 1870 six British vessels were seized by the Germans at Duclair in the course of their military operations, and sunk in the Seine; their crews, moreover, it was said, were treated with brutality. This excited considerable irritation in England. On explanations being demanded, Prince Bismarck showed himself ready and desirous to avoid all cause of quarrel by satisfactorily explaining away all causes of offence, and offering the fullest compensation to the parties entitled to claim it.

Dudley, SIR EDMUND (*d.* 1510), was one of the unprincipled agents of Henry VII.'s rapacity, to which he contrived to lend a kind of legal support by founding it in many cases upon a revival of obsolete statutes. In 1492 he accompanied Henry to France, and it was on his return from this expedition that he united with Empson in inaugurating that system of exaction for which he has obtained so unenviable a notoriety. In 1504 he provides an example of the completeness of Henry's power at that time by his appearance as Speaker of the House of Commons, while the king conferred upon him also the rank and office of a baron of the Exchequer. Dudley and his partner Empson were naturally very unpopular; they were men, to use the words of Bacon, "whom the people esteemed as his [Henry VII.'s] horse-leeches and shearers, bold men and careless of fame, and that took toll of their master's grist." On the death of Henry VII., his successor could find no better way to ensure popularity at the opening of his reign than by the surrender to the people's fury of these agents of his father's oppression. Dudley and Empson were accordingly arrested on a charge of high treason, were at once condemned, and executed in August, 1510. So general was the disgust and indignation which Dudley and Empson had excited, that it was thought necessary to pass a special Act of Parliament to prevent the recurrence of the illegalities of which they had been guilty.

Bacon, *Henry VII.*

Dudley, Lord Guilford (*d.* 1554), son of the Duke of Northumberland (q.v.), was married in 1553 to Lady Jane Grey (q.v.), whose claim to the throne the duke intended to assert on the death of Edward VI. Upon the failure of his plot, he was condemned to death in company with his wife, but the sentence was not carried into effect till 1554, when the insurrection of Sir Thomas Wyatt (q.v.) and the solicitations of Simon Renard, the ambassador of Charles V., induced Mary to order his instant execution. [Grey, Lady Jane; Mary.]

Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Stowe, *Annals*; Sir H. Nicolas, *Life of Lady Jane Grey.*

Dudley, Sir Andrew, brother of the Duke of Northumberland (q.v.), was sent in 1553 to the Emperor Charles V. for the purpose of mediating between the Spaniards and the French. In the same year he received instructions from his brother to bribe the King of France to send an army to England in furtherance of the scheme for placing Lady Jane Grey on the throne. For this he was put on his trial and condemned to death, but was afterwards reprieved.

Dudley, Sir Henry, a cousin of the Duke of Northumberland (q.v.), formed (in 1556) a conspiracy in favour of the Princess Elizabeth, the avowed object of the plot being to free England from the yoke of Catholicism and Spain. Elizabeth was to be married to Courtenay, Earl of Devon, who had been the cause of the previous rebellion of 1554. A plan was also laid to carry off a large amount of Spanish silver from the Treasury; but the whole plot was betrayed by one of the accomplices, named Thomas White, and most of the conspirators were arrested. Dudley himself, however, escaped abroad.

Dudley and Ward, John William Ward, 4th Earl of (*b.* 1781, *d.* 1833), was elected member for Downton in 1802, and soon distinguished himself as a speaker in the House of Commons. In 1820 he succeeded his father in the peerage, and on the formation of Canning's ministry became head of the Foreign Office (1827), in which capacity he signed the Treaty of London, and the same year was raised to the dignity of an earl. In 1828 he left the Duke of Wellington's Cabinet with Huskisson and Palmerston, and died a few years later, in 1833. He was a man of eccentric manners, with a habit of thinking aloud. It was of him that Rogers wrote his celebrated couplet—

"They say Ward has no heart, but I deny it;
He has a heart, he gets his speeches by it."

Duelling. The practice of duelling seems to have originated from the Teutonic custom of trial by battle. But it is evident that this method of deciding rights did not exist in England before the Conquest. Under William the Conqueror it was rendered compulsory only between two Normans, but was gradually extended in certain cases to both races. This law, though it had long fallen into desuetude, was not finally abrogated till 1818, after it had in the preceding year been claimed as his right by a certain Thornton, who was accused of murder. The practice of duelling, not as a solemn appeal to heaven for justice, but for the satisfaction of a personal affront, has arisen from the legal custom, and does not seem to have occurred in England earlier than the sixteenth century, though it became very common indeed in the next one, and so continued till the last generation. It was not till about the year 1843, when Colonel Fawcett perished at the hands of his brother-in-law, that the public feeling was unmistakably expressed against the custom. After this, the army, in whose ranks the sense of honour and claim to satisfy it by shedding blood, might be supposed to be strongest, was forbidden to have recourse to this practice under heavy penalties. This regulation, mainly brought about by the humanity of the Prince Consort, seems to have been of almost equal effect in every class of the community, and duelling in England has now been for many years a thing of the past.

Duff, King of Alban, was the son of Malcolm I., and succeeded Indulf, 962. In 965 he defeated Colin, son of Indulf, at Drumcrub, but was expelled by him in 967. Duff took refuge in Forres, where he was slain at the Bridge of Kinloss, 967.

Skene, *Celtic Scotland.*

Duffindale, The Battle of (1549), resulted in a complete defeat of the Norfolk rebels, under Robert Ket (q.v.), at the hands of the royal troops under Warwick.

Dugdale, Sir William (*b.* 1605, *d.* 1686), one of the most famous of the English seventeenth century antiquaries, was descended from an old Lancashire family. Marrying at the early age of seventeen, he soon settled at Blyth, in Warwickshire, where his enthusiasm for the past was kindled by the acquaintances he made there. In 1635 he was introduced to Sir Henry Spelman, like himself a famous antiquary, and before long commenced collecting materials for his great work, the *Monasticon Anglicanum.* Fearing the ruin to our national monuments that might ensue from the Civil War that was on the point of breaking out, in 1641 he made copies of all the principal monuments in Westminster Abbey and other great English Churches and cathedrals. Next year he attended Charles I.'s summons to York, and was present at Oxford when it surrendered to the Parliament in 1646. After the Restoration he was appointed Garter king-at-arms. Besides his great work, the *Monasticon Anglicanum*, the recognised authority on English monastic foundations — first published in

separate volumes 1655, 1661, 1673—Dugdale was the author of the *Antiquities of Warwickshire* (1656), the *History of St. Paul's Cathedral* (1658), *Origines Judiciales* (1666, &c.), the *Baronage of England* (1675—6), and *A Short View of the Late Troubles in England* (1681), being an account of the rise and progress of the Civil War. All these works, except the last, are perfect mines of valuable information, and in many cases are the more remarkable from being, in some instances, the first serious attempts in their various lines.

Duke, the highest title in the English peerage, originated in the reign of Edward III., who in 1337 created his son, the Black Prince, Duke of Cornwall. The first instance of a person not a member of the royal family being created a duke is Robert de Vere, who in 1386 was made Duke of Ireland. The title has been very rarely given, and at present there are but twenty-two dukes of the United Kingdom, exclusive of the princes of the blood royal. The word "duke" is a heritage of the Roman Empire, under which the "duces" were military leaders; from Merovingian and Carolingian times it passed into the nomenclature of mediæval Europe, where England was one of the last countries to adopt the title. Etymologically it is the same word as the Italian "doge."

Dumbarton, the "fortress of the Britons," is a lofty rock on the right bank of the Lower Clyde. Originally it was called Alcluyd, and was the chief town of the Strathclyde Welsh. Its later name must have been given by the Picts. In 756 it was taken by the Picts and Northumbrians under Egbert. Granted to John Baliol by Edward I., it was in 1562 given up by Arran to Queen Mary, and held for her by Lord Fleming. It was to Dumbarton that the queen was trying to force a passage when she was defeated at Langside, 1568. In 1571 it was taken from Henry by Captain Crawford, and in 1640 it fell into the hands of the Covenanters.

Dumnonia, Damnonia, or West Wales. The British kingdom in the south-western peninsula of England. Besides the quite separate Dumnonii of the district round the Roman Wall, there was in Roman times a tribe called the Dumnonii, who occupied the whole country west of the modern Hampshire and the Bristol Avon. Some recent inquirers have regarded them as Goidelic in race, and therefore to be distinguished sharply from their British (Brythonic) neighbours. But, if so, it is difficult to see how the Brythons, driven westwards by the Saxons, were able in their defeat to conquer and assimilate these Goidels, for in later times the speech of Cornwall certainly was more kindred to the Brythonic than the Goidelic group of Celtic languages. Perhaps there remained traces of an earlier race, though the Dumnonii were roughly Brythonic. Anyhow, the sixth century saw a Celtic race still supreme in these regions, and, by its possession of the lower Severn valley, in communication with the "North Welsh" beyond the Bristol Channel. In Gildas's time, the tyrant Constantine was king of this region; but with the advance of the West Saxons westwards, the Dumnonian kingdom was forced into narrower limits. The conquests of Ceawlin in 577 (battle of Deorham) separated it from the modern Wales. The victory of Cenwealh at Pen drove the "Brytwealas" over the Parret (658), and the tales of Armorican migration attest the disorganisation of the defeated race. Centwine extended the West Saxon State as far as the Exe, and Geraint, the Dumnonian monarch was signally defeated in 710 by Ine, whose organisation of the Sherborne bishopric, and refoundation of Glastonbury Abbey, shows the completeness of his conquests. Yet even in Egbert's time the West Welsh retained their freedom, and revenged their defeat, if not conquest, in 815, by joining the Danes against the West Saxon Bretwalda. Their defeat at Hengestesdun (835) may have led to their entire subjection. Yet it was only temporary; for Exeter continued to be jointly inhabited by English and Welsh until Athelstan expelled the latter; an act which led to the confinement of the Welsh to the modern Cornwall. When they were subdued directly to the West Saxons we hardly know; but no king of the West Welsh can be proved to have existed later than the Howel who did homage to Athelstan. The retention of the Celtic language, at least till the end of the seventeenth century, still marked off Cornwall from the rest of the country. But the last trace of any separate organisation was the appointment in 1051 of Odda as Earl of the "Wealas." The modern duchy is of much later date. Even in Domesday there are hardly any British proper names in the old Dumnonia, though to this day the great majority of the place-names among the dwellers of the more western portion are purely Celtic.

The original authorities are a few meagre entries in the chronicles, Welsh and English, of battles. Philology and local antiquities may give something more. For a modern account see Palgrave's *English Commonwealth*, I., pp. 403—411, and II., cclxiii.—cclxiv. (with an attempt to establish the succession of West Welsh kings.) For the ethnological question see Rhŷs' *Celtic Britain*; and for the ancient Dumnonii, Elton's *Origins of English History*, pp. 233—238. Polwhele's *History of Cornwall* gives curious details of the survival of the Cornish language.

[T. F. T.]

Dunbar, Black Agnes of. In 1339 the Earl of Salisbury laid siege to the fortress of Dunbar, which was defended in the absence of its governor, the Earl of March, by his wife Agnes, the sister of Randolph, Earl of Murray. So successful was the Countess

in her resistance to the English that the English leader was obliged to withdraw his forces.

Dunbar, The Battle of (April 27, 1296), resulted in a complete victory for the English forces under Edward I. and Earl Warenne over the Scots under the Earl of Athol and Sir Patrick Graham.

Dunbar, The Battle of (Sept. 3, 1650), resulted in a complete victory for the Parliamentary army under Cromwell, Monk, and Lambert, over the Scots under David Leslie. Leslie had taken up a strong position, and fortified all the heights between Edinburgh Castle and Leith. For a whole month Leslie kept his impregnable position till it seemed that Cromwell must be starved into submission. Fearing this fate, the English general removed to Dunbar, where he could command the sea, and Leslie followed him along the slopes, settling finally upon the hill of Don, cutting off the retreat of the enemy, and looking down on them in the town. On the night of Sept. 2nd the Scottish army forsook its strong position and foolishly descended to the lower ground. Leslie's caution had been overcome by the rash zeal of the preachers in his camp. At daybreak Cromwell ordered his whole force to advance against the Scottish horse, which was crossing the glen of the Broxburn in advance of the main body, and before they had time to form their lines they were driven back on their own ranks behind, and the day was lost. It was on this occasion that Cromwell uttered his memorable quotation as the sun cleared away the mist from the hills and showed the certain rout of his enemies, "Let God arise, and let His enemies be scattered." Three thousand men perished in this engagement, and nearly ten thousand were taken prisoners. From Dunbar Cromwell passed on to Edinburgh, and in a short time all Scotland was in his power.

Carlyle, *Cromwell's Letters and Speeches.*

Dunbar Castle, in Haddingtonshire, was granted to Gospatric, Earl of March, by Malcolm Canmore. It was taken by Edward I. and Earl Warenne, April 1296, and in 1314 it gave shelter to Edward II. after his flight from Bannockburn. In 1339 it was successfully defended for nineteen weeks against the Earl of Salisbury by Black Agnes of Dunbar. It was garrisoned by French troops during Albany's regency in the time of James V., who greatly strengthened its fortifications after its evacuation by the foreigners. It gave shelter to Mary and Darnley after the murder of Rizzio, 1561, and again received the queen, this time in company of Bothwell, on the rising of the Confederate Lords, 1567. Its castle was destroyed by the regent Murray.

Duncan, Adam, 1st Viscount Camperdown (*b.* 1731, *d.* 1804), entered the navy early in life. In 1749 he served in the Mediterranean under Keppel, and in 1755 was sent out to America in the fleet which conveyed General Braddock's troops. He was wounded in the attack on Goree, and obtained his lieutenancy soon after the battle. In 1761 he took part in the expeditions against Belleisle and Havannah, and was entrusted by Keppel with the difficult task of landing the troops in boats. In 1779 he was employed in the Channel till he accompanied Rodney to the relief of Gibraltar, and in the action of Jan. 16, 1780, Duncan did as good service as any one, and was so hardly used in the battle that he had not a boat wherewith to take possession of his prizes. In 1782 he proceeded again to the relief of Gibraltar, on this occasion under Lord Howe, and in 1787 was made rear-admiral. Seven years later he received the command of a fleet stationed in the North Sea, and in this office had to watch the Dutch fleet at the Texel. Meanwhile the mutiny at the Nore broke out, and Admiral Duncan found himself left with only two ships to blockade the enemy. His firmness upon this occasion contributed in no small degree to the suppression of this outbreak; but at the same time he kept up the semblance of a watch upon the Dutch admiral. Later, by retiring to Yarmouth, he gave De Winter, the Dutch admiral, an opportunity of putting out to sea. The chance was immediately taken by the Dutch, while the English fleet made every effort to cut off their retreat. On Oct. 11, 1797, he managed by skilful tactics to get between the enemy and the land. He then broke through their line, and after a stubborn contest off Camperdown gained a complete victory, capturing two frigates and eight line-of-battle ships, including the admiral's ship. Duncan was at once rewarded by a peerage and a large pension. He remained, however, for two years more in the North Sea before coming home to spend his last days in retirement. He died suddenly in London on Aug. 4, 1804. [Camperdown.]

James, *Naval Hist.*; Alison, *Hist of Europe*; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*

Duncan I., King of Scotland (*d.* 1040), son of Crinan, lay abbot of Dunkeld, succeeded his maternal grandfather Malcolm, in 1034. Defeated before the walls of Durham in the first year of his reign by Eardulf, Earl of Northumbria, Duncan next attempted to wrest Caithness from Thorfinn, Earl of Orkney, in order that he might bestow it upon his relative Moddan. In this attempt, however, the king was worsted in a naval engagement near the shores of the Pentland Forth, and in a battle at Burghhead, in Elgin. About this time, his general, Macbeth Mormaor, of Moray, went over to Thorfinn's side, and slew Duncan by treachery near Elgin, Aug. 14, 1040. Duncan, who is called in the Sagas Karl Hundason (hound's son),

married a daughter of Siward, Earl of Northumberland. It is from the legendary accounts preserved of the incidents of this reign and the next that Shakespeare has formed the basis of his great tragedy Macbeth.

Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*; Robertson, *Early Kings of Scotland*.

Duncan II., King of Scotland (*s.* 1094, *d.* 1094), though some obscurity surrounds his birth, was, probably, the son of Malcolm Canmore by his first wife. When quite a boy, in 1072, Duncan was sent as a hostage to the English court after the Treaty of Abernethy. There he remained till 1093, when, with Norman aid, he succeeded in driving his uncle, Donald Bane (q.v.), from the Scotch throne. Six months afterwards, however, Donald procured his murder at the hands of Malpedir MacLean, Mormaor of Mearns. The scene of this crime was Mondynes, in Kincardineshire, and a huge monolith that is still found there probably commemorates the event. The secret of his fate seems to be in the fact that he was a Norman by education and character, and had perhaps agreed to hold the kingdom as a vassal of the English sovereign. He does not seem to have ever been fully recognised except in Lothian and Cumbria; for the Gaelic districts north of the Forth were at most only divided in his favour. He married the daughter of Torpatric, Earl of Northumberland, by whom he is said to have had a son William.

Robertson, *Early Kings of Scotland*; Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*.

Duncombe, Charles, was originally "a goldsmith of very moderate wealth." He amassed a large fortune by banking, and purchased for £90,000 the estate of Helmsley, in Yorkshire. He subsequently accepted the place of Cashier of the Excise, from which he derived great wealth; but Montague dismissed him from the office because he thought, with good reason, that he was not a man to be trusted. In 1697 we find him defending Sunderland in Parliament. He accused Montague of peculation, but failed to make good the charge, and was in turn accused of fraud and forgery in connection with the Exchequer Bills. A bill of pains and penalties was accordingly brought in against him, after he had previously been sent to the Tower and expelled the House. The bill, providing for the confiscation of the greater part of his property and its application to the public service, passed the Commons. It was felt, however, that the measure was open to censure, and that his judges had strong motives for voting against him. Urged by these and other reasons, the Lords threw out the bill, and the prisoner was released. He was, however, again arrested by order of the Commons, and kept in prison for the remainder of the session.

Dundalk is noted as the scene of the great defeat suffered by John de Courcy at the hands of the Irish (1180). In 1560 the town was unsuccessfully besieged by the O'Neils; and, in 1649, Dundalk surrendered to Cromwell.

Dundalk, The Battle of (Oct. 5, 1318), was fought during the invasion of northern Ireland by the Scots under Edward Bruce. Edward Bruce had 3,000 men with him; among the commanders were the De Lacys. The Anglo-Irish army was led by John de Bermingham. The victory was won at the first onset of the English forces; twenty-nine bannerets, five knights, and eighty others fell on the Scottish side. Bruce himself was killed, and his head was sent to Edward as a trophy. This battle put an end to the Scottish invasion.

Dundas, Henry, Viscount Melville (*b.* 1742, *d.* 1811), was the son of Robert Dundas, who was for many years President of the Court of Session. Having adopted the bar as his profession, he made his way with wonderful rapidity to the top of the ladder, being Solicitor-General in 1773 and Lord-Advocate two years later. In this position he threw himself eagerly into politics, abandoning the law. Attached to a ministry which, after a long period of office, was at last falling beneath a weight of obloquy, Dundas exhibited so much spirit and ability that he was at once recognised as promising to rise to the highest power. Not the smallest source of his rising reputation was the minute knowledge he displayed with regard to Indian affairs. On the fall of North's ministry, Lord Rockingham was not slow to avail himself of Dundas's services, which were employed in the treasury of the navy, an office which he held also under Lord Shelburne. He retired, however, on the formation of the Coalition (1783), but did not have long to wait before he resumed his old post under Pitt. In June, 1788, he resigned that place to become President of the Board of Control with a seat in the Cabinet. With Pitt he resigned in 1801, and was raised to the peerage. In 1804 he again followed Pitt into office, and was appointed First Lord of the Admiralty, where he remained until 1806, when he was impeached for misappropriation of public money during his former period of control over the Navy Treasury. Pitt defended his faithful follower and colleague with his utmost ability, but a strong case was brought against him, and when the numbers on division were equal, the Speaker gave his casting vote against Lord Melville. Pitt was quite broken down by the blow, and did not live long enough to see the censure reversed by the Lords in 1807, after which the name of Lord Melville, which had been erased, was restored to the Privy Council list. He had retired, however, to Scotland,

and never again took any part in public affairs; and in retirement he died in May, 1811. That Dundas had been "guilty of highly culpable laxity in transactions relating to public money," no one can doubt; but no loss had accrued to the State in consequence, and it was undeniable that he had exhibited a most praiseworthy energy in taking some steps to remedy the hopeless confusion and mismanagement which had for many years prevailed at the Admiralty.

Annual Register; Grenville Papers; Pellew, *Sidmouth;* Russell, *Fox;* Cunningham, *Eminent Englishmen.*

Dundee, in Forfarshire, was granted by William the Lion to his brother David of Huntingdon (q.v.). It was taken from the English by Robert Bruce in 1306, by Edward Bruce, 1313, and pillaged by the Protector Somerset. In 1645 it fell into the hands of Montrose, and in 1651 was stormed by Monk, who put the garrison to death.

Dundee, Viscount. [Graham, John.]

Dundonald, Thomas Barnes Cochrane, 10th Earl of (*b.* 1775, *d.* 1860), after brilliant service against the French as commander of the *Speedy* and of the *Pallas*, entered Parliament as member for Westminster, and so excited the enmity of the authorities by his attacks upon naval administration that when, in 1809, he failed in his gallant attempt to destroy the French fleet off Brest, he was put upon half-pay. In 1814 he was charged with having circulated lying news of the Fall of Napoleon in order to make money on the Stock Exchange, and though innocent, he was cashiered and imprisoned. In 1817 and subsequently he distinguished himself in the naval service of Chili, Brazil, and Greece. In 1832 he received a free pardon, and became a rear-admiral.

Dunfermline, in Fifeshire, was long a favourite residence of the Kings of Scotland, some of whom were buried in the monastery which was founded by Malcolm Canmore and burnt by Edward I. in 1304.

Dungal, the son of Sealbach, obtained the throne of Dalriada by his father's abdication in 723. He was soon afterwards driven out by Eochaidh, the head of the Cinel Gabran, who subsequently resisted Dungal's attempt to regain the throne at Ross Foichen, though the old king, Sealbach, had himself issued from his monastery to assist his son, 727. On the death of Eochaidh, 733, he regained the kingdom of Dalriada, but a year afterwards was compelled by Angus MacFergus to take refuge for a time in Ireland. In 736 Angus invaded Dalriada, imprisoning Dungal and his brother.

Chron. Picts and Scots; Robertson, *Early Kings.*

Dunganhill, Battle of. The English army under Colonel Michael Jones here defeated the Irish on August 8, 1647. Six thousand of the latter fell, while the English loss was inconsiderable.

Dungannon Convention, The (Sept. 8, 1785), is the name given to the meeting of the representatives of 270 of the Irish Volunteer companies assembled at Dungannon under Grattan's influence. These delegates passed several resolutions, the object of which was to secure Parliamentary reform for Ireland; if the English government objected to them the supplies were to be withheld. A convention was to have met at Dublin had not the Duke of Rutland prevented this by his firmness.

Froude, *Eng. in Ireland;* Grattan's *Life.*

Dunkeld is chiefly remarkable as being the site where Constantine, King of the Picts from 789 to 820, founded a church, perhaps about the year 796, to which Kenneth MacAlpin transferred the relics of Columba from Iona in 851. This last event marked the date of the final decay of the ecclesiastical rule of the Abbots of Iona, whose representatives, as heads of the Pictish Church, were henceforth to be the Abbots of Dunkeld. In time Dunkeld Abbey fell into the hands of a lay abbot, while the bishopric of Fortrenn, which in earlier times had been filled by the Abbot of Dunkeld, passed on to Abernethy. One of the most famous names in early Scottish history is that of Crinan, lay Abbot of Dunkeld, whose son Duncan became King of Scotia. Duncan's grandson, David I., either restored or established it as a bishopric about the year 1127. [See below.]

Dunkeld, The Battle of (Aug. 21, 1689), was a victory gained by the Cameronians over the Highlanders, and followed closely after Mackay's victory at St. Johnston's. The disorders in the Highland army had increased, and Lochiel had left them in disgust. Meanwhile, the Scottish Privy Council, against Mackay's wish, had sent a regiment of Cameronians to garrison Dunkeld under Cleland. Cannon, at the head of 500 men, advanced against the town. The outposts of the Cameronians were speedily driven in; but the greater part of the regiment made its stand behind a wall which surrounded a house belonging to the Marquis of Athol. After all ammunition was spent, and when both Cleland and his successor in command, Major Henderson, had been shot dead, the Cameronians succeeded in setting fire to the houses from which the Highlanders were firing on them. Soon disorder spread among the Highland host, and it returned hastily towards Blair. "The victorious Puritans threw their caps into the air and raised, with one voice, a psalm of triumph and thanksgiving. The Cameronians had good reason to be joyful and thankful, for they had finished the war."

Dunkirk. The port of Dunkirk was throughout the seventeenth century the head-

quarters of pirates and privateers who preyed on British commerce. Accordingly, when Cromwell allied himself with Louis XIV. against Spain (March, 1657), it was stipulated that Dunkirk and Mardyke should be besieged by a combined French and English army, and belong to England when captured. Six thousand men, first under Sir John Reynolds, afterwards under General Thomas Morgan, formed the English contingent. Mardyke was captured in September, 1657, and Dunkirk besieged in the following May. On June 4th, a Spanish army under Don John of Austria, and the Prince of Condé, in which the Dukes of York and Gloucester were serving, attempted to raise the siege, and was defeated with great loss. The town surrendered four days later, and remained in English hands till 1662, when it and its dependencies were sold to Louis XIV. for the sum of five million livres (Oct. 27, 1662). The attacks on English trade still continuing, Dunkirk was unsuccessfully attacked by a combined Dutch and English fleet in 1694, and it was stipulated by the Treaty of Utrecht that the fortifications should be destroyed, and the port blocked up (1713). This stipulation was repeated by the Treaties of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748) and Paris (1763). Nevertheless, the city and port were continually restored, and in the years 1778 to 1782, the corsairs of Dunkirk captured 1,187 English vessels. In 1793 it was besieged by an English army under the Duke of York, with the intention of retaining it as a compensation for the expenses of the war, but the victory of Hoondschotten, by which the corps posted to cover his operations was forced to retreat, obliged the duke to abandon the enterprise.

Dunning, John, Lord Ashburton (*b.* 1731, *d.* 1783), was called to the bar in 1756, and was six years later employed in defending the English East India Company against the complaints made by its Dutch rival. In 1763 he defended Wilkes, and in 1767 was appointed Solicitor-General, an office which he held till 1770. It was he who, in 1780 (April 6th), brought forward the memorable motion, "That the influence of the crown has increased, is increasing, and ought to be diminished," a resolution which was supported by Fox, and carried by a majority of eighteen. George III. was severely wounded by this and the following votes, feeling, as he said at the time, that they were levelled at him in person. Two years later Dunning became Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, under Lord Rockingham's administration, and was raised to the peerage by the title of Lord Ashburton.

Dunotter (Dun Nother), in Kincardineshire, a few miles south of Stonehaven, is memorable for its siege by Brude MacBile in 681. It was again besieged in 694, and in 900 was the scene of the murder of Donald VI. by the Danes. In 934 Athelstan advanced as far as Dunotter with his invading army. The castle of Dunotter was taken by Sir William Wallace in 1298, and by Sir Andrew Mory, 1356; in 1645 it was besieged by Montrose, and taken by Cromwell's troops, 1651. The castle belonged to the family of the Keiths, Earls Marischal.

Dunstable, The Annals of, comprise one of the most valuable of the monastic chronicles. They extend from the Incarnation to the year 1297, and are particularly valuable for the reigns of John and Henry III. They are published in the Rolls Series under the editorship of Mr. Luard.

Dunstable, The Town of, in Bedfordshire, is known in English history as the place where the barons met in 1244, and ordered the papal envoy to leave England; and where the commissioners for the divorce of Queen Catherine sat in 1533. Dunstable was the seat of a great abbey of monks, and was made the property of the foundation in 1131.

Dunstan, St., Archbishop of Canterbury (960—988), the son of Heorstan and Cynethryth, was born near Glastonbury. Two of his kinsmen were bishops, and others were attached to the court, while his brother as "reeve" looked after the secular interests of Glastonbury Abbey. Kings Athelstan and Edmund lived very often in that neighbourhood, and Dunstan began both his court life and monastic training at a very early age. He became guardian of the "hord" of Edmund, and was consequently rewarded with the abbacy when still very young. Glastonbury was then only a monastery in name, served by married secular clerks, though even in its degradation very famous, and largely frequented by Irish pilgrims as the shrine of St. Patrick. Dunstan reformed this state of things, in the interests of education rather than as a fanatic of asceticism. Many tales are told of this early period of Dunstan's life, which are to be received only with the utmost caution. Nearly all the details of his biography are mythical. In 946 Edred succeeded Edmund. He was very sickly, of the same age as Dunstan, and the probable companion of his youth. Dunstan, who had closely attached himself to the king's mother, Eadgifu, and other great ladies, now began his political career. His policy resulted in the brilliant successes of the West Saxons, under Edred, culminating in the conquest of Northumbria from the Danes and the assumption of the title of Cæsar by the English king in 955. But Dunstan still continued his activity as a teacher at Glastonbury, and refused the bishopric of Crediton. The death of Edred led to a reversion of Dunstan's policy. He had "aimed at the

unity of England under the West Saxon Basileus, but giving home rule to each state." This policy was disliked by the West Saxon nobility, who regarded the vassal kingdoms as their own prey, and desired to make each state a dependency of Wessex. Their influence triumphed at the accession of Edwy, a boy of under fifteen. The ordinary details of the story of Dunstan's fall are quite incredible, but it remains a fact that the next year saw him banished. His stay at a great Benedictine abbey in Flanders first brought him in connection with the monastic revival with which his name has been so closely associated. Meanwhile the dependent states revolted from Edwy, whose ministers, besides their reactionary policy, had set themselves too much against the monks to retain their position. The Mercians and Northumbrians revolted, and chose Edgar king; he recalled Dunstan and made him Bishop, first of Worcester, and then of London as well. His retention of a chapter of secular canons at both sees shows that he was at least not zealous for the monastic cause. On the death of Edwy, Wessex also acknowledged Edgar, and Dunstan was made Archbishop of Canterbury, and for a second time his policy triumphed. The glorious reign of Edgar the Peaceful was the result of the realisation of Dunstan's ideas. The hegemony of Wessex was established on a firm basis, without the degradation of the other states. In ecclesiastical affairs also the monastic question came to a head, but how far Dunstan was identified with this movement it is hard to say. As a Benedictine, he doubtless preferred monks to secular canons, but he was no fanatic to force them on a reluctant race. In his own see he did not expel the canons, but in Mercia, where the fervour of monasticism was perhaps needed to repair the Danish ravages, monks came in everywhere. But Æthelwold of Winchester, "father of monks," was the real monastic hero, although the late biographers of Dunstan connected naturally his great name with what to them was the great movement of the age. His spiritual activity, however, was rather the activity of teacher and organiser, and after all he was more of a statesman than an ecclesiastic. If the coronation of Edgar at Bath was his work, and if it was a conscious reproduction of the ceremony which made Otto I. Emperor of Rome, his claim to statesmanship must be exceptionally high.

With Edgar's death a new period of confusion begins. After the troubled reign of Edward, the accession of Ethelred the Unready put power again into the hands of Dunstan's enemies, and ended finally his political career. We do not know who was the ruler of England during Ethelred's minority; but it does not seem to have been Dunstan. He lived on till 988, devoting his last years to the government of his diocese and his province, and in the pursuits of literature, music, and the finer handicrafts, to which he was always addicted. In his old age, as at Glastonbury in his youth, he reverted to the same studies and objects. He was, as Bishop Stubbs says, the Gerbert, not the Hildebrand, of the tenth century. The unreal romances of later biographers that have obscured his life in a cloud of myth must be disregarded for earlier, if scantier, authorities, if we desire to find out what the real man was.

The materials for Dunstan's biography are collected by Dr. Stubbs, in his *Memorials of Dunstan*, in the Rolls Series. The *Introduction* contains all that is known of the saint's career. Dr. Stubbs's collection includes a life by an almost contemporary Saxon monk, which, nevertheless, has a large legendary element, and later biographies by Adalbert and by Osbern, and still later by Eadmer and William of Malmesbury, to correct Osbern's mistakes. It is from these later sources that accounts like Milman's in *Latin Christianity* are drawn, and which consequently give entirely false impressions of the subject. Hume's famous account represents the reaction against the monastic idea that inspired Osbern and Eadmer. Like that in most of the ordinary histories it is historically worthless. Mr. Robertson's *Essays on Dunstan's Policy*, and the *Coronation of Edgar*, in his *Historical Essays*, are extremely suggestive, but their theories are not always based on definite facts. [T. F. T.]

Dupleix, Joseph (*d.* 1750), was appointed Governor of Pondicherry for the French East India Company in 1742. Before this final promotion he had spent over twenty years in the East, where he had acquired an enormous fortune. The outbreak of the war in 1744 gave him, as he thought, an opportunity for establishing the French ascendency. Labourdonnais, the French admiral, captured the town of Madras, and Dupleix, acting as Governor-in-chief, and intending to destroy all the English settlements, refused to ratify the treaty which provided for the restoration of the town. But this act of perfidy was rendered useless by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748), which stipulated for an exchange of conquests in India. On the death of the Nizam-ul-Mulk of the Deccan, and the dispute for the succession between his son, Nazir Jung, and his grandson, Muzuffer Jung, Dupleix formed a confederacy with Chunda Sahib, the pretender to the Carnatic, and Muzuffer Jung to oust the English candidates, Nazir Jung and Mohammed Ali, and eventually, as he hoped, drive the English from India. The whole Carnatic was overrun by the French, and the English and their nabob were cooped up in Trichinopoly. Dupleix was equally successful in the Deccan. A conspiracy broke out at his instigation. Nazir Jung was murdered, and Muzuffer Jung, assuming the vacant dignity, conferred the nabobship of the Carnatic on Chunda Sahib, and the viceroyalty of all India south of the Kistna on Dupleix. Clive's daring expedition to and defence of Arcot divided the forces of the

allies, and the long string of successes which followed, caused the complete failure of Dupleix's plans. As his success deserted him his employers became alienated. In 1754 he was recalled, to die in misery and poverty a few years afterwards in Paris.

Duplin, The Battle of (Aug. 12, 1332), was fought in Strathearn between Edward Baliol, the leader of the discontented barons, and the army of David II., under the Earl of Mar. Baliol, though at the head of a much smaller body of men, and in a most disadvantageous position, won a complete victory, owing to the over-confidence of the royalist troops.

Duquesne, Fort. [Fort Duquesne.]

Durham. This city is chiefly memorable in early English history as the site to which the bishop and clergy from Holy Island finally transferred the relics of St. Aidan to escape from the ravages of the Danes towards the end of the tenth century. The town seems to have suffered at the hands of William the Conqueror, when he laid waste the North in 1070. The same king built a castle here in 1072. Some twenty years later Bishop William of St. Calais commenced to build the great cathedral (1093). In later history, Durham was, for its position near the borders, a place of great military importance in the wars between England and Scotland. As the seat of the courts of the Palatine jurisdiction of its bishop, it was a place of much political importance. Its chapter was exceedingly wealthy; and the plan of Oliver Cromwell, to establish a university out of the capitular revenues, was revived and carried out in 1833. [Palatine Counties.]

Durham, John George Lambton, Earl of (*b.* 1792, *d.* 1840), descended from one of the oldest families in England, was the son of William Henry Lambton. After serving for a short time in a regiment of hussars, he was returned to Parliament in 1814 for the county of Durham, and soon distinguished himself as a very advanced and energetic reformer. In 1821 he brought forward a plan of his own for Parliamentary Reform. In 1828 he was raised to the peerage with the title of Baron Durham. When the ministry of Lord Grey was formed in November, 1830, Lord Durham became Lord Privy Seal. During the difficulties which arose out of the Belgian question, he was sent to St. Petersburg on a special mission as successor to Lord Heytesbury. The object of his journey was to persuade the Russian cabinet to give immediate instructions to the Russian plenipotentiaries in the London Conference to co-operate, on behalf of his Imperial Majesty, cordially and effectively, on whatever measures might appear to be best calculated to effect the early execution of the treaty. Russia, however, was as yet unwilling to join the Western powers in measures of coercion towards Holland, and hence the mission was a failure. In 1833 he was created Earl of Durham in reward for his services of the previous year when sent on the special mission to Russia, a court to which he was accredited ambassador in 1836. In 1838 he was sent to Canada during the time of the Canadian Rebellion. His firmness and arbitrariness, though they saved Canada, excited great opposition [Grenelg], which was increased by his lavish display, and when his Canadian policy was attacked by Lord Brougham, the ministry threw him over. He was recalled and returned to England, where he died soon after at Cowes, in the Isle of Wight, in July, 1840.

Annual Register; S. Walpole, *Hist. of Eng. from 1815.*

Durham, Simeon of (*d.* 1129), was a historian who appears to have been a monk and precentor of Durham. He was certainly living in 1104, and probably died in 1129, as for that year his great work is continued by a different hand. The chief writings attributed to him are a history of Christianity in Northumbria, and a history of the Danish and English kings from the time of Bede's death to the reign of Henry I. He appears to have preserved many facts of Anglian history which are not to be found in any of the existing versions of the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, and which would otherwise have entirely perished in those ages when, after the irruption of the Danes, Northumbria was little better than a waste. But it is doubtful whether all the works that pass under his name are really to be ascribed to his pen.

The works of Simeon of Durham were printed by Twysden, in his *Scriptores Decem.* They have also been published by the Surtees Society and in the Rolls Series.

Durotriges, The, were an ancient British tribe, occupying the present county of Dorset. Prof. Rhŷs considers them to have been, like the Dumnonii of Cornwall and Devon, in the main Goidels—that is, members of the earlier Celtic invasion, and therefore more likely to be to a considerable extent infused with the blood of the pre-Celtic races—rather than Brythons.

Rhŷs, *Celtic Britain.*

Durward, Allan (*d.* 1268), was Justiciar of Scotland in the middle of the thirteenth century, and married to an illegitimate daughter of Alexander II. He served with great credit in the French wars under Henry III., who afterwards supported his cause in Scotland. The Durward family was opposed to the influence of the great Norman family of the Comyns, and succeeded in wresting the young king, Alexander III., from his subjection to their rivals. This was accomplished by the seizure of Edinburgh Castle, after which the aspect of affairs in Scotland looked so serious that Henry III. was obliged to

come northwards and personally adjust the government (1255). But the party of the Comyns soon gained ground, and Allan Durward was forced to flee to England, where he seems to have been always in favour with Henry III. The Comyns, however, lost their great leader, the Earl of Menteith, upon which Allan Durward seems to have secured his old position. At the close of the thirteenth century Nicholas de Soulis, one of his descendants through his wife Maryoz, claimed the succession to the throne of Scotland, a claim which, to some extent, explains the charge brought against Allan, in his lifetime, of intriguing with the Pope for the legitimisation of his wife, so as to make her next heir to the throne.

Dynham, John, Lord (*d.* 1509), was a Yorkist leader who, in 1459, sallied forth from Calais, and, proceeding across to Sandwich, captured two of the Lancastrian nobles, Lord Rivers and Lord Scales, whom he led back with him to Calais. He was also engaged in the battle of Towton, and for his services received large grants of land from Edward IV.

E

Eadmer (*b. circa* 1060, *d.* 1124) was a monk of Canterbury, and the confidential adviser of Anselm. He was elected Bishop of St. Andrews, but, owing to a misunderstanding, was never consecrated. He wrote several ecclesiastical biographies and theological tracts, besides a Life of St. Anselm (*Vita Anselmi*), and a History of His own Times (*Historia Novorum*), extending from 959 to 1122. Both these works rank very high as authorities for the reigns of William II. and Henry II., and the *Vita Anselmi* is one of the chief sources of information with regard to the archbishop. Eadmer's works were published at Paris, 1721. [Anselm.]

Wharton, *Anglia Sacra;* Wright, *Biographia Brit. Literaria;* Church, *Life of Anselm.*

Ealdfrith. [*See* Aldfrid.]

Ealdgyth, wife of Harold, was the widow of Grifydd, King of North Wales, daughter of Elfgar, and sister of Edwin and Morkere. The date of her second marriage is doubtful, but its motive, viz., to secure the friendship of her powerful brothers, is sufficiently plain. [Harold.]

Ealdorman. [Alderman.]

Eanfred, King of Bernicia (633—634), was the son of Ethelfrith. After his father's death he fled to Scotland, where he was converted to Christianity. On the death of Edwin he returned to Northumbria, and obtained his father's kingdom. But, like Osric, he relapsed into Paganism, and like him, was slain by Cadwallon.

Earl is a word which in the earliest Anglo-Saxon is a simple title of honour, denoting a man of noble blood. It was thus used in the laws of Ethelbert (*circa* 600): "If any man slay a man in an eorl's town, let him make compensation for twelve shillings." Its use was, however, restricted until the time of the Danish invasions; in the days of Ethelred the title began to supplant that of the official ealdorman, owing probably to its similarity in sound with the Danish *jarl*, with which it became confused. This change was completed by Canute, who, finding that the connection between the sovereign and the Danish jarl was closer than that of the sovereign and the English ealdorman, gave the earl a permanent status among the servitial nobility. Finally, he divided the kingdom into four great vice-regal earldoms, which continued down to the Conquest. Under the Norman kings the title of earl became easily amalgamated with the French title of count, both having *comes* as a Latin equivalent. The nature of the office became changed; it ceased to be a magistracy, and became an hereditary fief. The first earls of William I., who, even before the conspiracy of 1075, bestowed the title sparingly, were men who already held the title of count in Normandy, or were merely the successors of the English magistrates of the same name. Exceptions to this rule were the great palatine earldoms of William, which he created probably as a part of the national system of defence. Such were the earldom of Chester on the Welsh Marches, and the bishopric of Durham between England and Scotland; the earldom of Kent, and the earldom of Shropshire. These earls were practically independent princes; land was for the most part held of them, not of the king; they held their own councils, appointed the sheriffs, and received the profits of the courts. It should be observed that they were all created before the earls' conspiracy of 1075. The sons of the Conqueror were also cautious in creating earldoms, but Stephen and Matilda, in order to gain adherents, created many of these dignities, which were for the most part perpetuated, though they were at first titular, supported by pensions on the Exchequer, and had little or no land in the districts from which their titles were taken. The number of the earls was carefully kept down by the earlier Angevin kings. These dignities were hereditary, and were conferred by special investiture, the sword of the shire being girt on by the king, and by this ceremony the rank was conferred. As the successor of the ealdorman, or rather the ealdorman under another name, the earl also received the third penny of the county, which after the thirteenth century was changed into a creation fee of £20. His relief was higher than that of the baron. Gradually these dignities ceased to imply a territorial jurisdiction, and became merely honorary. They

could be created by charter, or by letters patent, or by Act of Parliament, a custom introduced by Edward III. The title continued to be taken from a county, or county town (with the exception of the earldoms of Arundel and of March, the latter being derived from the Welsh border districts), long after all local authority had disappeared. Later it became the custom for commoners and barons created earls often to keep their own names instead of adopting local titles. An earl takes precedence next after a marquis, and before a viscount or baron. [ALDERMAN; PALATINE COUNTIES.]

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, chaps. vi., xi., xx.; Selden, *Titles of Honour*; *Lords' Fifth Report on the Dignity of a Peer*; Nicholas, *Hist. Peerage*; Madox, *Baronia Anglica*.

Earthquake, COUNCIL OF THE (1381), was the name given to the Synod which condemned the tenets of Wycliffe and his followers. [WYCLIFFE.] It was so called from a shock of earthquake which was felt during its first sitting.

East Africa, BRITISH. [IBEA.]

East Anglia. There is no account left us of the settlement of the Angles on the eastern shires of central England, nor have we even any such entry as that of the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, which for the more northern Anglian district relates that Ida assumed the kingdom of Northumbria in the year 547. Nothing of the details of the conquest is known to us now, and we can only dimly infer a twofold settlement, which has perpetuated itself down to our own days in the two counties of the North Folk and the South Folk (Norfolk and Suffolk). According to Mr. Green's surmise, the conquest of Norfolk at least was the work of the Gyrwas, and may have been achieved towards the middle of the sixth century. The first historical king of the East Angles is Redwald, the protector of Edwin (q.v.), who reigned from about 593—617. This Redwald was, according to Bede's account, the grandson of one Uffa, from whom the East Anglian kings took their gentile name of Uffings. In his days, East Anglia was to some extent dependent on the kingdom of Kent, and Redwald seems to have become half Christian under the pressure of his overlord. But the new creed was not as yet thoroughly acceptable to the mass of the people. Redwald's son and successor, Eorpwald, was slain by one of his own subjects in 627 or 628, the year of his conversion, and for three years at least the land reverted to paganism. But at last Eorpwald's half-brother, Sigebert the Learned, who had received the new faith during his exile among the Franks, returned to rule the kingdom. Under his protection, Felix the Burgundian commenced the work of re-conversion or conversion at Dunwich. Two years later, Fursey, an Irish monk, came over to East Anglia, and before long Sigebert himself resigned his throne, and retired into a monastery (634). Next year, however, he was dragged forth from his retreat by his people, who were now yielding before the growth of Mercia, and perished in the battle against Penda. Anna, the nephew of Redwald, succeeded, and is noted chiefly for the sanctity of his four daughters, who all eventually embraced a religious life. It was at his court that Cenwealh of Wessex took refuge, when driven out of his own country by Penda, and it was while resident in the East Anglian realm that he became a Christian. For the hospitable shelter afforded to Cenwealh, Anna incurred the resentment of Penda, who now fell on the East Anglians and utterly destroyed Anna and his host. East Anglia seems now to have been dependent on Mercia to some extent, and Penda appears to have used Anna's brother Æthelhere as a tool against Northumberland. But with the battle of the Winwaed, the sceptre of Britain passed to Oswiu of Northumbria, and doubtless the East Angles from this time, though retaining their own king, became dependent on the great kingdom of the north. But Mercia was not long in reviving, and it may well be that by the time of Oswiu's death the power of Northumbria was only nominal in East Anglia. During the reign of Wulphere (658—675), the East Angles seem to have been practically under the rule of Mercia. Towards the beginning of the reign of Aldwulf, King of the East Angles, the new diocese of Elmham was founded for the Northfolk. The seat of this see was removed to Thetford about the year 1078, and to Norwich in 1101, having towards the end of the ninth century incorporated Dunwich, the diocese of the Southfolk. [BISHOPRICS.] From this time we may regard East Anglia as being something of an appendage of Mercia, till on the fall of that kingdom it was attached to Wessex. In accordance with this view, we find Ethelbald of Mercia leading the East Angles to fight against the West Saxons at the battle of Burford (752). On Ethelbald's death, East Anglia seems for a time to have thrown off the Mercian yoke; but before the close of his reign it must again have been subject, though of course still retaining its own kings. East Anglia and Mercia were the two kingdoms whose frontiers marked the boundaries of Offa's short-lived archbishopric of Lichfield. But by this time the days of Mercia's greatness were almost numbered, and it had already laid up a deep store of hatred in the subject kingdom of East Anglia. For in 792, Offa had caused Ethelbert, the King of the East Angles, to be put to death, and had thereupon seized his kingdom. Hence it is no wonder that when Egbert of Wessex had defeated Beornwulf of Mercia at the battle of Ellandune (823), the King of the East Angles should request the victorious West Saxon

sovereign to help them to throw off the Mercian yoke, and, encouraged by his promise, defeat his tyrannical overlord and his successor in two battles. East Anglia seems to have still clung to its old kings under the West Saxon overlordship till the days of the Danish invasion, when its last native king, Edmund, was murdered by the Danes. The land was then taken possession of by the invaders, and by the Treaty of Wedmore became the seat of a Danish kingdom under Guthrum (878). [DANELAGH.] Later on, notwithstanding the treaty, the Danes of East Anglia aided Hastings in his attacks upon England. Alfred's son and successor, however, succeeded in forcing the Danes of East Anglia to acknowledge him after a long struggle, which lasted nearly all his reign (921). From this time their existence as a separate kingdom ceased, but they seem still to have retained their own Witan, which in 1004 bought peace of Sweyn. When the kingdom was divided between Canute and Edmund Ironside in 1016, East Anglia fell to Edmund's share; on Canute's death it was assigned, with the rest of the country north of the Thames, to Harold as superior lord. Under Canute, East Anglia had been one of the four great earldoms into which he divided his whole kingdom, and it continued an earldom under Edward the Confessor. Harold seems to have been appointed to this office about the year 1045. With the Conquest the separate existence of East Anglia comes to an end. [ANGLES; ANGLO-SAXON KINGDOMS.]

KINGS OF EAST ANGLIA.

Uffa	571—578
Tytillus	578—599
Redwald	599—617
Eorpwald	617—628
Sigebert	631—634
Egric	634—635
Anna	635—654
Ethelhere	654—655
Ethelwold	655—664
Ealdwulf	664—713
Alfwold	713—749

The Anglo-Saxon Chron.; Lappenberg, *Anglo-Saxon Kings*; Palgrave, *English Commonwealth*; Freeman, *Old Eng. Hist.* [T. A. A.]

East India Company, THE, was incorporated by charter, in 1600, under the title of "The Governor and Company of Merchants of London trading to the East Indies," with a capital of £70,000. In spite of the opposition of the Portuguese and the Dutch, the company succeeded in establishing commercial relations with the Asiatics, and founded agencies or factories, of which the most important was that of Surat (1614). Nevertheless its position was for many years most precarious; its only possession was the island of Lantore, and after the Massacre of Amboyna (1623) it almost ceased to exist. Better times came with the establishment of the Hooghly factory (1642), and the valuable acquisition of Bombay as part of the dower of Catherine of Braganza (1661), to which the presidency of Western India was transferred in 1685. Fort St. George became a presidency in 1683, and was afterwards known as that of Madras; it was separated from Bengal in 1681. Charles II. gave the company the important privilege of making peace or war on their own account. Gradually the monopoly of the East India Company became unpopular in England; rival associations were formed, of which the most important was the unchartered "New Company," which strove, though unsuccessfully, for freedom of trade. Supported by the Whig party, they made two vigorous attempts, in 1693 and in 1698, to prevent the renewal of the East India Company's charter, but the largesses of the company in secret service money prevailed in Parliament. Lord Montague, however, in the same year established a rival company in the Whig interest, known as the "General East India Company," or English Company. After being partially united in 1702, they were completely consolidated by Lord Godolphin in 1708, under the title of "The United Company of Merchants of England trading to the East Indies." The capital consisted of £3,200,000 lent to government at 5 per cent. From this time the history of the company practically becomes the history of India (q.v.), and it will be sufficient here to indicate briefly the chief events from their non-military side. The overthrow by Clive of the great attempt of the French to found an empire in India was followed by a period of maladministration. During this period, however, was inaugurated in Bengal the important system of dual government, by which native princes surrendered their revenues to the English in return for a pension, and the maintenance by the company of an army of defence. The Bengal famine of 1770 was followed by Lord North's *Regulating Act*, by which, in exchange for a loan of a million which the company required, and the remission of the annual payment to government of £400,000 a year, a new council was appointed by Parliament; a supreme court, of which the judges were appointed by the crown, was established; and the Governor of Bengal was made Governor-General of India. Dundas's Bill of 1783 was followed in November by *Fox's India Bill*, of which the main features were the transference of the authority of the company to seven commissioners nominated in the first instance by Parliament, and, when vacancies occurred, by the crown; while the management of the property and commerce of the company was to be entrusted to a subordinate council of directors, entirely under the superior council and nominated by the Court of Proprietors. The measure was very unpopular, and the king used his personal influence in the House of Lords to procure its rejection. *Pitt's India Bill* of the following year was framed upon the same lines. A *Board of Control* was

established as a ministerial department, having under its supervision the political conduct of the company, and the appointment of the highest officers was subjected to the veto of the crown. On the other hand, the company was allowed the entire management of its business affairs and patronage. Passing over the settlement of the land-tenure of Bengal, the Mysore and Mahratta wars, and the administration of Lord Amherst, we come to the Governor-Generalship of Lord William Bentinck. The privileges of the company during this period were seriously affected, and in exchange for the renewal of its charter for twenty years, it was forced to abandon its monopoly of trade, and to give up all attempts to restrict the settlement of Europeans in India. At the same time the law was codified, and a legal member, not a servant of the company, added to the council. The anomalous position of the company was increased when, in 1853, the patronage of the civil service was taken away from it and thrown open to competition. The Indian Mutiny precipitated events; and Lord John Russell proposed that the House should proceed by way of resolutions. Upon them was based the *Act for the Better Government of India* (1858). It provided that the entire administration should be transferred to the crown. The company still existed as a medium for distributing stock, but was finally extinguished in 1873.

Kaye, *Administration of the East India Company;* Mill, *History of India;* Malcolm, *India; Report on the Affairs of the East India Company,* 1858; M'Carthy, *Hist. of Our Own Times,* vol. iii.; and see the article INDIA.

East Retford Question (1827). The borough of East Retford had been convicted of corruption, and the question of the manner in which its franchise should be disposed of was brought before the House of Commons. On the one hand, it was proposed that it should be given to the town of Birmingham; on the other, that it should be transferred to the hundred in which East Retford is situated. The Duke of Wellington and the majority of the cabinet supported the latter alternative; Mr. Huskisson the former, and this led to his withdrawal from the cabinet.

Molesworth, *Hist. of the Reform Bill.*

Ebbsfleet, in the Isle of Thanet, is identified as the Wippedesfleot, where Hengest and Horsa (q.v.) are said to have landed (in 450?), and near which Hengest and Aesc some years later totally defeated the Britons. Ebbsfleet was also the landing place of St. Augustine in 597.

Ecclesiastical Commission Court, THE, was established by James II. in 1686. It enforced the king's orders against controversial sermons, deprived the Master of Magdalen College, Cambridge, for refusing to give a degree to a Benedictine monk, and expelled the Fellows of Magdalen College, Oxford, for refusing to elect a royal nominee as president. James dissolved the Commission in October, 1688.

Ecclesiastical Commissioners, THE. In 1835 a commission was appointed "to consider the state of the several dioceses in England and Wales with reference to the amount of their revenues, and the more equal distribution of episcopal duties; to consider also the state of cathedral and collegiate churches with a view to the suggestion of such measures as may render them more conducive to the efficiency of the Established Church; and to devise the best means of providing for the cure of souls, with special reference to the residence of the clergy on their respective benefices." This commission recommended a further distribution of episcopal duties and revenues, and the establishment of a fund to provide for worship in poor districts by the appropriation of part of the revenues of cathedral and collegiate churches, and of the surplus revenues of certain bishoprics. For this latter purpose a commission was created by an Act of 1836 with all the powers of a perpetual corporation. In 1850 Queen Victoria was empowered to nominate two "Church Estates Commissioners" (one paid), and the archbishop one (paid). These were to be members of the Ecclesiastical Commission, and to form with two other members the "Church Estates Committee," which was to manage all the property of the Commission. They were empowered to secure fixed incomes to bishops, and to manage episcopal estates. They make grants to or increase the endowments of poor livings, and arrange for the creation of new parishes, etc. In 1856 they became also the Church Building Commissioners (first created in 1818).

Annual Reports of the Eccles. Commissioners; Phillimore, *Eccl. Law.*, ii. 2090; Elliot, *The State and the Church,* in *Eng. Citizen Series.*

[W. J. A.]

Ecclesiastical Courts. [*See* below.]

Ecclesiastical Jurisdiction. In England the canon law has a separate history from that which prevailed on the Continent. There the influence of the Theodosian Code secured it a uniform procedure and a ready acceptance. Here it was modified by, and in constant antagonism to, the common law. Before the Conquest, the law of the Church in England consisted of rules of penance, canons, religious laws, and the course of episcopal jurisdiction. Rules of penance, appropriating to every sin the amount of satisfaction to be paid by the sinner, are laid down in the penitentials of Archbishop Theodore, Bede, and others. These were binding only in so far as conscience enforced them. Some canons from

abroad were adopted, and others were made by provincial councils. Royal laws on religious matters—*e.g.*, the laws of Alfred—are not properly part of ecclesiastical law. They had their binding force as part of the law of the land. Besides these written laws, the bishop or his archdeacon, sitting in the shire or hundred court, declared the law on ecclesiastical matters; for to the bishop pertained the duty of watching over sacred persons and things, and deciding matrimonial cases. As the ealdorman pronounced the secular law in matters which were secular, so in ecclesiastical cases the bishop pronounced the law which was proper to them. The ordinance of the Conqueror, separating the spiritual and temporal courts, provided that the bishop should judge ecclesiastical causes in his own court, and according to the canons and episcopal laws, which were to take the place of the unwritten law which decided these matters. With this ordinance must be connected the appointment of men like Lanfranc, who were skilled in the law of the Continent, to the English episcopate. Dioceses now were broken up into different territorial archdeaconries for the purposes of jurisdiction. During the reign of Stephen, the bishops were upheld by papal interference, and the middle of the twelfth century saw a great epoch in the history of canonical jurisprudence. In 1149 Archbishop Theobald brought over Vacarius from Lombardy to teach the civil law in Oxford. Vacarius was sent out of the kingdom by Stephen, but the study which had lately been revived abroad drew many from England to pursue it on the Continent. About this time Gratian, a native of Tuscany, put forth his *Decretum*, which was an embodiment of canon law as it then stood. As the mode of procedure and many principles in canonical jurisprudence were supplied by the civil law, the two systems were held to be closely joined. They were looked upon with dislike by the common-lawyers and the crown. Ecclesiastical courts were continually trying to extend their jurisdiction. They harassed the people, and encroached on the province of the royal courts. Henry II. curtailed their jurisdiction by taking away from them cases of advowson, &c., and by the Constitutions of Clarendon. [Becket; Henry II.] Their encroachments were checked by prohibitions issued by the royal courts. As the Decretum received new additions from successive Popes, so the English canon law was enlarged by the addition of constitutions, legatine and provincial. Legatine constitutions began from the legations of Otho and Otterbuoric, in the reign of Henry III., which may therefore be reckoned as the period at which the received text of the English canon law began to be formed. Successive archbishops, from Langton to Chichele, framed provincial constitutions. Ecclesiastical jurisprudence was so closely connected with papal and foreign influence that it met with little favour from Englishmen in the reign of Henry III. Complaint was made by the clergy of the use of prohibitions. In 1236 the barons at the Council of Merton refused to admit canonical or civilian principles into the laws of England; and the king closed the law schools in London where the canon and civil laws were taught. Archbishop Peckham, a notable canonist, engaged in a vain struggle against Edward I. He drew on his cause the defeat inflicted by the writ *Circumspecte agatis*, founded on 13 Ed. I., which defines the province of ecclesiastical jurisdiction. It was limited to cases merely spiritual (*e.g.*, heresy), to those of deadly sin (*e.g.*, fornication), of tithes and offerings, and of assaults done on clerks and defamation where no damages were claimed. It extended to all matrimonial causes, and by customary law to those of a testamentary nature. In cases in which the condemned party neglected to give heed to the ecclesiastical censure, it was enforced by the civil power. For the bishop sent his *significavit* to the sheriff, who thereupon issued a writ *De excommunicato capiendo*, by which the offender was imprisoned until he made satisfaction. The ecclesiastical authorities seem, by the *Articuli Cleri* drawn up in the reign of Edward II., to have been dissatisfied with this process, and received answer that the writ had never been refused. The canonists held that this writ was a right, and Archbishop Boniface in the reign of Henry III. declared that its refusal might be answered by an interdict. Chief Justice Coke, however, the violent opponent of canonical pretension, declared in the reign of James I. that it was a matter of favour. The statute, *De hæretico comburendo*, was carried out by the ecclesiastical and civil authorities acting together. The *Statute of Provisors*, 25 Ed. III., st. 4, by restraining the Pope's interference with patronage, and of *Præmunire*, 16 Ric. II., c. 5, by checking appeals to Rome, lessened the power of the ecclesiastical law. In the reign of Henry V., Lyndwood, the Dean of Arches, compiled his *Provinciale*, which is a code of English canon law. The study of canonical and civil jurisprudence was largely pursued at Oxford and Cambridge, and a degree of Doctor of both laws was granted. A body of skilled judges and practitioners versed in the science of law existed side by side with those of the common-law courts.

Early in the reign of Henry VIII., it was evident that that monarch disliked the canonical jurisdiction. His breach with the Pope, consequent on the avocation of his divorce case, was made the occasion for his attack on the study and practice of canon law. Having caused the clergy to own him as supreme head, "so far as is allowed by the law of Christ," he procured the great

petition of the Commons against the practice of the canon law in 1532. On this, by 23 Hen. VIII., c. 9, the appellate jurisdiction of the archbishop was weakened, and by 25 Hen. VIII., c. 19, the power of legislation was taken away from Convocation, and the canon law was declared to be in force, subject to a total revision by a royal commission. As this revision has never been made, the canon law up to that date, in so far as any part of it has not been abolished by national legislation, seems to rest on that statute. Such provisions only of foreign canon law, however, have force as have been received in England, nor can any law bind the laity which has not received the assent of Parliament. Henry next proceeded to destroy the study of canonical jurisprudence. He issued a mandate forbidding lectures and degrees in canon law. From that time the legal doctorate in Oxford has only been in civil law, expressed by the letters D.C.L., while Cambridge still keeps up the form of the doctorate of the two laws by the LL.D. degree. A new court of appeal in ecclesiastical cases, composed of divines and civilians, was formed in this reign, and called the *Court of Delegates*. This court was superseded in 1831, and by 3 and 4 Will. IV. (1833), c. 41, it was enacted that its jurisdiction should be transferred to the *Judicial Committee of the Privy Council*, an arrangement which has been again altered by the Supreme Court of Judicature Act, 1873. The legislation of Edward VI. was destructive of all ecclesiastical jurisdiction. During his reign an abortive attempt was made by Peter Martyr, in his *Reformatio Legum*, to accomplish the revision promised in 1534. Elizabeth, while making as little declaration of power as possible, fully kept up the royal supremacy in action. She exercised this supremacy by the *Court of High Commission*, founded in virtue of 1 Eliz., c. 1. This unconstitutional court became an engine of tyranny, in which it was aided in no small degree by the ecclesiastical practice of the *ex-officio* oath. The court was abolished by 16 Car. I., c. 11, which sets forth that it had illegally inflicted fines and imprisonments. The *ex-officio* oath was abolished by 15 Car. II., c. 12. The canons of 1604, though approved by James I., were not accepted by Parliament, and are therefore only binding on the clergy. This was declared by Coke, who made on all occasions decided resistance to ecclesiastical encroachment. Unfortunately this resistance was combined with an undue exaltation of the royal prerogative in ecclesiastical matters, and tended rather to the subservience of the clergy than to public liberty. That some resistance to clerical pretensions was needed is shown by the *Articuli Cleri* of Archbishop Bancroft. In these articles remonstrance was made against the issue of prohibitions by the courts of common law, and against their interpreting statutes concerning religion. Coke declared these articles to be "monstrous." A lamentable co-operation between the civil and ecclesiastical jurisdictions resulted in the execution by burning of two men for heresy in this reign, under the old statute *De hæretico comburendo*. This statute was repealed by 29 Car. II., c. 29. The gradual advance towards toleration weakened the power of the Church to punish offenders against her laws, though, until the end of the eighteenth century, fine or imprisonment and civil disabilities still sometimes followed her censures. At length the power of coercive correction was taken away by 53 Geo. III., c. 127.

The ecclesiastical courts are—(1) The *Court of the Archdeacon*, of which his Official is judge, and which takes cognisance of matters affecting the Church and clergy within a distinct district. (2) The *Consistory Court* of the bishop or archbishop, of which the Chancellor is judge, for the trial of ecclesiastical causes. The title of Chancellor seems to cover the two offices of the Official, who is concerned for the most part in what may be considered temporal business, and of the Vicar-General, whose province is in more purely spiritual matters. (3) The *Archbishop's Commissary Court*, which is held for the archiepiscopal diocese. (4) The *Court of Audience*, in which formal business is transacted, and in which it appears, from the case of the Bishop of St. Davids, 1696, that bishops may be visited and corrected. (5) The *Court of Faculties*, which, by 25 Hen. VIII., c. 21, has power to grant certain dispensations which before pertained to the papal court. This court is now chiefly concerned in the grant of marriage licences. (6) The *Prerogative Court* lost its jurisdiction when the *Court of Probate and Divorce* was instituted, 20 and 21 Vict., c. 77, c. 85. (7) The *Vicar-General's Court* for the confirmation of bishops; and (8) The *Court of Arches* [for which *see* ARCHBISHOPS]. By the Supreme Court of Judicature Act, 1873, provision was made for the transfer of ecclesiastical appeals from the Judicial Committee by Order in Council. This portion of the Act, however, was repealed by 39 and 40 Vict., c. 59, which preserves the appellate jurisdiction of the Judicial Committee in these cases, and provides for the appointment of additional lords of appeal in ordinary, and for the attendance of ecclesiastical assessors. These provisions were carried out by the Rules of Nov. 28, 1876. [*See* Chitty's *Digest*, 1880.] A Royal commission to inquire into the whole subject of Ecclesiastical Courts and their jurisdiction drew up an exhaustive report in 1883.

Two Public Statutory Lectures on the History of the Canon Law in England, read in Easter Term, 1832, by W. Stubbs, D.D., &c. The writer begs to acknowledge the kindness of the Bishop of Chester in allowing free use to be made of these lectures in the above article. *See* also Gibson, *Codex;* Phillimore, *Eccles. Law;* and

especially the Introduction to the *Report of the Royal Commission on Ecclesiastical Courts*, 1883, which is a most valuable digest of the whole history of the subject. [W. H.]

Ecclesiastical Taxation. (1) Royal.—Before the Conquest, the differentiation of clergy from laity had not proceeded far enough to necessitate separate ecclesiastical taxation. The clergy paid their share of the dues customary from citizens, and if they were in any way distinguished from the laity, it was on account of their participating, on the analogy of the Empire, in certain immunities which, so early as the Codes of Theodosius and Justinian, were permitted to the clergy. But the great Papal and sacerdotal movement of the eleventh century resulted in the formation of a clerical caste, whose claim for absolute immunity from State burdens was based on right divine. Yet, as citizens, the clergy still paid taxes like other men. Besides their necessary share in indirect taxation, the "temporalities of the Church," their lands, were chargeable with the ordinary feudal services. A great proportion of lands held by clergymen were held by ordinary lay tenures, with incidents precisely similar. Even the peculiar clerical tenure of frankalmoign did not exempt the tenants in free alms from heavy burdens. The spiritualities of the Church, however, its tithes and offerings, were now secure from taxation. But the growth of the royal power and royal needs made these spiritualities an ever-tempting bait. Gradually attempts were made to tax them, with results which, though successful for the crown, led to the growth of the constitutional action of the clergy, the development of the ecclesiastical estate, and the establishment of Convocation. The steps of the process are as follows. As long as land only was taxed, the clergy naturally paid with the rest. Yet Archbishop Theobald demurred at the clergy granting Henry II. a scutage, though his objections were overruled; and Henry II. required clerks as well as laymen to give account of and pay for their knights' fees. The Saladine tithe of 1187 began the new epoch by at once taxing the movables of the laity and the spirituals of the clergy. Its religious purpose excused an innovation, which at once became a precedent for more directly secular taxation. The ransom of Richard I. took even the chalices of the churches. John's attacks on the wool of the Cistercians led the way to his formal demand in 1207 of a grant from the beneficed clergy for the recovery of Normandy. It was refused, and a similar request from Innocent III. was forbidden by the king. But with the alliance of Pope and king, a joint pressure was put on the clergy which they could not long withstand. By the reign of Henry III. taxation of spirituals was a regular thing, and the clergy could only obtain that, like the laity, they should assemble by their representatives, and grant the tax themselves, instead of its being arbitrarily imposed on them by the king. The establishment of Convocation (q.v.) is one result of this process. Under Edward I. the clergy became a regular estate of the realm, and their proctors in Parliament generally were compelled to make much larger grants than the laity. At last Edward I.'s demand of half their revenues led to their taking refuge in Boniface VIII.'s bull, *Clericis laicos*, which forbade clerical taxation by the crown. Edward's answer was to outlaw the whole clergy, an act which soon led to a compromise. It is unnecessary to trace further the growth of clerical taxation, except to notice that the clergy objected to return representatives of their estate to Parliament, and preferred to tax themselves separately in their clerical synod to sharing in the burdens and deliberations of the nation. The importance attached to accurate assessment of spiritual incomes is seen in the minuteness of the "Valor Ecclesiasticus" of Henry VIII. This custom of separate clerical taxation continued over the Reformation, until, in 1664, when an agreement between Archbishop Sheldon and Clarendon resulted in the clergy's abandoning this right and reverting to the custom of Edward I. by being included in the money bills prepared by the House of Commons. In 13 Car. II., the clergy gave their last separate subsidy. They received in compensation the right of voting at Parliamentary elections, but it was too late for them to return, as of old, special clerical proctors to the House of Commons. [Convocation.]

(2) Papal.—Besides these special royal exactions, the clergy were also liable to heavy taxation at the hands of the Pope. This was of comparatively late origin, for Peter-pence was not an exclusively clerical tax. It reached its highest point under Henry III., when to ecclesiastical the Popes added temporal supremacy through John's submission, and diminished after the nationalist movement of the fourteenth century affected even the Church, but was a subject of continual complaint up to the Reformation. The crown handed over the clergy to the Papacy in return for Papal permission of royal exactions more often than it protected them against the alien oppressor. [Papacy, Relations with.]

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, ii. 186 and ii. 583–4; Bingham, *Ecclesiastical Antiquities*, sec. v. For clerical immunities under the Empire, compare Herzog, *Encyclopädie*, s.v. *Immunitäten*. Lathbury, *Hist. of Convocation*; Collier, *Ecclesiastical Hist.* [T. F. T.]

Ecclesiastical Titles Bill, The (1851), was passed in response to a great popular outcry in England against the Pope. In 1850 much commotion was caused by a papal bull appointing a Roman Catholic archbishop and bishops with territorial titles in

England. The following year Lord John Russell passed the Ecclesiastical Titles Act, declaring the Pope's bull null and void, and imposing penalties on all who carried it into effect. The excitement, however, soon died away, and the Act was repealed in 1871.

Edbert (EADBERHT), PRÆN, King of Kent (794—796), seems to have been collaterally connected with the Æscings, and to have formerly been an ecclesiastic. On the death of Alric, he was elected king, but was attacked by Cenwulf of Mercia, who ravaged Kent, and obtained the excommunication of Edbert by the Pope. Cenwulf eventually took Edbert prisoner, and is said to have caused his eyes to be put out and his hands amputated, but subsequently liberated him.

Anglo-Saxon Chronicle.

Edbert (EADBERHT), King of Northumbria (737—758), was first cousin of Ceolwulf, whom he succeeded, and brother of Egbert, Archbishop of York. He was a successful ruler; he defeated the Mercians, and reduced the British kingdom of Strathclyde to subjection. His friendship was sought by Pepin of France, who sent him costly presents. Like his predecessor, he abdicated and retired to a monastery, where he lived for ten years.

Edburga (EADBURH) (*circa* 800), wife of Bertric, King of Wessex, poisoned her husband by mistake, having intended the death of his favourite, Worr. It is said that, "in detestation of the crime, the West Saxons determined that henceforth no wife of a king should occupy a royal throne by her husband's side, or bear the title of queen." She fled to the court of Charles the Great, who made her an abbess. "But she ruled over the monastery ill, and did wickedly in all things." Expelled thence, after many wanderings, she died a beggar in the city of Pavia.

William of Malmesbury; Asser.

Edgar (EADGAR), KING (*b.* 944, *s.* 959, *d.* 975), was the son of King Edmund, and on the death of Edred seems to have been made under-king of Mercia by his brother Edwy. But in 957 we read that the Mercians and Northumbrians chose Edgar for their king, which, together with the fact that just at this time he recalled Dunstan from exile and made him Bishop of Worcester, looks as if he had thrown up his allegiance to his brother. However this may be, on Edwy's death Edgar was at once elected king. His reign owes a great deal of its importance and success to Dunstan, who was practically his prime minister. The reforms in the Church which belong to this reign were the joint work of the king and the archbishop. Several new sees were established, and above forty Benedictine monasteries are said to have been founded by Edgar. There are but few striking events recorded in Edgar's reign, and the absence of Danish invasions is very marked. There are the usual wars against the Welsh, but even of these we read but little in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, and certainly Edgar more than any other Saxon king deserved the title "Pacificus." To protect the country, the fleet was considerably increased, and once a year it sailed round the island, often carrying the king in person. It is said that in one of these expeditions Edgar reduced the Danes in Ireland to subjection, and took Dublin. The story of Edgar's being rowed on the Dee by eight tributary kings need not be considered altogether apocryphal. The Chronicle tells us that in 973 he was met at Chester by six kings, who plighted their troth to him, while Florence of Worcester enumerates eight kings as having taken part in the ceremony—Kenneth of Scotland, Malcolm of Cumbria, Maccus of Man, Dunwallon of Strathclyde, Siferth, Iago, and Howell of Wales, and Inchill of Westmoreland. In 973, after he had been king fifteen years, Edgar was solemnly crowned at Bath. The story that this coronation was necessary on account of the penance he had to undergo for the abduction of a nun rests on no good authority, but no other solution has been attempted of this curious circumstance. In 975 Edgar died. He had been twice married: first to Ethelfleda, by whom he had Edward, who succeeded him, and secondly to Elfrida (Ælfthryth), who became the mother of Ethelred. The numerous stories of his amours, though no doubt greatly exaggerated, show his private character to be anything but exemplary; as a king, however, he was a worthy successor of Alfred. He was the first West Saxon "Emperor" who made his supremacy really felt over the Mercians and Northumbrians. His legislation seems to show the results of an enlightened attempt to put Saxons, Angles, and Danes on a perfect equality before the law. In recording his death, the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* gives an interesting fragment of a poetical estimate of the king:—

"This year died Edgar,
King of the English,
Dear Lord of West Saxons,
The Mercians' protector.
Widely was it known
Through many nations
Across the gannet's bath [*i.e.*, the sea],
That Edmund's offspring
Kings remote
Greatly honoured,
To the king submitted,
As to him was fitting.
Was no fleet so insolent,
No host so strong,
That in the English race
Took from him aught
The while the noble king
Reigned on his throne!"

Anglo-Saxon Chron.; Florence of Worcester; Henry of Huntingdon; Robertson, *Historical Essays*; Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, i. 67. The laws of Edgar are given in Thorpe, *Ancient Laws and Institutes*, i. 272. [F. S. P.]

Edgar (EADGAR), King of Scotland

(1097 — 1107), son of Malcolm Canmore and Margaret, obtained the crown chiefly by the aid of his uncle, Edgar Atheling (q.v.). In the following year he confirmed Magnus of Norway in the possession of the isles; the rest of his reign was exceedingly uneventful, owing, perhaps, to his mild character, which has caused him to be likened to Edward the Confessor. In 1100 his sister Matilda married Henry I. of England. Edgar died in January, 1107, and was buried at Dunfermline; before his death he divided the kingdom between his two brothers, Alexander and David, making the latter Earl of Lothian and Cumbria.

Edgar Atheling (*b.* 1058, *d. circa* 1158), was the son of Edward, the son of Edmund Ironside. On the death of Edward the Confessor, he was the nearest heir to the throne, but his claims were disregarded, and even after Harold's death there were very few who seriously advocated his cause. William received him kindly, and for two years he remained at the Conqueror's court, but in 1068 his friends, fearing for his security, withdrew him and his two sisters from England, and carried them to Scotland, where King Malcolm married Margaret, one of the sisters, and supported Edgar's claims in many attacks upon England. But these were in the main unsuccessful, and Edgar at length gave up his claims to the English crown on consideration of receiving estates and a pension from William. After remaining some time in Scotland, Edgar went over to Normandy (1074), and formed a great friendship with the Conqueror's eldest son, Robert; soon after this he made a pilgrimage to Italy and Constantinople, and on his return, supported Robert against William. The ill-success of the former obliged Edgar to flee to Scotland, where he was instrumental in effecting a peace between Malcolm and William Rufus. After the death of Malcolm (1093), Edgar took his sister's children under his protection, and eventually got leave from William to raise an army for the purpose of placing his nephew, Edgar, on the Scotch throne (1097). Having effected this, he joined the Crusaders just in time for the siege of Jerusalem. Subsequently he was taken prisoner by Henry I. while fighting for Robert of Normandy in the battle of Tenchebrai (1106), but was soon allowed to ransom himself, and retired to his estates, where he lived peacefully till he was nearly, if not quite, a hundred years of age.

Angl.-Saxon Chron.; Ordericus Vitalis, *Hist. Eccles*; Freeman, *Norman Conquest*.

Edgecote, The Battle of (July 26, 1469), was fought between the insurgents, led by "Robin of Redesdale," and the troops of Edward IV., under the Earl of Pembroke. The former were completely victorious. Pembroke was defeated with great slaughter, and he and his brother, Sir William Herbert, were taken prisoners, and put to death by the rebels. Edgecote is in Northamptonshire, a few miles from Banbury.

Edgehill, The Battle of (October 23, 1642), was the first battle of the Civil War of the seventeenth century. Two months before, the king had raised his standard at Nottingham, and on September 9 the Parliamentary army, under Essex, left London. The king at first marched westwards to Shrewsbury, where his force was considerably increased, and then resolved to push rapidly on London. Essex determined to prevent this, and marched on Worcester, where the two armies remained for some time within a few leagues of one another. At length the king marched forward, and on the 23rd of October the armies met at Edgehill, near Kineton, in Warwickshire. The Royalists occupied the hill while Essex drew up his troops in front of Kineton. The king's army was about 12,000 strong, while Essex's troops numbered about 10,000, and by Rupert's advice the king determined to march down the hill and attack the enemy on the plain. The battle began about two in the afternoon, and lasted till the evening. Rupert routed the Parliamentarian cavalry, but rashly pursued them more than two miles from the field, till stopped by the arrival of Hampden's regiment with the artillery. Meanwhile, the Royalist infantry had been broken, and Rupert's horse were in too great disorder to retrieve the fortunes of the day. The forces remained facing each other during the night, but on both sides large numbers deserted, and in the morning the two armies marched away—the king into Oxfordshire, Essex to Warwick. The Parliamentarian loss was heavier, but the Royalists lost many officers of rank, including the Earl of Lindsey, the Commander-in-chief. The real advantages lay with the king, who was able to capture Banbury, and march to Oxford without resistance.

Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion*, ii. 45; Rushworth, v. 33; Whitelocke, *Memorials*.

Edinburgh (*Eadwines byrig*, "the castle of Edwin;" in Gaelic, *Dunedin*, which means the same thing) was founded by Edwin of Northumbria as a frontier defence against the Picts, and became the chief town of Lothian, which the cession of Canute put under the Scottish kings. The introduction of English and Norman usages into the Scottish royal house made Edinburgh the chief royal residence and capital. It was given up to the English in 1174, but by the Treaty of Falaise restored to the Scots in 1189. In 1296 Edward I. carried off the regalia from the castle, which was a few years afterwards re-taken by Robert Bruce. In 1322 it was besieged by Edward II., and in 1333 given up to Edward III., from whom it was taken in 1341.

In 1544 Edinburgh was burnt by Hertford, and shortly afterwards was garrisoned by the French, who were driven out by the Lords of Congregation, 1559. After the murder of Darnley, the castle was taken by the Confederate Lords, but subsequently became the head-quarters of Queen Mary's party, until Kirkcaldy of Grange was compelled to surrender it, 1573. In March, 1639, the castle fell into the hands of the Covenanters, and in 1650 was taken by Cromwell. In 1689 it held out for some time for James II., under the Duke of Gordon. In 1708 a Jacobite plot was formed for seizing the castle, another attempt being made in 1715, and in the rebellion of 1745 it was captured by the Highlanders. In 1583 the University of Edinburgh was founded by the Town Council, partly from the proceeds of a legacy left by Robert Reid, Bishop of Orkney, and from endowments bestowed by James VI.

Daniel Wilson, *Memorials of Edinburgh*; James Grant, *Old and New Edinburgh*.

Edinburgh, The Treaty of (July 6, 1560), enacted peace between England and Scotland on condition that the French were to retire from Scotland; the fortifications of Leith and Dunbar to be razed; and a fine to be paid for the blazoning of English arms with those of Scotland and France by Mary.

Edith (Eadgyth) (*d.* 1075), wife of Edward the Confessor, was the daughter of Earl Godwin, and in 1045 she married the king. Her relations towards her husband are doubtful, but she probably exerted her influence in favour of her father's policy, as on the disgrace of Godwin, in 1051, she was banished from the king's presence, and sent to a convent, but received back again on Godwin's return in the next year. She favoured her brother Tostig against Harold, and after the Conquest, seems to have been treated with great respect by William. She died in 1075. She was reverenced alike by English and Normans, the latter apologising for her origin in the famous line—

"Sicut spina rosam genuit Godwinus Editham."

[Edward the Confessor.]

Life of Edward the Confessor (Rolls Series); Freeman, *Norman Conquest*.

Edith, "Swansneck," was the mistress of King Harold. She it was who is said to have identified his body after the battle of Hastings. Nothing more than this is known about her.

Edmund (Eadmund), King (*b.* 922, *s.* 940, *d.* 946), afterwards called Edmund the Elder by historians, was the son of Edward the Elder, and brother of Athelstan. Before his accession he had already gained renown in the battle of Brunanburh (q.v.). His brief reign was chiefly occupied in resisting the Danes, whom he frequently defeated, and with whom he eventually divided his kingdom, as Alfred had done, Watling Street being, roughly speaking, the boundary. The most important events of his reign are the recovery of Northumbria and the Five Burghs from the Danes, and the grant of Cumberland to Malcolm, King of Scots, in 945. The next year he was murdered at Pucklechurch by a robber named Liofa. His wife was Ethelfleda, a daughter of the ealdorman Elgar, and by her he had two sons, Edwy and Edgar (q.v.). Edmund received the title of "Magnificus," *i.e.*, the doer of great deeds, apparently from his successes against the Danes. His sons were so young at the time of his death that they were passed over in favour of his brother Edred.

Anglo-Saxon Chron.; Lappenberg, *Anglo-Saxon Kings*.

Edmund (Eadmund) Ironside (*b.* 989, *s.* Apr., *d.* Nov., 1016), was the son of Ethelred II. During his father's lifetime he had been active in opposing the Danes. In 1015 he married Aldgyth, widow of Sigeferth, and took possession of the Five Burghs, thus forming a kind of principality of his own in the heart of the Danish district. On the death of Ethelred, Edmund was chosen king by the citizens of London and those of the Witan who were there, while the rest of the people elected Canute. The brief reign of Edmund is taken up with struggles with his rival, in which the valour of Edmund and the bravery of his followers are in great measure neutralised by the treachery of Edric Streona and others. Immediately after his election Edmund left London, marched into Wessex, and defeated Canute at Pen Selwood. Another battle was fought at Sherstone, in Wiltshire, in which Edric's treachery almost caused the defeat of the English. Edmund next relieved London, and won a victory at Brentford. A fourth battle was fought at Oxford, where the Danes were once more defeated, and "all men said that Edmund would have destroyed them utterly had not Edric beguiled him to stop the pursuit at Aylesford." Shortly after this the Danes gained a great victory at Assington (Assandun), in Essex, in which the Chronicle tells us "all the nobility of the English race was destroyed," and which is to be attributed to the defection of Edric and his men. Canute pursued Edmund to Gloucester, and a sixth battle was about to be fought when the Witan proposed that a division of the country should be made between the two kings. For this purpose a meeting was held on Olney Island, close to Gloucester, where it was agreed that Edmund "was to be the head king, and have Wessex, Essex, and East Anglia, with the city of London; and Canute was to have Mercia and Northumbria." The story of Edmund having proposed to decide the matter by single combat with Canute rests on no good authority. Very soon after this, on November 30, 1016, Edmund died, having very probably

been murdered by Edric. He left two young sons, Edward and Edmund, who were exiled by Canute. His great physical strength, as well as his valiant spirit, gained him the surname of "Ironside." He reigned only seven months, and during that time he had fought five great battles, in three of which he was completely victorious, and in the others only defeated by treachery.

Anglo-Saxon Chron.; Florence of Worcester; Henry of Huntingdon; Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, i. 411, &c.

Edmund (Eadmund), King of Scotland (1094 — 1097), son of Malcolm Canmore and Margaret, joined his uncle, Donald Bane, in driving his half-brother Duncan from the throne. He reigned in conjunction with Donald three years, having Lothian as his especial province. In 1097 the success of Edgar, his brother, prompted him to retire to a monastery.

Will. of Malmesbury; Fordun, *Scotichronicon*.

Edmund (Eadmund), St., King of East Anglia (855—870). Nothing is known of his life. Of his death we are told that in 870, having been defeated and taken prisoner by the Danes, he was offered his life and kingdom on condition of his giving up Christianity and acknowledging the Danish supremacy. Refusing these terms, he was bound to a tree and shot at with arrows, and at last beheaded, at the town called St. Edmondsbury in honour of him. His constancy in faith earned him canonisation, and the English Church still keeps his name in remembrance on November 20th, the day of his martyrdom.

Anglo-Saxon Chron.; Simeon of Durham.

Edred (Eadred), King (946—955), was the son of Edward the Elder, and brother of Athelstan and Edward, the latter of whom he succeeded. He is said to have been weak and sickly in health, but his reign was an active one, and the administration was wisely managed, for Dunstan was his chief minister. In 947 the Northumbrians swore allegiance to him, but the next year they revolted, and set up Eric, son of Harold Blaatand, as their king. Therefore Edred overran Northumbria, and defeated them at York. Archbishop Wulfstan was deposed in 952, and imprisoned at Jedburgh, but two years afterwards he was released, and made Bishop of Dorchester. Edred died on November 23rd, 955, at Frome, in Somersetshire, and was succeeded by his nephew, Edwy (q.v). Edred, the "Chosen," or "Excellent," as he was called, seems to have possessed considerable capacity. He was brave and industrious, and in his reign were begun the administrative and ecclesiastical reforms afterwards worked out by Dunstan and by Edgar.

Edric (Eadric) Streona (*d.* 1017), first appears as the adviser of the massacre of St. Brice. After this he seems to have become the favourite adviser of Ethelred, and married his daughter Edith, and to him all the crimes and treasons of the court are attributed. In 1005 he treacherously murdered Elfhelm, Earl of Northumbria. In 1007 he was made Ealdorman of the Mercians; in 1009 he betrayed the English army; in 1015 he murdered Sigeferth and Morkere; and in the same year, after making an attempt on the life of Edmund Ironside, he openly joined the Danes. At the battle of Sherstone, by pretending that Edmund had been slain, he tried to throw the English ranks into disorder, but the promptitude of the English king prevented defeat, and almost immediately afterwards we find Edmund reconciled with Edric. Once more in this year Edric played the traitor, and by detaining Edmund, prevented his reaping the advantages of his victory at Otford. At the battle of Assandun he deserted with his forces to Canute, who by this means defeated the English. In 1017 the traitor was made Earl of Mercia, but before the year was out he was put to death, by whom is unknown. His crimes may have been exaggerated by the English historian, but, as Mr. Freeman remarks, without believing that Edric personally wrought all the countless and inexplicable treasons which are laid to his charge, it is impossible to doubt that he knew how to exercise an extraordinary influence over men's minds, and that that influence was always exerted for evil.

Anglo-Saxon Chron.; Will. of Malmesbury; Freeman, *Norman Conquest*.

Education in England. Systematic education in England begins with the conversion of the English to Christianity. The English Church extended its influence widely over the Continent. Bede is the representative of its culture. Alcuin, who sprang from his school, directed the educational system of Charles the Great. Most episcopal sees had schools attached to them, and learning was almost entirely in the hands of the clergy. Alfred the Great conceived the idea of educating the people. He set an example in his own court. He did much for the perfection and preservation of the Anglo-Saxon language and literature. The Norman Conquest introduced a new language, and for a time checked the progress of Anglo-Saxon. But Lanfranc and Anselm transplanted foreign culture to English soil, and the great Universities (q.v.) of Cambridge and Oxford raised their heads. It is said that Oxford in 1209 had 3,000 students. Roger Bacon and Duns Scotus vied with the best teachers of the Continent, and in the middle of the thirteenth century the students are fabled to have reached 15,000. Colleges where students and scholars were boarded rose in both universities. Also in Norman times many schools were established over the country to take the place of the Saxon schools which had disappeared. A principal occupation of the

monastery schools was to preserve the history of the country. England is especially rich in chronicles of this period. Ethelhard, a Benedictine abbot, introduced his own translation of Euclid into his schools. Disputations were held, and prizes in poetry and grammar were established. We find dramatic entertainments given in the monastery school at Dunstable, a practice which has been continued till our own day. A later period brings us to still more ambitious efforts. William of Wykeham founded New College, at Oxford, and a great college at Winchester, intended to supply between them the whole curriculum of a liberal education. Winchester was opened in 1393. In imitation of this, Henry VI. founded King's College, at Cambridge, and Eton College, near Windsor (1441). In 1447 four London clergymen presented a petition to Parliament to found schools in the different parishes. The only result of this was the Mercers' School, at which was educated Colet, who in 1508 founded St. Paul's School. The suppression of the monasteries at the Reformation ought to have provided funds for an efficient national education, but they were squandered by Henry VIII. Edward VI. founded (or rather refounded) a number of grammar schools, many of which have become distinguished, the principal being Christ's Hospital, founded in 1552. Elizabeth to some extent continued this work. The principal of her foundations is Westminster. In her reign Judd founded Tunbridge School; Lawrence Sheriff, Rugby; John Lyons, Harrow; and in the next reign Thomas Sutton founded Charterhouse. These various efforts did much for the education of the higher and middle classes, but the education of the lower classes was almost entirely neglected. The Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, founded in 1698, had established 1,600 free schools by the middle of the eighteenth century; but this number was very insufficient. Wesley's efforts for popular education were principally confined to his own communion. A precursor of the Methodist movement in Wales, Griffith Jones, of Llanddowror, effected great changes by his system of "circulating schools," but his efforts were purely local. Towards the end of the eighteenth century, Robert Raikes, the editor of the *Gloucester Journal*, awakened public interest in this cause. He began to teach children in Gloucester Cathedral during the service. In 1785 was founded "The Society for the Support and Encouragement of Sunday Schools throughout the British Dominions." Dissenters joined it as well as Churchmen. These Sunday schools gave a great impulse to the general education of the poorer classes. From these small beginnings the Sunday schools were almost universally adopted. A further advance was made by the introduction of the monitorial system by Bell and Lancaster. Bell, who returned to England in 1797, had organised this method of mutual instruction whilst he was president of the military orphan school in Madras. Joseph Lancaster, a young Quaker, employed the same method. He met with great success, and was favoured by the court. Under this impulse the British and Foreign School Society was established in 1805. In these schools the Bible was taught "without note or comment." In opposition to this, Dr. Bell gave his countenance to the "National Society for Promoting the Education of the Poor in the Principles of the Established Church," founded in 1811. Bell, at his death, in 1832, left £120,000 for the purpose of promoting national education. Lancaster died in poverty in America in 1838. By the rival efforts of these two societies education was much developed, and in 1833 a proportion of about one in eleven of the whole population was attending school. Up to this time the government had taken no direct part in this movement, but the year 1832 introduced a change in this respect. In that year a committee was appointed to inquire into the matter, and in the following year £20,000 was voted for the education of the people. In order to avoid religious disputes, the sum was divided between the two great school societies, and the grant was continued in succeeding years. In 1839 the Committee of the Privy Council on Education was formed. Its action was at first exclusively on the lines of the Church of England. To meet the difficulty, the Independents founded the Congregational Board of Education, and the Baptists the Voluntary School Society. The further development of the action of government was hindered by the divergence of party views on the question. One party was in favour of an entirely voluntary system, unconnected with the State. Among the supporters of State education, some were inclined to a gratuitous system; some were for denominational, others for secular education. An important step was taken, February 25, 1856, by which an Education Department was established in two divisions: one for the education of the people, and the other for the development of science and art. A code of regulations was published in April, 1860, now known as the "old code." A Royal Commission, appointed in 1858, reported in 1861. It gave an unfavourable picture of the state of education in England. In July, 1861, a revised code of regulations was issued, chiefly under the influence of Mr. Robert Lowe. It appeared in a revised form in May, 1862. It reduced the subjects of teaching to "the three R's,"—reading, writing, and arithmetic, established six standards of proficiency, and asserted the principle of payment by results. The management of schools was left to local bodies, but the inspection placed in the hands of government. The pay of the teachers was

diminished. The revised code was severely criticised in its details, but it laid a foundation for future action, and indirectly familiarised the nation with the duty of educating the people. It paved the way for the great measure of Mr. Forster, the Elementary Education Act, which became law on August 9, 1870, and authorised the formation of School Boards for the purpose of providing public elementary education under the supervision of elected representatives of the ratepayers. It was followed by the Free Education Act in 1891.

This Act gave an additional government grant of 10s. per annum for each child between five and fourteen years of age in average attendence at recognised elementary schools, and reduced fees accordingly. As the fees charged ordinarily amounted to less than 10s. per child per annum, the result was to abolish school fees in most cases, and where the abolition was not effected by the Act it was frequently carried out voluntarily by the managers. The Revised Code of 1891 made the "merit grant" dependent on the general efficiency of a school as estimated by the inspector rather than on the number of pupils who passed his examination, and so abolished the "payment by results" of Mr. Lowe's Revised Code. In 1894 Mr. Ackland issued a new Code for continuation schools, giving them considerable opening for usefulness. In 1896 an Education Bill was brought in by the Conservative Ministry, which proposed to form an educational committee of each County Council, whose duty it should be to inspect all elementary schools in the county, to distribute the Government grant, and eventually to undertake the charge of secondary education. Some provisions in it were suggested by the Report of the Secondary Education Commission (see below). The Bill also gave Voluntary Schools an annual grant of 4s. per scholar, and permitted "a reasonable number of parents" to obtain separate religious instruction in their own tenets for their children in any Board School. The Bill passed its second reading by a majority of 150, but was withdrawn before it was far advanced in Committee. In 1897 Acts were passed granting 5s. per scholar to Voluntary Schools and some relief also to necessitous Board Schools, the first-named grant to be distributed by associations of school managers. A Commission on Secondary Education appointed in 1894 reported in October, 1896, recommending the creation of a central supervisory authority, with subordinate local authorities in counties and boroughs, the rearrangement of educational endowments, with further aid from taxes and rates, the registration of teachers, and a system of State supervision and encouragement which might be extended to private and proprietary schools at their option. In 1899, in accordance with the recommendations of this Commission, a statute was passed creating "The Board of Education for England and Wales." This Board takes the place of the Education Department and of the Science and Art Department, also of the Charity Commission and the Board of Agriculture in matters relating to Education. Its chief officials are a President and a Parliamentary Under Secretary. There is associated with the Board a Consultative Committee, whose first task was to frame regulations for forming a Register of Teachers. It was felt that such a Register should include Teachers of all grades, and that it would conduce to the greater efficiency of the teaching profession. The Committee put forth its regulations early in 1902. Briefly, the Register has two columns, A and B. Column A is for the registration of elementary teachers. Column B is for all teachers other than elementary who have taken a University Degree, have had a year's training in pedagogy, have passed an examination in the theory of education, and have spent a year in teaching at a recognised school, other than elementary. Eighty thousand teachers enrolled themselves in Column A, and 500 in Column B. By another provision of the Act of 1899 secondary schools may, if they wish it, be examined by the Board.

The Education Act (England and Wales) introduced by Mr. Balfour in 1902 is actuated by the same motive as the Act of 1899, namely, to promote the co-ordination and efficiency of education in these countries. Its general principles as to secular education have been approved by the majority of those best qualified to form an opinion, but unhappily some of its provisions have stirred up a great amount of sectarian feeling. This Act sets up one local authority to control primary, secondary, and scientific education, invests such authority with rating powers, and throws the cost of the maintenance of all elementary schools upon the rates. In respect of secondary schools it allows the said authority to "take such steps as may seem desirable after consulting with the Board of Education to supply or aid the supply of education other than elementary." The "local authority" is the County Council in Counties, the Borough Council in County Boroughs and in non-County Boroughs with a population over 10,000, and the Urban District Council in Urban Districts with a population over 20,000. What were formerly known as Board Schools are now called Provided Schools, and those previously known as Voluntary Schools are now termed Non-Provided Schools. In the case of the latter the buildings have been handed over to the State, but the duty of keeping them in repair remains with the managers. In these schools religious teaching is to be under the control of the managers, of whom the

majority are to be "foundation managers" appointed under the provisions of the trust deed of the school. It is over this arrangement that there has arisen so much dispute, it being contended by the objectors that rate-supported schools should in all respects be under popular control. The Act received the royal assent on Dec. 18, 1902.

In 1903 an unwillingness on the part of numerous members of the Free Churches to pay that part of the education rate allocated to the support of denominational schools led to the formation of a "Passive Resistance Committee," of which Dr. Clifford was President In spite of the adverse opinion of counsel, "Passive Resistance" became active. On Oct. 31, 1903, the Archbishop of Canterbury wrote to Dr. Horton suggesting a conference, but the reply was that the idea could only be entertained if the Church party would as a preliminary admit the principles that all schools should be under absolutely public control, and that all teachers should be appointed without reference to denomination and by the public authority. The Archbishop was unable to assent to these terms.

In 1906 a further Bill was introduced under a Liberal Government, in which it was provided that no school would be recognised as a public elementary school unless it was a school provided by the local education authority; therefore no elementary school was to receive a penny of public money, either from rates or taxes, unless it became a Provided School within the meaning of the Education Act. Voluntary Schools receiving rates and grants would at once become Provided Schools. No catechism or distinctive religious formularies were to be taught, but simple religious exercises and simple Biblical instruction were to be given. After considerable opposition from Churchmen the Bill was withdrawn.

Education in Ireland is by tradition said to have reached a high pitch of excellence in pre-Christian times. It had its military as well as its civil side. The usual custom was for the principal champions to preside over the education, chiefly athletic, of the more promising youths, and this system was perpetuated by the laws of fosterage, which continued in force as late as A.D. 1600. There were also central military schools at Tara and the capitals of the other kingdoms. We are told that when the Fianna (Fenians), or national militia, was established (*ci ca* 140 A.D.), no one was admitted to membership until he had passed a strict military examination, which included verse-making as well as feats of corporeal strength. The civil education was in the hands of the Druids and of the Fileadh, or poets, characters often united in the same person, though the former were, as a rule, stationary, while the latter, a highly privileged and protected class, wandered about the country with their pupils. Learning was held in high esteem; from 600 B.C. we have lists of great lawyers, historians, and poets who were maintained at the royal courts. Cormac, King of Erinn, who lived in the third century, endowed schools of war, history, and jurisprudence at Tara, and we are told that the Ollamhs, or doctors of poetry (or rather, culture generally), had to submit to twelve years' study of great severity. They were declared inviolate by law, and their duties consisted in teaching the people history by public recitals, and in settling questions of genealogy. With the arrival of St. Patrick, education was revolutionised by the introduction of Latin and of Christianity. A great impulse was now given to learning; ecclesiastical schools were founded, where churchman and layman alike gathered round their saintly teachers, the most famous being the School or University of Armagh, where, it is said, a third of the city was given over to foreign students, so great was its fame. Education was conducted on a well-organised system; poor students waited on the rich in return for gifts of food and clothing; and the efficiency and functions of the teachers were minutely provided for by law. During the sixth and seventh century, Ireland sent forth missionaries and scholars everywhere, and her culture was the envy of Europe. Neither internal dissensions nor Danish invasions seem to have checked the advance of knowledge; about A.D. 1000 we find poetry cultivated with great assiduity, and royal preceptors often became ministers of state: *e.g.*, O'Carroll, under Brian Boru. A great number of schools and colleges were, however, plundered of their wealth during the anarchy which preceded the Norman invasion, and the struggles that followed that event destroyed the old Celtic civilisation, without, unfortunately, substituting that of England. All through the Angevin period the social condition of Ireland degenerated. The English settlers at first sent their sons to be educated in England, and after they had become, in the fourteenth century, "more Irish than the Irish themselves," did not have them educated at all. Nevertheless, two great attempts were made to establish university teaching: the first at Dublin, on the authority of a bull from Pope Clement V. in 1311, an effort which struggled on until the reign of Edward VI., and the second at Drogheda, in 1465. Both ultimately failed from lack of funds. What other teaching existed was purely ecclesiastical, and many learned priests were brought up in the monasteries and convents which had been built by the invaders. These became rapidly corrupt, and the suppression of the religious houses of the Pale by Henry VIII. was not very detrimental to the cause of education. Then came the Reformation, bringing with it educational disabilities for the Catholics, but also in 1591 the foundation of Dublin University. A commencement was

made by the establishment by charter of Trinity College, which was to be the *Mater Universitatis*; but though it flourished greatly, the efforts in the seventeenth century to found colleges round it were only partially successful, and the University remained unincorporated. During this period the children of the Catholic gentry were for the most part educated abroad in Catholic seminaries, or secretly at home by Jesuit priests. Education in Ireland continued to be virtually confined to Protestants until 1793, when the disabilities excluding Catholics from Dublin University were removed by law. During the 19th century many efforts were made to solve the vexed question of Irish University Education. In 1850 the Queen's University, with colleges at Belfast, Cork, and Galway, was established, but its system of purely secular education was disliked by the Catholics, and, with the exception of the college at Belfast, it proved a complete failure. The Cathoiic University was established in 1854, and supported by private subscriptions. Mr. Gladstone's Irish University Bill of 1873 was the most complete of the many schemes which endeavoured to reconcile these conflicting institutions; its aim was to make Dublin University the one central university to which the other colleges might affiliate themselves, but it satisfied no one, and was thrown out by the Commons. Tests were, however, abolished in Dublin University, and the Queen's University superseded by the Royal University, for which a charter was granted in 1880. In 1908 an Act was passed providing for the foundation of two new universities in Ireland, having their seats at Dublin and Belfast, and for the dissolution of the Royal University. The Grammar Schools of Ireland date from the time of Queen Elizabeth, who provided that a school should be maintained in every diocese; but though grants of forfeited land were given for the purpose by the Stuarts, the scheme was never thoroughly carried out. For the education of candidates for the Catholic priesthood, Maynooth College was founded in 1795, and after a stormy career, received a building grant of £30,000 in 1845, as well as a grant annually renewed till 1869, when it was commuted. By the Intermediate Education Act of 1878 a million of the Irish Church surplus was set aside for the encouragement and endowment of intermediate education. The examinations under this Act show a steady increase of numbers. Primary Schools were established in the reign of Henry VIII., who ordained that the incumbent should maintain a school in every parish. This duty was, however, shamefully neglected, and the Charter Schools (q.v.), started in 1733 by the Protestants, with the avowed intention of the conversion of the children of the poor, failed utterly, through the hostility of the Catholic priests, the falling off of private benefactions, and the peculation of the annual Parliamentary grants. In 1811 the Kildare Place Society for Promoting the Education of the Poor on the Principle of Secularism was founded in Dublin, and in 1819 it received a Parliamentary grant. This was ultimately withdrawn, on account of the outcry of the Catholics, but in 1833 it was vested in Commissioners of National Education, by whom it has been excellently administered. An Act of 1892 introduced compulsory education and provided for grants to denominational schools.

O'Curry, *Manners and Customs of the Ancient Irish*; Cusack, *Hist. of the Irish Nation*; Froude, *Eng. in Ireland*; Haverty, *Hist. of Ireland*; McCarthy, *Hist. of Our Own Times*, vol. iv.; Gladstone, *Speech on Irish University Bill*, Hansard, vol. ccxiv., col. 378.

Education in Scotland. It is impossible to fix with any accuracy the date of the first establishment of schools in Scotland, but there are indications in the historical records that they existed from a very early period. Learning has in Scotland always been in advance of the arts and refinements of civilisation, which in other countries usually precede letters. For the first foundation of her schools, as for the introduction of her earliest arts and industries, Scotland is indebted to the Church. As early as the twelfth century there is mention of schools existing in certain burghs in connection with the religious houses in the neighbourhood. With the building of every cathedral church a school would spring up in the city for the instruction of the choristers, and though the teaching was mainly intended to fit the scholars for taking part in the religious services, it was not confined to choral singing and chanting; for as the service of the Church was wholly in Latin, a knowledge of Latin was absolutely necessary for all who took part in the service, and the Latin grammar was therefore taught in the choral schools. Thus the choral school of the Church easily developed into the grammar school of the burgh. We have no exact information as to the number of these burghal schools or the course of instruction pursued even at so late a date as the Reformation; but while art was still in its infancy, and all the appliances of domestic life were of the rudest, the value of knowledge and the desire for it was felt by the nation, and expressed by a series of "Education Acts" passed by the Scots Parliament. The first official mention of national education is in 1496, when an Act of Parliament was passed requiring "through all the realm that all barons and freeholders that are of substance put their eldest sons and heirs to the schools, fra they be aught or nine years of age; and to remain at the grammar schools until they be competently founded, and have perfect Latin; and thereafter to remain three years at the schools of art and jure, so that they

may have knowledge and understanding of the laws," under pain of a penalty of £20. In 1579 another Act ordained that "song-schools be provided in burghs for the instruction of the youth in music." In 1621 an Act exempts colleges and schools from payment of a taxation; and in 1633 an Act declares that every "plough- or husband-land according to the worth" should be taxed for the maintenance and establishment of parish schools. In spite of these enactments, however, on the re-establishment of the Presbyterian Church it was found that the existing means of education was not sufficient to meet the wants of the people, and that many parishes were without schools. An Act, therefore, "for settling of schools" was passed in 1696, which orders the *heritors* (landowners) of every parish in the kingdom to "provide a commodious house for a school, and settle and modify a salary for a schoolmaster, which shall not be under one hundred nor above two hundred marks." This Act was the basis of the parochial school system of Scotland, and this system continued in operation till the whole machinery of education was revised, and the Education Act of 1872 passed, when it was again found that the existing means of education was inadequate to the population. This was due in the towns to the influx of strangers caused by the increase of trade and manufactures. In the rural parishes, too, the heritors had in many instances so neglected their duty that there was no house for either the school or the teachers. The returns showed that 1,000 new schools were required, and that 54,671 children were without accommodation. The Education Act was therefore passed, the principles of which are the same in substance as those of the Act of 1494: namely, that every child in the kingdom shall have the means of education placed within its reach, and that it shall be compelled to make use of them. The Act places the management of the parish school in the hands of a School Board elected by the ratepayers. In 1901 another Act was passed, which declared that it shall be the duty of every parent to provide efficient elementary education in reading, writing, and arithmetic for his children who are between the ages of five and fourteen years of age.

Acts of the Scots Parliament; Cosmo Innes, *Sketches of Early Scotish History*; Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*; Tytler, *Hist. of Scotland*.

[M. M.]

Edward (EADWARD) THE ELDER, KING (*b.* 870, *s.* 901, *d.* 925), was the son and successor of Alfred. He had already distinguished himself in the wars against the Danes, and seems to have been unanimously chosen king on his father's death; but Ethelwald, a son of Ethelred, put forward his claim to the throne, and having failed to excite a rebellion in Wessex, fled to Northumbria, where the Danes made him their king. In 901 he got possession of Essex, and the next year ravaged Mercia. Edward, in return, invaded the Danelagh, and harried it. The Kentish men, against his orders, remained behind, and a battle ensued, in which the Danes were victorious, but their king, Eric, and Ethelwald were slain. In 906 Edward made peace with Guthrum, the son and successor of Eric. Edward now began, with the aid of his sister, Ethelfleda (Æthelflæd), the "Lady of the Mercians," to construct fortresses against the Danes at Chester, Tamworth, Warwick, Hertford, and other places. These fortresses were mostly constructed of stone or brick, a great improvement on the old system of earthworks. In 910 the Danes broke the peace, and were defeated by Edward at Tettenhall, and in the next year at Wednesfield. On the death of Æthelflæd in 918, Edward took possession of Mercia; "and all the folk there, as well Danish as English, submitted to him." In 921 the Danes failed in an attack on Towcester, and in 922 "all the people in Essex, East Anglia, and the rest of Mercia submitted to him," and in the same year the Welsh kings "sought him to lord." Lastly, in 924, "the King of the Scots, and the whole nation of the Scots, and all those who dwell in Northumbria, as well English as Danes, and Northmen, and others, and also the King of the Strathclyde Britons, and all the Strathclydé Britons, sought him to father and to lord." Edward had thus in some sort gained a supremacy over all Britain. Wessex, Kent, and Sussex were his by inheritance, and Mercia, Essex, and East Anglia by conquest from the Danes. Besides this, Northumbria, Scotland, Wales, and Strathclyde did homage to him as overlord. Edward died in 925, and was succeeded by his son Athelstan. He seems to have had three wives and a numerous family; three of his sons reigned after him, and of his daughters, one married Charles the Simple, King of the West Franks; another (Eadgifu) Louis, King of Arles; Eadhild married Hugh the Great, Duke of the French (the father by another wife of Hugh Capet); while Edith became the wife of the Emperor Otto I. Another daughter was given to a prince near the Alps, and another to Sitric, the Northumbrian king. Of King Edward Mr. Freeman says: "It is only the unequalled glory of his father which has condemned this prince, one of the greatest rulers that England ever beheld, to a smaller degree of popular fame than he deserves. His whole reign bears out the panegyric passed on him by an ancient writer, Florence of Worcester, that he was fully his father's equal as a warrior and a ruler, and was inferior to him only in those literary labours which peculiarly distinguish Alfred among the princes of the age."

Anglo-Saxon Chron.; Florence of Worcester, *sub anno* 901; Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, i. 58, &c.

[S. J. L.]

Edward (Eadward) the Martyr, King (*s.* 975, *d.* 978), was the eldest son of Edgar, whom he succeeded at the age of thirteen. His election was opposed by his step-mother, Elfrida (Ælfthryth), on behalf of her own son, Ethelred. Edward, however, gained the support of Dunstan, and was accordingly elected. His short reign is unimportant, except for the banishment of Oslac, the Earl of Deira, who had been appointed by Edgar. His accession seems to have led to a reaction against the monastic policy of Edgar, but little can be certainly said on this point. He was treacherously murdered in 979, without doubt at the instigation of his step-mother, though the story of the tragedy having taken place at Corfe Castle, and the details of the crime, are only found in the later chroniclers. His cruel and untimely fate gained him the surname of the Martyr, though it cannot be affirmed that he was a martyr either to religion or to patriotism.

Anglo-Saxon Chron.; William of Malmesbury, ii. 162, &c.; Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, i. 288, &c.

Edward (Eadward) the Confessor (*s.* 1042, *d.* 1066) was the younger son of Emma and Ethelred the Unready, and was born probably about 1004. This Emma—or, to call her by her English name, Edith—was the daughter of Richard Sanspeur, great-grandfather of William the Conqueror, who was therefore second cousin to Edward. The early days of Edward and his brother Alfred were spent in Normandy, at the court of their uncle, Richard the Good; for they had been carried there by Emma at the time of Sweyn's success in 1013, and did not return to their native land on their mother's marriage with Canute (1017). Hence the two young Athelings grew up to manhood abroad, and learnt to prefer the Norman-French customs and life to those of England. It is uncertain whether Edward had any share in the invasion of England that led to Alfred's death in 1036; but Robert the Devil seems to have made at least one effort for the restoration of his cousins a few years before this date. When Hardicanute (Harthacnut) succeeded his brother Harold, it was not long before he invited his half-brother Edward to return home, and thus be at hand to assume the throne should any misfortune happen to himself (1041). Accordingly, in the words of the Chronicle, on Hardicanute's death, in June, 1042, "all folk chose Edward, and received him for king," though the coronation did not take place at Winchester till Easter next year. There seems to have been some opposition to Edward's succession—one party preferring the claims of a Danish pretender, Sweyn Estrithson, Canute's nephew—but the eloquence of Bishop Lyfing and Earl Godwin carried the day in favour of Ethelred's son. A year or two later, Magnus, King of Norway and Denmark, was preparing to make good his pretensions on England, but was prevented from carrying out his project by the attack of his rivals, Harold Hardrada and Sweyn (1045). It was probably for her connection with Sweyn's party that the Witan stripped Emma of her treasures (1043); while the dangers of this Danish element led, a year or two later, to the banishment of the great Danish lords in England, Sweyn's brother Osbeorn, and Osgod Clapa (1046). From this time the new king's throne was secure.

Meanwhile, Edward had married Godwin's daughter Edith, and the power of the great earl's house was growing every day. At the time of Edward's accession there were four great earldoms, of which only one, Wessex, was in the hands of Godwin. Siward held Northumbria, Leofric Mercia, while another earl, whose name is lost, ruled East Anglia. But in 1043 Godwin's eldest son, Sweyn, received an earldom irregularly carved out of the western parts of Mercia and Wessex, including Hereford, Gloucester, Oxford, Berkshire, and Somerset; about the same time his nephew, Beorn, received the earldom of the Middle Angles, and his second son, Harold, that of the East Angles (1045). But Edward could never forget the land of his early life, and was constantly bringing foreigners over to hold rule in England. His nephew, Ralph, was made Earl of Worcester and Hereford in succession. It was, however, by manipulating the ecclesiastical appointments that Edward found his readiest way of placing the strangers in high office. In especial, a Norman monk, Robert of Jumièges, was nominated Bishop of London (1044), and some six years later Archbishop of Canterbury (1051); while another Norman, Ulf, was made Bishop of Dorchester (1049). But all the time these and many other Norman strangers were swarming into the land, the house of Godwin was becoming more and more the centre of the national party. In 1051 things came to a climax. In this year the king, who had a few months previously rejected the choice of the Canterbury monks and Godwin for the see of Canterbury, gave the great earl still further offence by requiring him to punish the men of Dover for vengeance they had inflicted on the insolent followers of Baldwin of Flanders. This Godwin refused to do without giving the offenders fair trial. About the same time he had another charge against the king's foreign friends; for the "Welshmen," or French, had built a castle in Sweyn's earldom of Hereford, and were working all the harm they could on the people thereabouts. Godwin, being summoned to attend a meeting of the Witan at Gloucester, gathered his own men and those of his sons at Beverstone, not far from Malmesbury, while the rival hosts of Siward, Leofric, and Ralph supported the king at Gloucester. The meeting-place was transferred to London, and Godwin's case was brought forward apparently before he

could arrive himself. Sweyn was outlawed once more, and Godwin and Harold summoned to appear as criminals. In these circumstances flight seemed the wisest course: Harold crossed over to Dublin, and Godwin to Flanders, whence they returned next year to drive out the Norman offenders with Archbishop Robert and Bishop Ulf at their head (1052). Next year, however, the great earl died, and was succeeded in his West Saxon province by his eldest living son, Harold; for Sweyn had died on his way back from a pilgrimage to Jerusalem (Sept., 1052). Upon this, East Anglia was given to Leofric's son Ælfgar; while about the same time Siward undertook his expedition against Macbeth, and proclaimed Malcolm King of Scots (1054). On Siward's death, next year, his earldom was given to Harold's brother Tostig. In the same month Ælfgar was banished from the kingdom, but soon returned to aid the Welsh in their foray upon Hereford. Harold was now the most prominent man in the kingdom, and to him was entrusted the task of beating back the invaders, though in the reconcilement of Gruffydd he seems to have had the co-operation of Ælfgar's father, Leofric (1056) —apparently a token of some approaches to amity between the two great rival houses. East Anglia was now given to Harold's brother Gyrth, while another brother, Leofwin, had Kent and Essex, and the other shires of south-east England. In 1062 Gruffydd of Wales once more invaded England. But Harold and Tostig united their forces for the purpose of harrying his land; the English soldiers were bidden to adopt the arms and tactics of the Welsh, and before the year 1063 was out Gruffydd was dead, and his kingdom divided between two native princes, who swore fealty to Edward. In 1065 Northumberland rose in rebellion against Tostig, and elected Leofric's grandson, Morkere, as its earl. Morkere, in combination with his brother Eadwine, who had been Earl of Mercia since about the year 1062, appeared in arms at Northampton, perhaps meditating a division of the kingdom, and certainly declaring that the Northumbrians would no longer support the tyranny of Tostig. Edward would have pushed matters to extremes, but Harold persuaded the Oxford gemot to confirm the wishes of the Northerners. Accordingly the Northumbrians were promised a renewal of Canute's laws, and Tostig was banished. This was the last important event in Edward the Confessor's reign. At the end of the year 1065 his great church of Westminster was consecrated, and on Jan. 5, 1066, the king died. Edward had no children, and for many years Harold's position in the kingdom had been such that it was scarcely possible, under all the circumstances, to elect any other successor. Pious, meditative, and given up to religious exercises, Edward, as it has been often said, was more fitted for a Norman cloister than the English throne. His virtues earned him popular respect; but he was deficient in practical vigour, and during a large part of his reign the actual business of administration was managed by members of the house of Godwin.

Anglo-Saxon Chronicle; *Lives of Edward the Confessor* (Rolls Series); Palgrave, *Hist. of Normandy and England*; and esp. Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, vol. ii. [S. J. L.]

Edward I., King (*b.* 1239, *s.* 1272, *d.* 1307), was the son of Henry III. At fifteen he married Eleanor of Castile, and soon afterwards his father gave him Gascony, Ireland, Bristol, and the march between the Dee and the Conway, where he had early experience of Welsh warfare. He sided with his father at the time of the Parliament of Oxford, 1258, and was carefully watched by the barons. The party calling itself the bachelorhood of England ("Communitas bacheleriæ totius Angliæ"), which, in 1259, urged the baronial government to fulfil its promises, found a leader in Edward, who acted probably in concert with Earl Simon against the council formed at Oxford. This concert was soon broken, and Edward joined his father's side. In 1263 he seized the property of the Londoners deposited in the Temple, and seems to have been much hated throughout the kingdom. His rash pursuit of the Londoners at Lewes caused the defeat of the royal army. He was kept in a kind of captivity until he escaped (May, 1265) from Hereford. The same year he won the decisive victory of Evesham. The pacification of the country was due to his wisdom as much as to his energy. While he was active in reducing the strongholds of the Montfort party and in crushing freebooters, he successfully advocated a healing policy. In 1270 he went on the Crusade, and distinguished himself by his bravery. In 1272 he narrowly escaped assassination. That same year his father died, and Edward was at once acknowledged as king. He heard the news on his way home. He landed in England, and was crowned in 1274. Edward profited by the troubles of his father's reign. He knew the needs of his people, and set himself to meet them by good laws. He worked not only for, but with, his people, and thus was led to give to all alike their share in the work. He was valiant and prudent, and, above all, faithful to his word. From his education he had imbibed French tastes and thoughts. They encouraged his love of power. The legal turn of his mind made him take advantage of subtleties which favoured his wishes; but what he had promised he fulfilled, at least to the letter, at any cost. His kingly pride, his love of order, perhaps, too, his love for his people, caused him to strive for the supremacy of England in this island. Edward at once began to amend the evils of the civil wars. In 1275 his first Parliament passed the First Statute of Westminster,

reciting former good laws and usages; it also granted the king a payment for the export of wool and leather, the first legal origin of the customs. [CUSTOMS.] As in many cases wrongful claims were upheld by might, a commission was appointed to inquire into men's rights. When its report was made, the circuit judges were empowered to issue a writ, declaring the grounds upon which men held their lands, levied tolls, &c. Want of money caused the issue of a writ compelling all who had £20 in land to be knighted, or pay a fine. This increased the body of knights, and tended to merge the smaller feudal tenants in the great body of freeholders. Another blow was given to feudal distinctions by the Statute of Winchester. This statute re-organised the national force which had been constituted by the Assize of Arms [HENRY II.], and made it a means of keeping order. The rights of the feudal lords, and of the king as chief of them, were preserved by the Statute of Mortmain (*De Religiosis*), which forbade grants of land to ecclesiastical bodies, for by these grants the lord was robbed of his rights. This measure was provoked by an attempt of Archbishop Peckham to extend ecclesiastical privileges. Edward, however, like Henry II., would have no such encroachments. A statute called *Quia Emptores*, made in 1290, which stopped a tenant from granting land, to be held of himself and not of his lord, had the same effect as the Statute of Mortmain as regards the rights of the king and other feudal lords. Llewelyn, Prince of North Wales, who had been on the side of Earl Simon, was brought to submission in 1276. His brother David was his enemy, and was favoured and rewarded by Edward. The brothers were reconciled, and in 1282 rose against the king. Llewelyn was defeated and slain. David was taken, and put to death as a traitor at Shrewsbury. By the Statute of Wales, 1284, Edward endeavoured to introduce English law and organisation into that country. The Welsh war added to the king's needs. The bulk of the revenue now came from taxes on personalty and customs. Parliamentary assemblies of different kinds were often called to make grants, until, in 1295, Edward called an assembly of the three estates of the realm, which have from that time been held necessary parts of Parliament. [PARLIAMENT; CONVOCATION.] As representatives of the freeholders, and not the lesser tenants of the crown, sat as the third estate, Parliament expresses the success of the policy of Edward, which Dr. Stubbs has defined as "the elimination of the doctrine of tenure from political life." To please the people, and so to gain money, Edward, in 1290, banished the Jews. [JEWS.] On the failure of the heirs of William the Lion, Edward was called (1291), as overlord of Scotland, to settle the succession to the throne of that kingdom. He decided in favour of John de Baliol. Edward took the opportunity of defining and increasing the subordination of the Scotch king to the English crown. He allowed appeals to be made to his court by the Scotch barons against Baliol. This soon caused war, and in 1296 Edward conquered Scotland, deposed Baliol, and ruled the kingdom as his own. Meanwhile, Philip IV. of France fraudulently seized on Gascony. War followed, and the Scots looked for help from France. A constitutional crisis now occurred in England. Edward had made heavy demands on the wealth of the Church. In obedience to a bull of Boniface VIII., Archbishop Winchelsey and the clergy refused (1297) to pay any more taxes on their ecclesiastical revenue. The king, in return, put them out of the protection of the law. The merchants were angry because the king heavily taxed and seized their wool; the earls disliked the whole policy of Edward, which lessened their power; all classes were united against the royal authority. Edward commanded the Constable and Marshal to lead a force to Gascony, while he went to Flanders, and they flatly refused. The archbishop and the king were reconciled, and Edward set sail, but the attitude of affairs was so threatening that he was forced to grant the Confirmation of the Charters by which he renounced taxation, direct and indirect, without the consent of the nation. This great concession is an epoch in our constitution. Edward loyally kept his word, and by the Articles upon the Charters (1300) confirmed it afresh. Some irritation lingered in men's minds, which was especially visible at the Parliament at Lincoln (1301). In consequence of his anger at the proceedings at Lincoln, Edward, by agreement with the foreign merchants, levied some new customs, the origin of our import duties, without consent of the Estates. This, though quite against the spirit, was not contrary to the letter, of his promise. He also obtained from the Pope absolution from his word, but did not take advantage of it. In these two matters alone did Edward seem to deal with his people with legal subtlety.

In 1297 a revolt took place in the Lowlands under William Wallace, who defeated the English near Stirling. The revolt was crushed the next year by the defeat of Wallace at Falkirk. The war, however, lingered on until 1304. Meanwhile, peace was made with France, and Edward married Margaret, sister of Philip. In 1305 Wallace was taken, and put to death. Edward now fully annexed Scotland, and designed that it should send representatives to the English Parliament. But in 1306, Robert Bruce, grandson of one of the claimants in 1291, who up to this time had adhered to Edward, revolted, killed the regent Comyn, and was crowned king at Scone. Bruce was defeated by the Earl of Pembroke, but still remained unconquered. Edward marched northwards against him,

and on his march, died at Burgh-by-Sands, in 1307, in his sixty-ninth year. The perfection of the Parliamentary system, the organisation of the law courts, the great statutes which he caused to be made, and the general progress of the constitution, mark the reign as of the first importance. They were the fruit of the wisdom, the legal genius, the patriotism, and the good faith of the "greatest of the Plantagenets," as Edward I. has been not undeservedly styled.

Rishanger, *Chronicle*; Trivet, *Annals*; *Waverley Annals*; Walter of Hemingford, *Hist. de Rebus Gestis Edward. I., II., et III.* (printed by Hearn); *Rotuli Scotiæ* (Record Commission); Stubbs, *Select Charters*, *Constitutional Hist.*, and *The Early Plantagenets*; Freeman, *Essays*; *The Greatest of the Plantagenets*; Pauli, *Englische Geschichte*. [W. H.]

Edward II., King (*b.* 1284, *s.* 1307, *d.* 1327) was the fourth son of Edward I. and Eleanor of Castile, but the death of his three elder brothers made him heir to the throne when an infant. He received the title of Prince of Wales in 1301. In 1297 he was appointed regent in his father's absence, and in this capacity signed the *Confirmatio Cartarum*. In 1306 he was solemnly knighted by his father, whom he accompanied on his expedition to Scotland. During this expedition Edward I. died, having on his death-bed entreated his son not to recall Piers Gaveston, his comrade and favourite, who had just been banished, and to continue the war against the Scots. Both these requests, or injunctions, were disregarded; the Scotch expedition was abandoned, and Gaveston was not only recalled, but created Earl of Cornwall, and during the king's absence in France made "custos" of the kingdom. From this date till 1312 the barons were struggling against the favourite and the king's misgovernment. In 1311 Edward consented to certain "Ordinances," which practically put the royal power into commission, and in 1312 Gaveston was seized by the barons, and put to death. The revolution threw all power into the hands of Thomas of Lancaster and his confederates, who appointed ministers and settled the royal revenue without consulting the king. The defeat at Bannockburn in 1314 destroyed what little influence Edward possessed, and till 1321 Lancaster was supreme. In this year Edward got a new favourite in the person of Hugh le Despencer, and the high-handed conduct of Lancaster alienated many of the barons from him, so that in 1322 the king was able to get together a sufficient force to defeat him. Lancaster was at once beheaded, the Ordinances of 1311 were repealed, and the baronial party for the time crushed. The latter part of the reign is obscure. It would seem that the queen was jealous of the power of the Despencers; at all events, she intrigued with Roger Mortimer, now the leader of the barons, against her husband. She had been sent over to France to arrange a dispute between her husband and her brother, and being followed by Mortimer and others, she collected troops, and landed in England, where she was joined by many of the barons. The Despencers were executed and the king himself taken prisoner, and shortly afterwards compelled to abdicate. The fate of Edward is somewhat doubtful, though it is generally accepted that he was secretly murdered in Berkeley Castle on Sept. 21, 1307. The character of Edward II. was singularly despicable. He was devoid of self-control, firmness, and dignity, and spent his time in the society of favourites and parasites. His reign is a miserable one; defeat and disgrace abroad, treachery and misgovernment at home: nowhere can we find conduct that is praiseworthy. The people, contrasting the irresolute and weak-minded king with his noble and brave father, were led to believe that he was no true son of Edward I., but a changeling, and not a voice was raised against his deposition. Edward II. was the weakest of the Plantagenets, and showed little of the vigour and capacity for government which distinguished most of his family. "He had never," says Dr. Stubbs, "shown himself sensible of the dignity and importance, much less of the responsibility, of kingship." By his marriage with Isabella of France he had two sons, Edward and John, and two daughters, Eleanor and Joan.

Trokelowe, *Annales* (Rolls Series); Thomas de la Moor (Camden Society); *The Life of Edward II.*, by the Monk of Malmesbury (printed by Hearne, 1731); Walter of Hemingford, *Hist. de Rebus Gestis Edward. I., II., et III.* (printed by Hearne); Rymer, *Fœdera*; Adam of Mirimuth (Eng. Hist. Soc.); Pauli, *Englische Geschichte*; Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.* [S. J. L.]

Edward III., King (*b.* Nov. 13, 1312, *s.* Feb. 1, 1327, *d.* June 21, 1377), son of Edward II., was born at Windsor. On the deposition of his father the young prince was appointed guardian of the kingdom (Oct. 1326), and crowned early the following year. During his minority the government was entrusted to a council of regency, of which Henry of Lancaster was the chief. The administration, however, was really usurped by Queen Isabella and her favourite, Roger Mortimer. But the latter was unpopular with the baronage, and had incurred general dislike by the treaty negotiated with the Scots in 1328, by which the independence of Scotland was recognised. In 1330 the king, who deeply resented Mortimer's arrogance, found no difficulty in forming a powerful combination against the favourite. Mortimer was accordingly seized at Nottingham, taken to the Tower (Oct. 1330), and executed a month afterwards; while the queen mother was imprisoned at Castle Rising, where she passed the remainder of her life. Henceforward the government was in Edward's

own hands. He immediately renewed the English attempts on Scotland, assisted Edward Baliol in his endeavour to drive out the Bruce dynasty in 1332, and invaded Scotland in 1333. In July of this year he inflicted a great defeat on the Scots at Halidon Hill; reduced the south of Scotland to submission, and caused Baliol to be proclaimed king of the portion beyond the Forth. The country, however, was far from subdued, and Edward's nominee, Baliol, was driven from his throne, and obliged to quit the country till restored by the English. In 1336 Edward again led a great expedition into Scotland, and ravaged all the south-east of the country. Meanwhile difficulties with France were arising chiefly because of the disputes between Philip of Valois and the Flemings, the interruption to the Anglo-Flemish trade, and the aggression of Philip on Aquitaine. In 1338 (July) Edward went to Flanders, engaged in an alliance with the popular chiefs who were opposed to their count, and concluded a league with the Emperor Louis V., who appointed him Vicar-General of the Empire. In the following year Edward advanced into France, but the French retreated before him. In 1340 the English fleet, commanded by the king, won a great naval battle over the French at Sluys, after which the army landed and laid siege to Tournay. A truce was concluded for nine months and Edward suddenly returned to England to effect an administrative revolution by displacing the Chancellor and Treasurer, and imprisoning several of the judges, under the impression that the corruption of the chief officials of the government had prevented his receiving the proper return from the taxes. Mistrusting clerical influence, Edward appointed a layman, Sir Robert Bourchier, Chancellor. The Archbishop of Canterbury, Stratford, came forward as the champion of constitutional liberties, and after a violent dispute, Edward summoned a Parliament, and in return for large grants agreed to confirm the privileges of the barons and clergy. In Oct., 1341, however, the king revoked the statute, confessing that "he had dissembled as he ought" owing to the pressure put upon him. He did not renew his operations in France till 1342, when he again led an expedition against France. Nothing effectual, however, was done till 1346, when Edward landed at La Hogue, in Normandy, intending to join the Flemings. But the French king, with a large army, was between him and Flanders on the right bank of the Seine. By a feint upon Paris Edward crossed the river, and advanced towards the Somme, which he also crossed near Abbeville, and then won the great victory of Crecy (Aug. 6, 1346). Advancing to Calais Edward blockaded the town, and captured it after a twelvemonth's siege. The exhaustion of his own kingdom was so great that the king was unable to follow up these successes, and returned to England after concluding a truce, which was renewed from time to time. The war began afresh in 1355. The king himself led an army from Calais but effected nothing, and was obliged to return home to repel a Scottish raid. He advanced into Scotland, laying waste the border districts with great cruelty. In France the campaign of the Black Prince in the south-west was signalised by the splendid victory of Poictiers, and the capture of the French king, John (Sept. 19, 1356). During the truce that followed, the Scottish king, David, taken prisoner at Neville's Cross (Oct. 17, 1346), was released, and peace was made with Scotland. In 1359 Edward again invaded France, and laid waste Champagne. In 1360 (May 8) peace was made at Bretigny, and the English obtained Gascony and Guienne, with the counties of Saintonge, Perigord, Limoges, Cahors, besides Calais, and a sum of three million marks as ransom for the French king. The treaty, however, was not carried out, and the war continued at first in Britanny, and afterwards in the south, where Aquitaine and Guienne were gradually recovered by the French, so that at the end of Edward's reign little remained of all his conquests but Calais and Bordeaux.

The later years of Edward's reign were passed in a state of partial retirement from public affairs. Old before his time, and worn out by the fatigues of his toilsome career, Edward resigned himself to the influence of his mistress, Alice Perrers, and allowed the government to be largely carried on by John of Gaunt. Of the struggles between the baronial and clerical parties, and between the reforming party in the Good Parliament, who looked to the Black Prince, and the Lancastrians, the king was an almost passive spectator. In 1376 Edward the Black Prince died, and the king was called upon by the Parliament to take action against papal and clerical encroachments. This, however, he refused to do. The following year saw the influence of the Lancastrians restored, and a Parliament elected under their influence, which reversed all the measures of the Good Parliament. In 1377 the old king, who had now lost all consideration and influence, died almost alone, having been deserted by nearly all his relatives and attendants before his death. The splendid military exploits of Edward's reign in later times threw a false glamour round his reign. But though military glory was the ambition of his life, there is little reason to credit him with much skill as a general. His successes were due to the splendid fighting material at his command rather than to his strategical or tactical ability. Nor can he be said to merit the name of statesman. He was neither great as an administrator nor a legislator. His financial management was so bad that he was constantly overwhelmed by debt, his conquests were transient and ill-con-

ceived; and he altogether failed to realise the gravity of the constitutional and social crisis which was coming to a head in his reign. And though anxious to shine as the ideal champion of chivalry, he was both cruel and treacherous.

Robert of Avesbury, *Chronicle* (printed by Hearne); Knyghton (printed in Twysden, *Scriptores Decem*; Walter of Hemingford, *De Reb. Gest. Ed. I., II., et III.*; Froissart, *Chronicle*, useful for the battles of the French campaigns, but not to be considered a thoroughly trustworthy historical narrative; Jehan le Bel, *Chroniques*; W. Longman, *Edward III.*; Pearson, *England in the Fourteenth Century*; Pauli, *Englische Geschichte*; Freeman, *Essays* (1st Series). [S. J. L.]

Edward IV. (*b.* Sept., 1442, *s.* June 29, 1461, *d.* Ap. 9, 1483), the son of Richard, Duke of York, and Cicely Neville, sister of Richard, Earl of Salisbury, was born in the castle of Rouen, when his father was Governor of France. He was brought up by Sir Richard Crofte, in the castle of Ludlow. When the Duke of York advanced his claim to the crown in 1460, the young Earl of March was sent to gather troops on the Welsh borders. There he heard the news of his father's defeat and death at Wakefield on Dec. 21. He hastened northwards, but was pursued by Jasper, Earl of Pembroke, on whom he turned, and inflicted a crushing defeat at Mortimer's Cross, near Wigmore, on Feb. 2, 1461. The advance of Queen Margaret's lawless northern troops excited the fear of the Londoners. Edward, therefore, on marching to London, was hailed as king on March 4. Joined by his cousin Richard, Earl of Warwick, he hastened northwards, and met the Lancastrian army at Towton, where he won a bloody battle on March 29. He returned to London, and was crowned on June 29. The Parliament, which met in November, recognised Edward IV. as succeeding to the rights of Richard II., and attainted Henry VI. of high treason. The youth, the handsome appearance, the geniality, and the practical vigour of Edward IV. made him at once popular, and gave every expectation of a prosperous reign. Queen Margaret, with foreign help, still held out in Northumberland; but the victories of Hedgeley Moor and Hexham in 1464, and the capture of Henry VI. in 1465, seemed to secure Edward IV. on the throne, and the Commons recognised the fact by granting him tunnage and poundage for life. But the young king imperilled his position by an imprudent marriage with the Lady Elizabeth Grey of Groby, the widowed daughter of a Lancastrian baron, Richard Woodville, Lord Rivers, who had married Jacquetta of Luxemburg, widow of his former master, the Duke of Bedford. This marriage displeased the Earl of Warwick and the Nevilles, who had planned a Burgundian or French alliance, which would have secured Edward IV.'s throne from foreign attacks in aid of the Lancastrians. The marriage was celebrated secretly in May, 1464, and was not declared till Sept. 29. Soon Edward IV. showed an intention of raising his wife's relations to power as a counterpoise to the Nevilles, who tried to keep him dependent on themselves. The breach between the king and the Earl of Warwick rapidly widened, and in 1467 there was an open rupture. Warwick wished for an alliance with France, but Edward IV. turned to Burgundy, and promised the hand of his sister Margaret to the young Duke Charles the Bold. The king's brother, the Duke of Clarence, followed the usual policy of the heir presumptive, and sided with Warwick. The hopes of the Lancastrians revived. Edward IV.'s popularity had gone, and in 1469 there was a rising in the north of discontented peasantry, led by "Robin of Redesdale." The Duke of Clarence declared his alliance with the Earl of Warwick by marrying his daughter Isabella. Warwick and Clarence joined the malcontent Commons in pressing for reforms. Edward IV. was unprepared for resistance, and was made prisoner by Archbishop Neville. But Warwick saw that a division between the Yorkists meant the success of the Lancastrians. Edward IV. was released, and a pacification was made. In March, 1470, there was a rising in Lincolnshire, headed by Sir Robert Wells, which Edward IV. put down with promptitude and sternness. At the same time he gained proofs that Warwick and Clarence were plotting against him. They fled to France, and entered into negotiations with Queen Margaret. Edward IV. showed unexpected carelessness, and when, in Sept., 1470, Warwick landed in England, Edward IV. was not prepared to meet him. Finding himself deserted on every side, he fled to Flanders, and a Lancastrian restoration was easily accomplished. Gathering a few troops, Edward IV. landed on March 14, 1471, at Ravenspur, where Henry of Lancaster had landed in 1399. Like him, he declared at first that he had only come to claim his ancestral possessions, the duchy of York. Soon he was proclaimed king, and pressed on to Coventry, where Warwick was stationed. Warwick, advised by Clarence to await his arrival with reinforcements, refused to give battle. Clarence betrayed his father-in-law and joined his brother, who hastened to London. Warwick pursued, and a bloody battle was fought at Barnet on Easter Day (April 14, 1471), in which Warwick was slain. The victorious king then turned against Queen Margaret, who had landed at Weymouth. He overtook her forces at Tewkesbury, where he again conquered on May 4th, and treated his captives with ruthless severity. On May 21st Edward IV. returned in triumph to London, and on the same night Henry VI. died in the Tower. Edward IV. was now rid of his enemies. The Lancastrian claimants were destroyed, the powerful nobles had fallen,

Edward IV. was secure upon the throne, the people were weary of war, and there was no one to oppose the will of the king. Edward IV. used his victory as a means of extortion. He gathered large sums of money, and his obsequious Parliament granted him large supplies. He obtained money by benevolences, and was a skilful beggar. One day he called on a rich widow, who gave him £20 for his pretty face, and doubled the sum when he gave her a kiss. The professed object for which he gathered money was a war against France. He allied himself with Charles of Burgundy, and revived the old claim of Edward III. on the French crown. In July, 1475, he led an army to Calais. The expedition was a failure. The Duke of Burgundy was engaged elsewhere, and did not join him. He sent him a message to advance to St. Quentin; when Edward IV. arrived there, he was greeted by a fire from the walls. Indignant at such treatment, he listened to the overtures of Louis XI., who was willing to pay a large sum for the friendship of England. The English nobles were open to the bribes of France, and a truce for seven years was concluded, on condition that Louis XI. paid 75,000 crowns, gave Edward IV. a pension of 50,000 crowns, and betrothed the Dauphin to Edward IV.'s daughter Elizabeth. The two kings met, Aug. 29th, on the bridge of Pecquigny, which was divided by a lattice-work into two halves. There the peace was sworn, and Edward IV. returned inglorious to England. Edward IV.'s policy of peace was, however, wise for England. Commerce flourished, and the king himself was a successful merchant. He was given to pleasure, and loved magnificence. His court was disturbed by the quarrels of his brothers, the Dukes of Clarence and Gloucester. Clarence was wayward, and at last Edward IV. resolved to rid himself of his troublesome brother. Before a Parliament, which was summoned in 1478, Edward IV. accused Clarence of many offences, chiefly of plotting with the Lancastrians in 1470. Clarence was attainted, and met his death in the Tower. For the next five years there was no Parliament. Edward IV. preferred to raise money by stretching his prerogative to the utmost. The disturbed state of Scotland under James III. gave Edward IV. some hope of extending his power in that direction, and the Duke of Gloucester was sent with an army to help the Duke of Albany against the Scottish king. No permanent result was gained. Nor was Edward IV. more successful in his scheme for founding a strong dynasty by means of family alliances. He projected marriages for his daughters, but they all failed. Louis XI. of France did not abide by the Peace of Pecquigny, but in 1483 contracted the Dauphin to Margaret of Austria, rejecting the marriage with Elizabeth of England. Edward IV. was stung by the feeling that he was regarded as an upstart by the courts of Europe. He showed signs of again reviving his military schemes, but was seized by an illness, the result of evil living, and died on April 9, 1483, in his forty-first year. He was a favourer of learned men, cultivated, and magnificent. His personal qualities made him popular to the end. But he was cruel, extortionate, and profligate. The death of Clarence shows that he was without natural feeling, and had all the coldheartedness of a selfish libertine. In the wickedness of his private character he is rivalled only by John amongst the kings of England.

The best contemporary authorities are William of Worcester; John Walworth; Robert Fabyan, Philippe de Commines; *The Paston Letters* (with Mr. Gairdner's valuable introductions). Later writers:—Habington, *Life of Edward IV.*, in Kennett; Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.*; Pauli, *Englische Geschichte*, vol. v.; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*

[M. C.]

Edward V., King (*b.* Nov. 4, 1470, *r.* April 9—June 22, 1483, *d.* 1483), the eldest son of Edward IV., was created Prince of Wales in 1471, and in 1479 Earl of Pembroke. In 1482 he was sent to Ludlow, in the Welsh Marches, being under the guardianship of his uncle, Earl Rivers, and attended by other members of the Woodville party. He was at Ludlow when his father died, and almost immediately set out for London. On April 29 he reached Stony Stratford, where he was met the next day by the Duke of Gloucester, who had arrested Lord Rivers and Lord Richard Grey at Northampton. The king renewed his journey under Gloucester's charge, and reached London on May 4. The Council seems to have already recognised Richard as Protector, and the coronation was fixed for June 22. The young king was lodged in the Tower, his mother having taken sanctuary at Westminster on hearing of the arrest of Rivers and Grey. On June 13 Hastings was arrested and executed, and about the same time Rivers and Grey were beheaded at Pontefract, whither they had been taken by Richard's orders. Shortly after this the queen was compelled to deliver up the young Duke of York to Richard, who sent him to join his brother in the Tower. The king's deposition seems now to have been determined upon. On June 22, Dr. Shaw, brother of the Lord Mayor, delivered a sermon at Paul's Cross, in which he insisted that Edward V. and his brother were illegitimate, Edward IV. having been married, or at all events betrothed, to Lady Eleanor Butler previously to his marriage with Elizabeth Woodville. On the 25th a deputation of nobles and citizens of London waited on Richard, offering him the crown, which he accepted, and the next day began to reign as Richard III. Meanwhile, the two young princes remained in the Tower, where, at some time between June and October, they

were certainly put to death by their uncle's orders. The mystery in which this crime was involved has led many writers to doubt whether the murder actually took place, but it must be remembered that even on the supposition that Richard, Duke of York, escaped, Edward must have been murdered, and it would have been the height of folly for Richard III. to have put one of his nephews to death and allowed the other to escape. Nor are the murderers likely to have done their work so badly as to have suffered the escape of a boy, who, even if not taken by surprise, would have been utterly unable to resist them. Mr. Gairdner, who has thoroughly investigated the whole circumstances of the case, sums up the details of the murder thus: "Some time after Richard had set out on his progress (August, 1483), he sent a messenger named John Green to Sir Robert Brackenbury, the Constable of the Tower, commanding him to put his two young nephews to death. This order Brackenbury would not obey, and Green returned to his master at Warwick. Richard was greatly mortified, but sent one Sir James Tyrell to London, with a warrant to Brackenbury to deliver up to him for one night all the keys of the Tower. Tyrell thus took the place into his keeping, and engaged the services of Miles Forest, one of those who kept the prince's chamber, and John Dighton, his own groom, to carry out the wishes of the tyrant. These men entered the chamber when the two unfortunate lads were asleep, and smothered them under pillows; then having called Sir James to see the bodies, buried them at the foot of a staircase." The details of the murder were obtained from a confession made by Sir James Tyrell in 1502, when he was imprisoned in the Tower on a charge of treason, and there is no reason for doubting its substantial accuracy; in addition to which, the story was corroborated by a discovery made in the reign of Charles II., when, under the staircase leading to the chapel in the White Tower, the skeletons of two young lads, whose apparent ages agreed with those of the unfortunate princes, were found buried.

Holinshed, *Chronicles*; Hall, *Chronicles*: More, *Life of Edward V.*; J. Gairdner, *Reign of Richard III.*; Miss Hasted, *Richard III.*; and the essay on Richard III. in Pauli, *Aufsätze zur Englischen Geschichte.*

[S. J. L.]

Edward VI. (*b.* Oct. 12, 1537, *s.* Jan. 28, 1547, *d.* June 21, 1553), was the son of Henry VIII. and Jane Seymour, and was born at Hampton Court. He was carefully educated under the attention of reforming divines, and became a zealous adherent of the new views of religion. By the will of Henry VIII. he succeeded to the throne under the regency of a council of sixteen members, most of whom were Reformers; and, in defiance of the will, the king's uncle, Edward Seymour, Earl of Hertford, afterwards Duke of Somerset, obtained for himself the title of Protector, with the practical control of the government. In religious matters the young king was willing to second the reforming projects of Cranmer, and willingly assented to the publication of the new Liturgy in the Prayer Book of 1549, and the Act of Uniformity. As early as 1542 a plan had been set on foot for the marriage of Edward with the infant Princess Mary of Scotland; and it was partly in order to force this marriage upon the Scots that Somerset undertook the expedition in 1549, which culminated in the fruitless victory of Pinkie. The ill-success of Somerset's policy, both in home and foreign affairs, brought about his fall. The king, who had chafed at the studious and retired life to which the Protector compelled him, easily yielded to the influence of the Earl of Warwick, afterwards Duke of Northumberland, and was probably no unwilling actor in the series of events which established the latter's ascendency. Edward, though, as his literary remains show, he now took a lively interest in public affairs, was still studious and much interested in religious matters. In 1552 Cranmer issued a revised Liturgy, known as the Second Prayer Book of King Edward VI., and the Forty-two Articles, which were of a thoroughly Protestant tendency. [Articles.] Meanwhile Edward's health was failing. He was always delicate, and his health, it is said, had been greatly injured by Warwick's removal of him to Windsor in 1550. Convinced of the necessity of preserving the Protestant settlement, he allowed himself to be persuaded by Northumberland to alter the settlement of the crown as arranged in Henry VIII.'s will, and to make a will excluding Mary and Elizabeth from the succession in favour of Lady Jane Grey, the daughter of Henry's niece, Frances, Countess of Suffolk, and daughter-in-law of Northumberland, which was subscribed by the Privy Council, June 21, 1553. Then Edward failed rapidly, and on July 6 died, Northumberland being supposed by many people to have hastened the end by poison. There is, however, no authentic evidence to confirm the suspicion. Edward would seem to have had much of the Tudor talent and some of the Tudor vices. His abilities were considerable. He was an accomplished scholar for his age, and his writings show a sagacity altogether beyond his years, and giving great promise for the future.

Nicholls, *Literary Remains of Edward VI.*, 1857; Tytler, *Hist. of Eng. under Edward VI.*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*

[S. J. L.]

Edward VII. (*b.* Nov. 9, 1841, *s.* Jan. 22, 1901, *d.* May 6, 1910), eldest son of the late Queen Victoria. Educated at both Oxford and Cambridge, he visited Italy in 1859, America in 1860, Germany in 1861, Turkey and Egypt in 1862, and the Emperor of the

French at Fontainebleau in the same year. In 1871 his life was imperilled by an attack of typhoid fever, and his recovery, in February, 1872, was celebrated by a National Thanksgiving Festival. Between Nov. 8, 1875, and March 13, 1876, he was visiting India. He married, March 10, 1863, Alexandra, daughter of Christian IX., King of Denmark. His eldest son, the Duke of Clarence, died Jan. 14, 1892, at the early age of 28. His second son, the present King—George V.—(*b.* 1865) married Princess Victoria Mary of Teck, in 1893. Their eldest son, Edward Albert, Duke of Cornwall, was born in 1894. King Edward visited Berlin in 1885, on the occasion of the eighty-eighth birthday of the Emperor William I. In 1886 he proposed the foundation of the Indian and Colonial Institute, as a fitting memorial of Queen Victoria's Jubilee. In 1888 he was again in Berlin, as a guest at the marriage of Prince Henry of Prussia. Next year his eldest daughter, Princess Louise of Wales, was married to the Duke of Fife. In 1894 he went to Russia, in company with Queen Alexandra, being summoned to the deathbed of the Emperor Alexander III. In 1896 his second daughter, Princess Maud of Wales, was married to Prince Charles of Denmark. In 1897 he inaugurated "The Prince of Wales's Hospital Fund," in commemoration of Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee. In 1898, while visiting Baron F. de Rothschild at Waddesdon Manor, he fractured his knee-cap. On April 4, 1900, at the height of the anti-British feeling excited on the Continent by the Boer War, an attempt was made upon his life in the Brussels Railway Station.

He succeeded to the throne on the death of Queen Victoria, Jan. 22, 1901. His legal title differed in important particulars from that of any of his predecessors, and for that reason is noted hereunder. He reigned as "Edward VII., by the grace of God of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and of the British dominions beyond the seas, King, Defender of the Faith, Emperor of India." In June, 1902, King Edward's Coronation had to be postponed nearly at the last minute owing to his seizure by serious illness, which necessitated a surgical operation. The operation was performed with success, and the Coronation took place on August 9, amid all possible signs of enthusiasm. The King commemorated the event by presenting Osborne House to the nation. In 1903 the King paid important visits to several Continental States, to Portugal and Italy in April, to France in May, and to Austria in August; President Loubet in July, and the King and Queen of Italy in November, returned these visits. The interchange of courtesies between the King and President Loubet was happily symptomatic of improved relations between Great Britain and France, evidence of which has been afforded by the Anglo-French Agreement (April, 1904). During 1903 the King also visited Scotland and Ireland. In 1904 the King paid another visit to Ireland, and the same year he was entertained by the German Emperor during the progress of the Kiel Regatta. In 1905 the King again met President Loubet in France. In 1908 the King exchanged visits with the French President, M. Fallières, and afterwards dined at the English Embassy in Paris. Later in the same year he paid a much discussed visit to the Czar of Russia, and in 1909 entertained the Czar in England. In 1909 also (November) he received the young King Manuel of Portugal. In March, 1910, the King stopped at Paris *en route* for Biarritz, and exchanged visits with the French President. Whilst at Biarritz he caught a slight cold, but on his return to London, April 27, he seemed to have quite recovered. On May 5, it was announced from Buckingham Palace that the King had for two days been suffering from bronchitis, and on May 6 he died.

Edward THE ATHELING (*d.* 1057) was the son of Edmund Ironside, and on the death of his father, in 1017, he was sent first to Sweden, and afterwards to Hungary. Here he lived under the protection of King Stephen, whose niece, Agatha, he married. In 1055 Edward the Confessor sent for him as being the nearest heir to the throne, and Edward came to England in 1057, but died almost immediately after he had landed. He left three children—Edgar the Atheling, Margaret, and Christina.

Anglo-Saxon Chron.; Freeman, *Norman Conquest.*

Edward THE BLACK PRINCE (*b.* 1330, *d.* 1376) was the eldest son of Edward III. and of Philippa, and was born at Woodstock, June 15, 1330. He was created Duke of Cornwall in 1337, and Prince of Wales in 1343. When only sixteen years of age he was in nominal command of one of the divisions of the English army at Crecy, and throughout the French wars he played an important part. In 1355 he commanded the army which invaded south-eastern France. The next year, marching northwards, he met and defeated the army of King John (Poictiers, Sept. 19, 1356). In 1361 he married Joan, the "Fair Maid of Kent," and in 1362 was created Duke of Aquitaine, and received as his patrimony the possessions of the English crown in the south of France, the government of which he assumed in 1363. In 1367 he undertook an expedition into Spain, to assist Don Pedro of Castile in regaining the throne of which he had been deprived by Henry of Trastamare, aided by the French. Assisted by a large body of the Free Companies, he crossed the Pyrenees at the head of 30,000 men, and

at Navarrete the Black Prince won the third of his great victories, and completely defeated Pedro's rival, Prince Henry, with his French allies under Du Guesclin. But the prince's army rapidly wasted away by sickness, and with his own health fatally impaired, he was compelled to recross the Pyrenees. On the breaking out of war once more between England and France in 1369, Edward took Limoges by storm, and mercilessly put to death all the inhabitants, without distinction of age or sex. In 1371 he returned to England, and began to take a prominent part in English politics as the champion of the constitutional policy against the corrupt court and Lancastrian party. He took a large share in originating the measures of the "Good Parliament" of 1376, though by his death (June 8 of that year) the work was to a great extent undone. The prince was a gallant soldier, but his victories were probably due to the great superiority of his troops over the enemy rather than to his own generalship. Though full of the spurious knight-errantry of the day, he was mercilessly cruel in his campaigns. But in his later years he showed some understanding of the political difficulties in England, and was very popular with the Commons.

Froissart, *Chronicle*; Jehan le Bel, *Chroniques*; Pauli, *Der Schwarze Prinz*, 1869; Pearson, *Hist. of Eng. in Fourteenth Century*; Longman, *Edward III.* [S. J. L.]

Edward, son of Henry VI. (*b.* 1453, *d.* 1471), was the only child of the king by Margaret of Anjou. In 1454 he was created Prince of Wales; the Yorkists asserting that he was either a bastard or a changeling. After the battle of Towton, he accompanied his mother to Scotland. In 1470 he married Anne Neville, daughter of the Earl of Warwick. In 1471 he fell in the battle of Tewkesbury, or was put to death immediately afterwards; but the story that he was stabbed by Richard of Gloucester rests on no good authority.

Edward, son of Richard III. (*b.* 1473, *d.* 1484), was the only child of this king and Anne Neville. In 1477 he was created Earl of Salisbury, and in 1483 Prince of Wales and Earl of Chester, and appointed Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland. In February, 1484, the members of the two houses of Parliament took an oath to support his succession to the throne, but two months afterwards he died.

Edwin (Eadwine), King of Northumbria (616—633), was the son of Ella, King of Deira. Having been exiled by Ethelfrith he took refuge with Redwald of East Anglia. After the death of Ethelfrith, he obtained possession of the two kingdoms of Deira and Bernicia, the sons of Ethelfrith having fled to Scotland. He conquered the little British kingdom of Elmet, obtained suzerainty over Man and Anglesey, extended his kingdom to the Firth of Forth, and founded Edinburgh, which derives its name from him. His most powerful rival was Cwichelm of Wessex, who attempted his assassination. This project failed, and Edwin defeated him in 626; but Penda having made Mercia independent of Northumbria, in alliance with the British prince Cædwalla, defeated and slew Edwin at Heathfield in 633. Edwin's reign is chiefly important for the conversion of Northumbria to Christianity. His second wife was Ethelburh, daughter of Ethelbert of Kent, who brought with her Paulinus the bishop, and their influence, aided by Edwin's escape from assassination and his victory over the West Saxons, was the means of his conversion. He was baptised at York by Paulinus, who was made the first archbishop of that see. So great was the peace and tranquillity of Northumbria under Edwin, that it was said that a woman with her new-born babe might have travelled from sea to sea without sustaining injury.

Bede, *Ecclesiastical History.*

Edwy (Eadwig), King (955—959), was the son of Edmund, and succeeded to the throne on the death of his uncle, Edred. The account of his reign in the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* is extremely meagre, and subsequent writers who attempt to supply details evidently write with strong prejudice. What we can gather for certain is that his brother Edgar was appointed sub-king of Northumbria and Mercia; that in 957 he made himself practically independent of Edwy; that he was the enemy of Dunstan, and the vigorous opponent of his policy, and that of the ecclesiastical reformers. His marriage with Elgiva was uncanonical, and seems to have occasioned general discontent. In 958 Odo, the archbishop, divorced them, and the next year Edwy died—whether murdered or not it is impossible to decide. Ethelward tells us that "he was called by the common people the second Pankalus, meaning all-beautiful," and that he was "much beloved." On the other hand, John of Wallingford, a thirteenth century chronicler, says of Edwy: "He loved the peace of this world, which panders to all vices, and is the mere ape of virtue, and to it he limited his tastes. For he was given to the pleasures of the flesh, was negligent, loved only those who favoured his excesses, and hated the good." This is a fair specimen of the way he is spoken of by the monkish historians, who, having taken Dunstan as their hero, naturally regarded Edwy as the type of all that is bad; the king evidently opposed "the policy which strove everywhere to substitute monks for secular canons." [Dunstan.]

Anglo-Saxon Chron.

Egbert, King of the West Saxons (800—836), was born about 775. On the death of Cynewulf, he laid claim to the throne, but Brihtic was elected, and he fled to Offa, King

of Mercia. Thither the vengeance of his rival followed him, and he took refuge at the court of Charles the Great. A close friendship arose between the two, and Egbert modelled his career on that of his benefactor. In the year that Charles was crowned Emperor at Rome, Egbert, in his absence. was elected, on the death of Brihtic, to the throne of Wessex. He returned to England, and at once set himself to win for himself a superiority over the island, as Charles had established a dominion on the Continent. The greater part of his reign was spent in a struggle with Mercia, a contest which began before his return to assume the crown, and culminated in a great victory over Beornwulf at Ellandune (823), after which he annexed the little kingdoms which had become Mercian dependencies, and four years later the great kingdom itself was reduced. The smaller kingdoms of East Anglia, Kent, Essex, and Sussex had previously submitted to him without a blow, and shortly afterwards Northumbria, a prey to internal dissensions, owned his overlordship. Having thus founded the Kingdom of England, Egbert set himself to reduce the Welsh, and was as successful as he had previously been over the Celtic inhabitants of Cornwall. Over the Celts north of the Dee, however, his power did not prevail. In this year he assumed the title of *Rex Anglorum*, but he never, like Charles, ventured to aspire to Imperial honours. Towards the end of Egbert's reign an old enemy, the Danes, began to re-appear. In 835 he won over them and the Cornish Welsh a great battle at Hengestesdun, which for the time checked their invasions. Almost uniformly successful in war, Egbert displayed a wise moderation in confining his efforts to the acquisition of a great independent monarchy.

Anglo-Saxon Chron.; Lappenberg, *Anglo-Saxon Kings*; Robertson, *Hist. Essays*; Freeman, *Norman Conquest.* [L. C. S.]

Egfred (Ecgfrith), King of Northumbria (670—685), was the son and successor of Oswy. The chief interest of his reign lies in his relations with St. Wilfred (q.v.). He was defeated by Ethelfred, and compelled to restore Lindsey. He undertook an expedition against Ireland, and after having conquered Cumberland, was slain by the Picts at the battle of Nectansmere (685).

Egypt, Relations with. The series of events which issued in the establishment of a British Protectorate over this part of the dominions of the Sultan of Turkey may be said to have begun with the sale to Great Britain by the Khedive Ismail, in 1875, of 177,000 shares in the Suez Canal for £4,000,000. An inquiry into the finances of the country consequent upon this transaction showed that they were deeply involved, and a dual English and French control was created. In 1882 the English and French war-ships were sent to Alexandria to overawe Arabi Pasha, who had defied Ismail's successor, Tewfik, and on the 11th of July, the French vessels having been withdrawn, the British Admiral bombarded and then occupied the city. Shortly afterwards Arabi was defeated at Tel-el-Kebir and deported to Ceylon, and since then Egypt has been governed under British supervision—an arrangement which has led to much friction with France. [Gordon, Chas. G.; Soudan.]

Eldon, John Scott, 1st Earl (*b.* 1751, *d.* 1838), was born of humble parents at Newcastle-on-Tyne. At school he evinced such remarkable ability as to awaken the interest of a wealthy neighbour, who assisted in sending him to Oxford. He obtained a fellowship at University College, and was called to the bar in 1776. He rose rapidly, and was assisted by the friendship of Lord Thurlow. In Parliament he warmly opposed Fox's East India Bill, and on Pitt's accession to office, gave him really important support. In 1788 his services were rewarded by his appointment as Solicitor-General. In 1793 he became Attorney-General, and in that office he found ample employment in the prosecutions which were shortly afterwards instituted against Horne Tooke and other supposed revolutionary characters. In 1799 he succeeded Eyre as Chief Justice of the Common Pleas, and was raised to the peerage as Baron Eldon. When Pitt, two years afterwards, resigned on the Catholic Question, Lord Eldon accepted the Great Seal at the king's express desire, and while holding that office he gained the entire confidence of George III. On the accession to power of Fox and Lord Grenville he resigned, but again became Lord Chancellor in 1807. For the next twenty years he remained in uninterrupted possession of the woolsack. He warmly took the part of the Duke of York in 1809, and vigorously opposed alike any relaxation in the severities of the penal code and any concessions to the Roman Catholics. On the question of Regency, in 1811, Lord Eldon incurred very warm censure from Lord Grey, for having on several occasions forged the king's signature, when the king was himself incapable of signing his name. On the Prince of Wales becoming Regent, Lord Eldon soon ingratiated himself with his new master by taking a very decided part against the Princess Caroline. In 1814 he became an object for the vengeance of the mob in the Corn Law Riots. As the outcry for Catholic Emancipation became stronger, he more strongly than ever opposed the measure; and when Canning became Prime Minister (1827) he resigned the seal to Lord Lyndhurst. He never held office again. though to the very last he continued to oppose the measures of the Whigs. As a judge, Lord Eldon holds high rank, and contributed much towards making our system of equity into a perfect whole. Sir H. Maine calls him

"the first of our equity judges who, instead of enlarging the jurisprudence of his court by indirect legislation, devoted himself through life to explaining and harmonising it." His great fault was his hesitation in deciding cases, the result being an enormous increase in the cost of litigation, and a general feeling among the public that Chancery proceedings were interminable. But the country owes a debt of gratitude to him for having instituted the office of Vice-Chancellor, and thus relieving the stagnation on the Chancery side.

Twiss, *Life of Eldon*; Campbell, *Lives of the Chancellors*; S. Walpole, *Hist. of Eng. from 1815.*

[W. R. S.]

Eleanor of Aquitaine (*b.* 1122, *d.* 1204) was the daughter of William, Count of Poitou, and heiress not merely to that province, but also to Saintonge, Auvergne, Perigord, Angoumois, Guienne, and Gascony. In 1137 she was married to Louis VII. of France, thereby uniting the south with the north of France. With him she went on the Second Crusade, and her conduct on the expedition and subsequently was so light, that in 1152 she was divorced from Louis, though the nominal ground for the separation was consanguinity. In the same year she married Henry of Anjou, who, two years later, became King of England. From him she became gradually estranged, and in 1173 encouraged her sons to rebel against their father, for which she was seized and imprisoned, and remained in captivity, with but short intervals, for sixteen years. On her husband's death, she was released by Richard, and made regent of the kingdom in his absence; and during his reign she did all in her power to repress the ambition of John and thwart the designs of Philip Augustus. She collected the ransom for Richard, and herself conveyed it to Germany. At Richard's death, she came forward again as John's chief adviser. She used her influence to exclude Arthur, and took command of the army that reduced Anjou to submission, and subsequently went to Spain to fetch her grand-daughter, Blanche of Castille. To the last moment of her life she was engaged in political affairs, and shortly before her end was striving hard to keep to their allegiance the English barons, while Philip Augustus was attacking Normandy.

Benedict of Peterborough, *Chronicle* (Rolls Series); Lyttelton, *Life of Henry II.*

Eleanor of Britanny (*d.* 1241) was the daughter of Geoffrey Plantagenet and Constance, Duchess of Britanny. After the death of her brother Arthur, she inherited his claim to the English crown, but was kept a prisoner by John in Bristol Castle, where she remained for many years, till she was permitted to retire to the nunnery at Amesbury.

Eleanor of Castile (*d.* 1290), wife of Edward I., was the sister of Alfonso IV. of Castile. At her marriage with Edward in 1254, her brother renounced his pretensions to Gascony. She accompanied her husband on his crusade, and legend said saved his life by sucking the poison from his wound, and was crowned with him in August, 1274. Her amiable character made her greatly beloved by the people. If the least complaint of oppression came anyhow to her ears, she endeavoured to redress the wrong, and her large revenues were so administered that no oppression by her officers was possible. On her way to join her husband on his expedition to Scotland, she died at Grantham in November, 1290. Her body was conveyed to Westminster, and at each place where the funeral procession halted a richly-carved cross was erected. Thirteen in all of these crosses were raised, but only three, those at Northampton, Geddington, and Waltham, remain.

Strickland, *Lives of the Queens of England.*

Eleanor of Provence, Queen (*d.* 1291), wife of Henry III., was the daughter of Raymond Berenger, Count of Provence. The marriage of Henry and Eleanor took place in 1236, and the young queen almost immediately obtained a complete ascendency over her husband, which she used for the purpose of advancing her friends and relatives. Her uncle, Boniface of Savoy, was made Archbishop of Canterbury, and other important offices were conferred on the queen's numerous relatives, who drained the land by their rapacity and extortion. Still, the Provençal marriage was not without its good results. Provence was at this time the most cultured state in Europe; literature and the arts flourished, and the court was the chosen residence of the troubadours and scholars of Europe. Some of this culture found its way into England, but it hardly compensated for the great unpopularity which this influx of foreigners brought on the king and queen. A quarrel with the citizens of London on account of a heavy duty which she insisted they should pay her as queen on all ships unladen at Queenhithe, and the rigorous exaction of "queen gold," only increased the general hatred of her. During the king's absence from England in 1253 she was appointed Keeper of the Great Seal, and actually sat as a judge in the Court of King's Bench. In 1286 the hatred of the Londoners against her culminated, and it needed a considerable military escort to conduct her in safety from the Tower to Windsor. In the Barons' War, which she more than any one had helped to bring about, she showed great determination and courage, and after the battle of Lewes had to take refuge in France. After the fall of De Montfort, she returned, and had her revenge on the citizens of London, who were fined 20,000 marks for their conduct towards her. Soon after Edward I.'s accession she

retired to the convent of Amesbury, where she died in 1291.

Royal and Hist. Letters of Reign of Henry III. (Rolls Series); Pauli, *Englische Geschichte*; Blaauw, *Barons' War*.

Eleanor, daughter of King John (*d.* 1274), was married first to William Marshall the Younger, and in 1238, secondly, to Simon de Montfort. This latter marriage seems to have been a secret one, and quarrels soon arose between Henry and De Montfort concerning it. After the death of her husband at Evesham (1265), Eleanor retired to France and entered the nunnery of Montargis, where she remained till her death.

Elections, PARLIAMENTARY, are held in virtue of writs issued either by the crown for a new Parliament, or in cases of vacancy while the House is in session out of Chancery by the Speaker's warrant by order of the House. These writs are addressed to the sheriffs. Until 7 Hen. IV. the sheriff had to make the return in person in forty days. The election was made in full county court, at the next meeting of the court after the writ was received. It appears that some persons were specially summoned to the election, for at the beginning of the fifteenth century the county court was no longer generally attended by great people. Much irregularity seems to have prevailed in the election of knights of the shire during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. Sometimes a crowd of the lower class attended the court; sometimes the election was made by a few great people or their stewards; sometimes it was managed by lawyers or interested persons, and often the sheriff ordered matters as he liked. To secure the return being in accordance with the election, it was ordered by 7 Hen. IV., c. 15, that it should be attested by the persons electing in an indenture attached to the writ. The indenture, however, was only signed by a few of those who attended the court, and it seems that sometimes the electors chose certain of their number to exercise the common right of voting. When this was the case, the delegates signed on behalf of the whole body. Elections for cities and boroughs were formally made in the county court under the Plantagenet kings. The obligation of payment of members' wages caused the towns to be anxious to escape from representation. When the electors of a borough had made their choice, it was reported to the sheriff in the court. In case they failed to elect, he caused members to be chosen from them along with the knights of the shire. The ceremony which came in later times to be called the nomination, and to be incorrectly regarded as something different to a mere preliminary of the election, was the ancient election itself in the county court. If more than one candidate was proposed, the election was decided by a show of hands. As a seat in Parliament became an object of ambition, the custom arose of taking a poll of other electors who might not at the time be present at the court. A poll was taken only when demanded, and it was at first incorrectly regarded as an act of grace on the part of sheriffs to grant the demand. There was no limit to the time during which the sheriff might keep open the court for the purpose of the poll, save the date on which the writ was returnable. Polling in the eighteenth century sometimes lasted for a month, and in cases in which great efforts were made to secure a seat, the whole period was filled with drunkenness and riot. The disgraceful scenes which marked the Westminster election, 1784, resulted in an Act, 25 Geo. III., c. 84, limiting a poll to fifteen days, and ordering that the scrutiny of votes should be closed six days before the return was made. In the ninth year of George IV. this period was shortened to nine days in the case of boroughs; by 2 Will. IV., c. 45, to two days both in borough and county elections, and by 16 and 17 Vict., c. 15, to one day in both. By 35 and 36 Vict., c. 33, the Ballot Act [BALLOT], a poll follows a disputed nomination as a matter of course, without being specially demanded. The use of voting papers in university elections, provided for by 24 and 25 Vict., c. 53, still continues.

Disputed Elections were, up to the time of Henry IV., decided by the crown. From 1410 inquiry as to the accuracy of the sheriff's return was made by the judges, the ultimate decision still remaining with the crown. The House gained the right of deciding these questions at the close of the sixteenth century. In 1553 a committee of the House decided against the validity of the election of Nowell, a prebendary of Westminster. It successfully upheld its right of judgment in these matters against the will of Queen Elizabeth in 1586, in the Norfolk election case, and in 1604, in the case of Sir F. Goodwin, obtained from the king the admission that it was the proper judge of returns. This jurisdiction was exercised at first by committees specially appointed, and then by the Committee of Privileges and Elections. It became the custom to admit members who were either privy councillors or barristers to this committee, though not nominated to it. From this cause the committee, by the end of the seventeenth century, was held to be open; and for the sake of orderly management these cases were soon tried at the bar of the House. Election petitions were thus decided by a trial of the strength of contending parties, without regard to the facts of the case. To remedy this evil, the *Grenville Act*, 1770, provided for the election of a committee (by a mixed system of ballot and selection) for the adjudication of election cases. Although this Act effected an improvement in the practice of the House, it still left election questions within the area of party politics, and by allowing either party to

strike out a certain number of the names chosen by ballot, to commit the decision of these cases to the weakest men of both sides. By the *Election Petitions and Corrupt Practices Act*, 1868, 31 and 32 Vict., c. 125, these questions were placed under the jurisdiction of the Court of Common Pleas, as far as concerns the facts of an election which has been questioned by *petition*. Such petition must now, by this Act, be presented to the Common Pleas Division of the High Court of Justice, and the corresponding courts in Scotland and Ireland. A judge of these courts tries the petition in the county or borough to which it refers. After he has heard the case, he makes a report to the Speaker as to the validity of the election, the prevalence of corrupt practices, the knowledge of the candidate concerning such practices, and the names of those who are guilty of them. The House then acts on the report in the same way as it would have acted on the report of an election committee. It has thus not surrendered its constitutional right of deciding questions involving the right to its seats; but has merely made over the investigation of some of them to a Court of Law.

Corrupt Practices at Elections.—These, besides direct bribery, include treating and undue influence of various kinds. By the Corrupt Practices Act, 1868, if the judge reports particular persons as guilty of such practices, the report is laid before the Attorney-General, who institutes a prosecution against them at his discretion, without the intervention of the House. If the report declares that such practices have extensively prevailed in a constituency, the House generally suspends the writ, and if the report is confirmed by further inquiry, disfranchises the constituency by Act of Parliament. The various acts which imply undue influence or corruption were carefully defined by the *Corrupt Practices Act of* 1883, and very stringent penalties enacted against principals as well as their agents found guilty of these practices. [Bribery.] The House is very strict as regards influence, and in 1641 and 1802 made declarations to the effect that any interference in election matters by peers was a breach of privilege. From the scope of the latter declaration Irish peers elected for a seat in the House are exempt. [In practice, Peers take part until the writ is issued, and frequently lend conveyances for voters.] To secure the freedom of election, an Act (10 and 11 Vict., c. 21) orders that soldiers shall be restrained in barracks during the day of a poll, except for the purpose of voting or on necessary duty.

Electors.—When the influence of feudalism on the constitution was destroyed, the lesser tenants-in-chief were merged in the general body of freeholders. In the Parliament of Edward I. the Commons did not consist of the lesser tenants of the crown mentioned in the Great Charter, art. 14, but of representatives elected by the freeholders in counties, by certain electors in boroughs, and by the clergy. In *counties*, the original electors were those who composed the county court in which the election was held. By the end of the fourteenth century it seems that many came to, and took part in, an election who were not suitors of the court. While an Act of 1406 restrained the undue power of the sheriff in making returns, it did not give the freeholders the sole right of election. This was not secured until 1430, (8 Hen. VI., c. 7), and was then limited to a part of them. This Act declares that elections are wont to be made "by persons of small substance and no value," and limits the right of voting to resident holders of free land of the clear annual value of 40s., and two years after it was enacted that the qualifying freehold should lie within the county. By these statutes the quality of tenure, and not the quantity of interest, was regarded. For instance, a life estate in a freehold above the specified value conferred a qualification, while no estate in copyhold could do so, even though it were one of inheritance; and copyholders were expressly excluded from the franchise by 31 Geo. II., c. 14. The franchise in *cities and boroughs* before 1832 was not determined by any general statute, but by special acts. by charters, or by usage. Thus in London, the parliamentary franchise followed the municipal, and was exercised at different periods by representatives of the wards, by the common councilmen, and by the liverymen of the companies. The exclusive policy of corporations tended to restrict the franchise in most chartered boroughs, so that ultimately a co-optative oligarchy alone had any voice in the election. In some others it had a popular character, and, in default of any contrary usage or charter, belonged to inhabitant householders, or else, as in Bristol, which was a county of itself, to the 40s. freeholders. Borough franchise, indeed, was altogether a matter of local law. The representation of the *clergy* was the same in extent and mode as in the election of proctors for Convocation (q.v.). *University* representation was established by James I., and in this case the right to vote has belonged to all who by their degree constitute the governing body of the Universities, even though non-resident. By the *Reform Act* of 1832, 2 Will. IV., c. 45 [Reform; Representation], the qualification was extended in counties so as to include (1) copyholds, of which persons were seised either in law or equity, either of inheritance or for life, of the clear annual value of £10. (2) Leaseholds, for the unexpired portion of a term of sixty years of the annual value of £10, or of a term of twenty years of the annual value of £5. It also created (3) an occupation qualification for a tenant of lands, &c., at a clear rent of £50, paid yearly. While, however, it preserved the qualification conferred (4) by

freeholds of inheritance, it provided that freehold estates for life, of which the annual value was less than £10, should not confer a vote, unless there was *bona fide* occupation, or where such freeholds had been acquired by marriage, devise, &c. As regards cities and boroughs, the Act retained some rights permanently, *e.g.*, those of the freemen and liverymen of London, of freeholders and burgage tenants in cities which were also counties, &c. Some rights were retained temporarily, as those of freemen and burgage tenants in boroughs, of inhabitant householders, &c., and the franchise was extended in favour of the sole occupiers of any premises of the annual value of £10. In Scotland, the county franchise was fixed (2 Will. IV., c. 65) at a £10 ownership, and included some classes of leasehold. The borough franchise included £10 householders. In Ireland at the time of the Catholic Emancipation Act, the qualification in counties was raised from a 40s. to a £10 freehold. In 1832 it was extended by the admission of certain leaseholds and £10 copyholds. By the *Reform Act* of 1867, 30 and 31 Vict., c. 102, the franchise stood thus—in counties, (1) the old 40s. freeholders in fee; (2) the holders of a life estate from 40s. to £5, if of freehold tenure and with occupation; (3) of any life estate above £5; (4) of the remainder of a lease of sixty years of the value of £5; (5) occupiers of land, &c., for twelve months, rated at not less than £12; (6) occupiers whose rent is assessed at £50. In cities and boroughs it was extended to (1) all resident householders or rated occupants of dwelling-houses, after payment of one year's rates; (2) all rated occupants of premises other than houses, of the value of £10; (3) all who have for twelve months been in the separate occupation of the same lodgings, which are, if unfurnished, of the yearly value of £10. The lodger franchise has, by 41 and 42 Vict., c. 26, been declared to include an office, studio, shop, &c. A change of apartments in the same house is not held to be a change of lodgings. In Scotland, by 31 and 32 Vict., c. 48, the franchise is granted, in counties, to a £5 ownership and a £14 occupation. A household and a lodger franchise were also fixed in boroughs. In Ireland, by 13 and 14 Vict., c. 69, an estate in fee or for life of the annual value of £5, or an occupation of the value of £12, conferred a vote for a county, and a rated occupation of £8 for a borough election. By the *Irish Reform Act*, 1868, a household occupation rated at £4 and a lodger franchise of £10 were created in boroughs. In 1884, Mr. Gladstone introduced a *Reform Bill* applying to the whole of the United Kingdom, and assimilating the franchise in counties with that in boroughs. By this measure, which was followed in 1885 by a Redistribution Act, the franchise was granted to (1) all resident male householders or rated occupants of dwelling-houses; (2) lodgers; (3) certain persons not occupying separate tenements or apartments, but living in houses occupied by others, who were to vote under what was called the "service franchise." Disqualification under all the reform bills attaches to females, aliens, infants, &c., to all peers except such Irish peers as have been elected to a seat, to certain revenue officers, to those in receipt of parochial relief, and to some few others. [The disabilities of the police were removed in 1887.] Irish Catholics were admitted to the franchise in 1793, on taking the oaths of allegiance and abjuration. In 1829, Mr. Peel, among other measures of Catholic Emancipation, carried a new form of oath, by which Catholics were enabled to vote without doing violence to their convictions. And, finally, by 5 and 6 Will. IV., c. 36, all electoral oaths are done away. Every one claiming to exercise a right to vote for a member of Parliament must see that his name is *registered* in a list drawn up by the overseers of the parish in which his qualification lies. These lists are afterwards revised in open court by *revising barristers*, who decide on objections and claims. An appeal lies to the Common Pleas from the decision of these officers.

Persons Elected.—During the fourteenth century, the terms of the writs which specified the condition of men who were to be elected were constantly varied. Efforts were made to procure the election of "belted knights," or at least of squires of good position, as county members, and of men of the higher class of burgesses for borough members; and to exclude sheriffs, lawyers, and "maintainers of quarrels." It was important that the representatives of the Commons should be of a rank which would make them independent of crown influence or of private advantage. Notwithstanding these efforts, it was often found impossible to secure men of the position required by the writs. The exclusion of the clergy in 1371 was the result of special circumstances. Lawyers were several times excluded (*e.g.*, 1402) because it was thought they took advantage of their position as members to forward the interests of their clients. By 1 Hen. V., c. 1, residence was declared a necessary qualification. This statute was, however, constantly disregarded, and is expressly repealed by 14 Geo. III., c. 58. A qualification in real estate was adopted 9 Anne, c. 5, and was fixed at £600 a year for county, and £300 for borough members. By 1 and 2 Vict., c. 48, personalty might be reckoned in making up the required sum, and now by 21 and 22 Vict., c. 26, all property qualification is abolished. Disqualification attaches to females, aliens, infants, &c., to all peers, except Irish non-representative peers, to clergy of the Church of England (by 41 Geo. III., c. 63), to Roman Catholic clergy (by 10 Geo. IV., c. 7), to sheriffs and other returning

officers as regards their own sphere of office, to government contractors, bankrupts, and those convicted of felony or of corrupt practices at elections under the Acts on that subject. Persons holding certain places of profit under the crown, which do not include those of the various ministers and officials at the head of the great departments of the State, were disqualified by 6 Anne, c. 7. In most cases, pensions held during pleasure entail disqualification. The Catholic Relief Bill, 1829, admitted Roman Catholics to Parliament on taking a special oath provided for such cases. Jews were shut out from the House by the terms of the Parliamentary oath until 1858, when the oath was so altered that they were able to take it. [Oaths.] By the 29 and 30 Vict., c. 19, religious disabilities were removed, the sole condition of admission to the House of a member not otherwise disqualified being that he take the oath prescribed by that statute. From this obligation Quakers and some other religious bodies have been exempted, and by an Act of 1888 the relief was extended to persons of no religious belief.

Carter's *Rogers on the Laws of Elections*, ed. 1880; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, ch. xv., xx.; May, *Const. Hist.*, ch. vi., xiii.; May, *Parliamentary Practice*.

Elfgar (Ælfgar), son of Leofric, was made Earl of East Anglia on the outlawry of Harold in 1051, but in the next year, Harold being restored, he lost his earldom. In 1053 he once more received the earldom. In 1055 he was banished, when he allied himself with the Welsh, but was compelled to submit by Harold, who restored him to his earldom. On the death of Leofric he was made Earl of Mercia. In 1058 he was again outlawed, and again pardoned. He died probably in the year 1062, and was succeeded in his earldom by his son Edwin. His daughter Aldgyth married (1) Griffith, Prince of North Wales, and (2) Harold.

Anglo-Saxon Chron.; Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, ii. 161.

Elgin, James Bruce, 8th Earl of (*b.* 1811, *d.* 1863), entered Parliament as member for Southampton in the Conservative interest in 1841. In 1842 he resigned his seat in the Commons on being appointed Governor-General of Jamaica. In 1846 he was sent to Canada and carried out the conciliatory policy of his father-in-law, Lord Durham. He was raised to the English peerage with the title of Baron Elgin. From Canada he went to China as special ambassador, and successfully negotiated the Peace of Tientsin after the capture of Canton and the rout of the Celestials. In 1859 he entered Lord Palmerston's cabinet with the office of Postmaster-General. In consequence, however, of the refusal of the Chinese to receive his brother, Mr. Bruce, as envoy in accordance with the treaty, he was sent again to sustain English authority, and was once more completely successful (1860). He was shortly afterwards appointed to succeed Lord Canning as Governor-General of India, where he died. His son and successor in the title, Victor Alexander, Earl of Elgin, was Governor-General of India, 1894–99, and Secretary for the Colonies, 1905–8.

Elgiva (Ælfgifu) was the wife of King Edwy (q.v.). As she was within the prohibited degrees, Dunstan and Odo endeavoured to get Edwy to divorce her, and at length, in 958, this was done.

Eliot, Sir John (*b.* 1592, *d.* 1632), a member of an old Cornwall family, was educated at Exeter College, Oxford, and studied law in London. In 1614 he entered Parliament as member for St. Germans, and at once rose into prominence as one of the foremost orators of the time. In 1623 Eliot came forward as one of the prominent champions of constitutional rights. In the Parliament of 1625 he was strongly in favour of putting into execution the laws against the Roman Catholic recusants. In the second Parliament of Charles I. (1626) Eliot was the recognised leader of the constitutional party. He moved an inquiry into the mismanagement of the government, and was foremost in demanding that the conduct of Buckingham should be investigated. In consequence (May 11, 1626), he was imprisoned in the Tower, but set at liberty after a few days. In 1627 Eliot was one of those who, with Hampden and Wentworth, refused to contribute towards the forced loan levied by the crown, and was imprisoned in the Gatehouse. In the Parliament of 1628 he was again foremost in the attack on royal misgovernment, and bore the chief share in drawing up the Remonstrance and Petition of Right. On the dissolution of the Parliament he was imprisoned in the Tower (March, 1629). He was kept in confinement, and his health was broken by the harsh treatment he received, and on Nov. 27, 1632, he died. During his imprisonment he wrote a treatise called *Monarchy of Man*, which embodied his views on the theory of constitutional monarchy. Eliot was one of the ablest as well as the most estimable of the popular leaders of Charles I.'s reign. "Great as his intellectual powers were," says Mr. Gardiner, "it was not by mere force of intellect that he won his way to distinction. It was the moral nature of the man, his utter self-forgetfulness, which made him what he was."

J. Forster, *Sir J. Eliot*; S. R. Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng.*, 1603—42, v. 186, &c. [S. J. L.]

Elizabeth, Queen (*b.* Sept, 7. 1533, *s.* Nov. 17, 1558, *d.* March 24, 1603), the daughter of Henry VIII. by his second wife Anne Boleyn, was born at Greenwich. On the death of her mother, she was

sent to the castle of Hunsdon, where she and her half-sister Mary were brought up by Lady Margaret Bryan. Afterwards she shared the studies of her half-brother Edward, who became greatly attached to her. On the accession of Edward VI., she was committed to the care of Catherine, the Queen Dowager, who soon married Thomas Seymour, the brother of the Protector, Somerset. Thomas Seymour showed that he nourished ambitious schemes, and he was suspected of using the opportunities which his marriage gave him of trying to win the affections of Elizabeth. Catherine died in 1548, and Thomas Seymour's conduct towards Elizabeth was one of the charges brought against him, and was the subject of a rigorous inquiry, in which the young girl conducted herself with great dexterity. Seymour was beheaded, and Elizabeth was closely watched at Hatfield. Here she pursued her studies under the direction of William Grindal and Roger Ascham, and acquired a reputation for learning. In the plot of Northumberland to secure the throne for the Lady Jane Grey, Elizabeth took no part, and on Mary's accession, was treated by her with consideration. The Imperial ambassadors doubted about Elizabeth, and Mary worked hard for her conversion to Romanism. Elizabeth judged it wise to give way, and on Sept. 9, 1553, attended the mass. As Mary's marriage project with Philip of Spain advanced, her suspicions of Elizabeth increased, and in December Elizabeth left the court, and retired to Ashridge, in Buckinghamshire. Mary wished to marry Elizabeth to Edward Courtenay, but Courtenay refused. Wyatt's rebellion brought Elizabeth and Courtenay into suspicion. Elizabeth was arrested in Feb., 1554, and was thrown into the Tower. Every effort was made to obtain evidence against her, but without success. In May she was released, but was committed to the care of Sir Henry Bedingfield, and was sent to Woodstock. Philip of Spain, on his arrival in England, showed more consideration towards Elizabeth. He wished to marry her in such a way as to promote his own political plans. First, a marriage with the Duke of Savoy was proposed, and in April, 1555, Elizabeth was summoned to Hampton Court, whence, at the end of the year, she went to Hatfield. It needed all her cleverness to escape the marriage with the Duke of Savoy, which would have sent her away from England. When this was abandoned, there came a proposal for Eric of Sweden, son of Gustavus Wasa, which was also refused. Elizabeth in her early days found herself surrounded by snares. She learned to trust no one, to act circumspectly, to assume an ambiguous attitude which did not commit her to anything definite, and to be prepared for any emergency. Mary on her death-bed, Nov. 6, 1558, nominated Elizabeth as her successor, in the hope that she would maintain the Roman Catholic religion. Philip of Spain trusted that he would find in Elizabeth a complaisant ally. When Elizabeth succeeded to the crown, on Nov. 17, 1558, she had already gained a large experience of the world and the difficulties which beset her. She never forgot that her position must be maintained by herself alone, and that her interests were not those of any particular party or system. She never laid aside her skill in balancing herself between opposing parties and husbanding her resources so as to profit by their mistakes.

At the accession of Elizabeth England was without money and without resources, and was engaged on the side of Spain in war with France. Philip II. wished to maintain the English alliance, and offered his hand to Elizabeth. But the marriage with Philip needed a dispensation from the Pope; and Paul IV. was under the influence of France. He was ready to impugn the legitimacy of Elizabeth. Whatever doubts she might have had about her policy on her accession, she soon saw that the defence of Protestantism at home and peace with France abroad were necessary for her own security. Her first measures were directed to a religious settlement. In this matter she reverted to her father's plan: freedom of the English Church from the supremacy of the Pope, and from beliefs and practices which were unknown to the primitive Church, but a retention of its Catholic foundation. This plan suited neither the Calvinists nor the adherents of the old faith. But Elizabeth appointed a committee of divines to revise the Prayer Book of Edward VI., and Parliament in 1559 re-established the royal supremacy, approved the revised Prayer Book, and enforced its use by the Act of Uniformity. Many of the bishops refused obedience, and were deprived of their sees. The new Archbishop of Canterbury, Matthew Parker, was the chief helper of the queen in carrying out her ecclesiastical policy, and a body of commissioners, who afterwards grew into the Court of High Commission, were appointed to exercise the ecclesiastical jurisdiction of the crown.

But the greatest danger that Elizabeth had to face was the fact that the next in order of succession to the English crown was Mary Queen of Scots. The party in England that was favourable to the old religion would have welcomed her against Elizabeth. Mary was supported by the influence of the Guises in France, and it was possible that Philip of Spain might unite with them to put down heresy in England. Elizabeth was urged by Parliament to marry, and she looked round for some foreign alliance. But she clearly saw the difficulties that beset her. If she married a Protestant, she would destroy the hopes of the Catholics in a peaceful accession of Mary; if she married a Catholic, her husband would either

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QUEEN ELIZABETH.

From the painting by Zucchero, at Hatfield House.

be some insignificant person, or her marriage would draw her into political combinations which would sacrifice the independence of her position. Many husbands were proposed, but she refused them all. It was thought that her personal preference was for Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester; but she abstained from a marriage which would be unpopular and politically useless. She used marriage projects as means of political temporising, to a degree which was often ludicrous. She encouraged in her court a fantastic devotion to her person, and gloried in the title of the "Virgin Queen." The progress of the Reformation in Scotland gave Elizabeth a means of strengthening herself against Mary. In Jan., 1560, she entered into the Treaty of Berwick, by which she undertook to aid the rebel lords in expelling the French, who, under the queen regent, Mary of Guise, garrisoned Edinburgh. She was rewarded by the withdrawal of the French, and the agreement that Mary and Francis II. should lay aside their pretensions to the English crown. In Dec., 1560, Francis II. died, Mary refused to sign the Treaty of Edinburgh, and in Aug., 1561, landed in Scotland, the avowed agent of the policy of the Guises. For the next few years the history of England centres round the secret war which was waged with feminine astuteness between the two queens. Elizabeth wished Mary to resign her claim to the English succession, offered her an alliance, and agreed to recognise her as successor. Mary refused to give up her claim for a doubtful boon. She hoped to win back Scotland to Catholicism, and looked about for a husband who would help her. When, in 1565, she married Darnley, it was a great blow to Elizabeth, who aided Murray and the rebel lords, but afterwards disavowed them. The birth of a son to Mary still further strengthened her position; but the murder of Darnley and the marriage with Bothwell destroyed Mary's hold on Scotland, and relieved Elizabeth from some anxiety. Mary's flight to England in 1568 placed Elizabeth in a difficult position. She could not make common cause with rebels against their queen, and thereby give a dangerous example; she could not restore Mary to the Scottish throne against the wish of her subjects; she could not leave Mary at large in England to be a centre for Catholic plots; and she did not wish to send her to France, where she would be an instrument in the hands of the Catholic party. The "Casket Letters" (q.v.) were used to blacken Mary's character; she was refused an interview, and was kept in confinement in England. It was not a magnanimous policy, but it was characteristic of Elizabeth's caution. Still, Mary as a prisoner was powerful for mischief. There was a plan to marry her to the Duke of Norfolk, and there was a dangerous rising in the north in favour of the old religion. The Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland advanced to Durham, and ordered the mass to be celebrated in the cathedral. But the Catholics as a body did not rise; the rebellion was put down with severity by the Earl of Sussex, and England at the end of 1569 was again peaceful.

In 1570 Pope Pius V. proceeded to the excommunication of Elizabeth, and religious strife was consequently aroused in England. Parliament in 1571 retaliated by repressive measures against the Catholics. It was declared high treason to call the queen a heretic or to name her successor. The Established Church was more vigorously set up as a standard of orthodoxy, and Catholics and Puritans were alike required to conform. The scheme for the liberation of Mary and her marriage with the Duke of Norfolk was revived by foreign aid. A Florentine, Ridolfi, negotiated between the English conspirators and the Pope and Philip II. Supplies were to be furnished from abroad, and the Duke of Alva, from the Netherlands, was to help with 10,000 men. The plot, however, was discovered by the vigilance of Burleigh, who had succeeded in organising the intelligence department of the government into great efficiency. The Spanish ambassador was dismissed from England; the Duke of Norfolk was imprisoned, and afterwards beheaded on June 2, 1572. Philip II. was prevented by the affairs of the Netherlands and the doubtful condition of France from taking any steps against England for the time, and from 1572 to 1576 England was left in peace.

In 1576, Philip II.'s half-brother, Don John of Austria, was sent as governor to the Netherlands. He was ambitious of invading England and marrying Mary of Scotland. He failed, however, to pacify the Netherlanders, and his failure led to his untimely death through disappointment. To obtain foreign help, the Netherlands welcomed as their prince the brother of the French king, the Duke of Anjou. Negotiations were long continued for the marriage of the Duke of Anjou to Elizabeth, which would have marked an alliance of England and France against Spain. If Elizabeth could have been certain of securing this end, she would have consented to the marriage. As it was, she affected great coyness as a means of gaining time. Her doubts were justified. The Duke of Anjou failed in the Netherlands, because he tried to override the constitution. Elizabeth saw that there was no hope of a firm alliance with France. In England she was exposed to the incessant plots of the Catholic party, who tried to raise Ireland against her. In 1579 James Fitzmaurice, brother of the Earl of Desmond, landed with Spanish troops, and took possession of the Fort of Smerwick, near Kerry. It was instantly besieged by the deputy, Lord Grey de Wilton, and was driven to surrender, whereon the Spaniards were massacred by a body of

troops under the command of Sir Walter Raleigh. Hatred of Spain had become a principle in the minds of Englishmen, and their attempt on Ireland was mercilessly put down. More active than soldiers were the Jesuit missionaries, who, in 1580, were sent to England to revive the spirits of the Catholics. With unflinching boldness and great dexterity they travelled about England, and organised the Catholic party. Chief of these Jesuits was Campian, who was taken prisoner and put to death for conspiring against the queen. The Catholics were severely persecuted, and the Protestant spirit of England was quickened by perpetual suspicion. A plot to assassinate Elizabeth, of which Francis Throgmorton was the chief agent, was discovered in 1584, and again the Spanish ambassador was ordered to quit England. The sentiment of loyalty to the person of Elizabeth grew strong among the people, and a voluntary association was formed for her defence. Its members undertook to prosecute to death all who should attempt the queen's life, or in whose behalf such attempts should be made. This was a threat against Mary, whose death was thus sure to follow immediately on the assassination of Elizabeth.

Meanwhile, the hostility between England and Spain was becoming more and more apparent. France, under the pressure of the religious wars, had admitted Spanish influence, and had withdrawn all appearance of help from the Netherlands. Elizabeth found it wise to send help to the Netherlands, but she sent as little as she could. She never believed that they would make good their stand against the Spanish power, but with a niggardly hand she helped them to prolong their struggle. In the end of 1585 the Earl of Leicester was sent to Holland with English troops. Leicester did little more than besiege Zutphen, and Elizabeth negotiated with Spain, and was ready to betray the Netherlands if thereby she could have secured peace. Philip II., however, was irritated against England, both on account of the help sent to the Netherlands, and still more on account of the damage done to Spanish trade in the West Indies by the piratical raids of Sir Francis Drake. A Spanish invasion of England was imminent, and plots against Elizabeth's life were resolutely carried on. At the end of 1586, a plot, contrived by Antony Babington, was discovered by the Secretary, Sir Francis Walsingham. He allowed it to proceed till he had obtained evidence which implicated Mary of Scotland. Then Babington was executed, and a commission was appointed to try Mary, who was found guilty. For a long time Elizabeth hesitated to put Mary to death. At last she signed the warrant, but gave no orders that it should be carried into effect. Mary was beheaded in February, 1587, and Elizabeth professed that it was done without her knowledge. She tried with characteristic duplicity to free herself of personal responsibility, but England rejoiced that it was rid of one who was such a fertile source of danger and disturbance.

Mary's death brought the Spanish invasion nearer. So long as Mary lived, Philip II. was bound to fight in her name; on her death he put forward his own claim to the English crown. A raid of Drake on Cadiz, in April, 1587, stirred Philip II. to greater indignation. In May, 1588, a large fleet, known as "the Invincible Armada," set sail for England. Its huge ships were ill-suited to the task. The preparations for a junction with ships from the Netherlands failed. The Armada was thrown into disorder by the smaller and swifter craft of the English. A storm completed its discomfiture, and England was saved from a landing on its shores. During the days of peril Elizabeth showed great courage, and addressed in stirring words the volunteers who gathered at Tilbury. She was personally brave, and knew how to deal with her people. The defeat of the Armada gave an impulse to English seamanship, which had been growing rapidly during Elizabeth's reign. Then for the first time the English showed those qualities which have secured for them the mastery of the sea. An aggressive war against Spain was rapidly planned, and the Portuguese were urged to revolt from Philip II. In 1589 an expedition was undertaken against Lisbon, which failed in its main object, but convinced the English that Spain was not such a formidable foe as they had thought. From this time English privateers cruised the Spanish main and crippled the Spanish trade. Sir Walter Raleigh was energetic in urging schemes of colonisation in opposition to Spain. In 1584 he colonised Virginia, which he called after the Virgin Queen. In 1592 he penetrated to the Isthmus of Darien, and in 1595 to Guiana. Though little was done at the time, the way was prepared for future efforts.

Spain was beaten back both in France and in the Netherlands, and Elizabeth, in her old age, was inclined to peace. But the martial ardour of England was aroused, and the Earl of Essex was eager to distinguish himself. In 1596 an expedition was made against Cadiz, which was sacked by Essex. Next year he and Raleigh set out on what was known as "The Island Voyage," which was a failure, owing to quarrels between the two commanders. Elizabeth and Burleigh were more and more desirous for peace. But troubles broke out in Ireland, where Hugh O'Neil, Earl of Tyrone, gathered together the tribes of Ulster, and surprised the Fort of Blackwater. In Ireland, Elizabeth found occupation for the energy of Essex, whose ambition was boundless and whose popularity was great. But Essex, contrary to his orders, entered into negotiations with Tyrone, and concluded peace. When he returned to England in

1599, he was called to account for his conduct. He had many enemies, and was disgraced, being confined as a prisoner in his own house. At last, trusting to his popularity, he made a desperate rising, in the hopes of getting the queen into his hands. The people refused to follow him. He was taken prisoner, found guilty of high treason, and beheaded in February, 1601. Elizabeth sorely felt the necessity of putting Essex to death, and never quite recovered from her grief. As she grew old she missed the homage of her people. The expenses of the Irish war forced her to apply to Parliament for money, and Parliament attacked the royal grants of monopolies. Elizabeth gave way with good grace, and her last years saw the defeat of Tyrone's forces by Lord Mountjoy, in 1602. Elizabeth had a growing feeling of want of sympathy between herself and the new generation which she had fostered. Her last days were unhappy, and she died in March 23, 1603, after indicating the King of Scotland as her successor.

Elizabeth lived in perilous times, and the fortunes of England were curiously interwoven with her personal security. She found England discouraged, disunited, and poor; she left it with a strong national spirit, prosperous, and resolute. Her policy was shifty, but her means were scanty. She knew how to choose wise advisers, but she never entirely trusted them. She knew how to play upon human weakness, and she was better served at smaller cost than any other sovereign. England, in her reign, made great advances in every way, and then first assumed the chief characteristics which still distinguish it. Though many of Elizabeth's doings were unworthy, she never forgot the interests of her people, and she never lost their affection. It is her greatest praise that her objects were those of her people, and that England prospered under her rule.

Camden, *Hist. of Elizabeth*; Naunton, *Fragmenta Regalia*; Sir John Harrington, *Nugæ Antiquæ*; *Calendar of State Papers*; Strype, *Life of Parker*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*; Green, *Hist. of the English People*; Wiesener, *La Jeunesse d'Elizabeth d'Angleterre*, trans. by Miss Yonge; Aikin, *Court of Queen Elizabeth*.

[M. C.]

Elizabeth Woodville, Queen, wife of Edward IV. (*b. circa* 1431, *d.* 1492), was the daughter of Sir Richard Woodville (afterwards Earl Rivers) by Jacquetta of Luxemburg, widow of John, Duke of Bedford. She married first, about 1452, Sir John Grey, son and heir of Lord Ferrers of Groby. He died in 1461, leaving her with two sons, Thomas, afterwards Marquis of Dorset, and Richard. The Woodvilles and the Greys were alike strong partisans of the Lancastrian cause, and on the accession of Edward IV. the widow of Sir John Grey was deprived of her inheritance, and obliged to remain at her father's house at Grafton in Northamptonshire. Here she made the acquaintance of Edward IV., who privately married her in 1464. During the period of Lancastrian supremacy, on the flight of Edward IV. and the restoration of Henry VI., Elizabeth took refuge in sanctuary, and here her son Edward was born. On the death of her husband she had once more to take sanctuary. In 1484, she was induced to leave her retreat, and went, with her remaining children, to Richard. There can be little doubt that she connived at Richard's scheme for marrying her eldest daughter Elizabeth; but this plan Richard was obliged to give up, and after the battle of Bosworth Elizabeth gladly wedded her daughter to the victor Henry.

Elizabeth of York, Queen, wife of Henry VII. (*b.*1465, *d.* 1503), was the daughter of Edward IV. and Elizabeth Woodville. After being almost betrothed to Richard III. she was married to Henry VII.

Ella (Ælle) (*d.* 517?) was the founder of the kingdom of Sussex. He is said to have come (in 477) with his three sons, Cymen, Wlencing, and Cissa, to Cymenesora, which is identified by Lappenberg with Keynor in Selsea. He fought a great battle with the Britons, the issue of which was doubtful. Having obtained reinforcements, he captured the great fortress of Anderida (q.v.) in 491, and destroyed the British power in Sussex. Ella is said to have reigned forty years, and to have been succeeded by his son Cissa. [Bretwalda.]

Bede, *Hist. Ecclesiast. Anglor.*; *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*.

Ellandune, The Battle of (823), was fought between the Mercians, under Beornwulf, and the West Saxons, under Egbert, and resulted in a total rout of the former. It has been identified with Allington, near Amesbury, in Wiltshire.

Ellenborough, Edward Law, Earl of (*b.* 1790, *d.* 1871). He was the son of Lord Chief Justice Ellenborough, and entered Parliament in 1814; but removed to the Upper House on succeeding his father as Baron Ellenborough in 1818. In 1841 he accepted the Governor-Generalship of India. Under his adminstration in that country was accomplished the expedition into Afghanistan, under Generals Pollock and Nott, which resulted in the recapture of Ghuzi and Cabul. The conquest of Scinde by Sir Charles Napier, in 1843, was also undertaken by Lord Ellenborough's government, but his policy did not meet with the approval of the Court of Directors, and in 1844 he was recalled by that body. The Duke of Wellington, however, defended Lord Ellenborough's policy in Parliament, and on his return home he was created an earl.

Elmet was the name of a little British kingdom situated between Leeds and York, which retained its independence till it was

conquered by Edwin, and annexed to Northumbria about 625.

Elmham, Thomas of (*d. circa* 1426), was a monk of St Augustine's, Canterbury, and afterwards Prior of Leyton, in Nottinghamshire. He wrote a *Life of Henry V.*, and a *History of the Monastery of St. Augustine's* from 596 to 1191. Both these works have been printed in the Rolls Series.

Elphinstone, Mountstuart (*b.* 1779, *d.* 1859), was sent to India as a writer in 1795. In 1801 he was appointed assistant to the Resident at Poonah. He was present at Assye. After the war he became British Resident at Nagpore. In 1807 he was sent on a mission to Cabul. In 1810, on his return, he was appointed Resident at Poonah. He fought the battle of Kirkee in 1817, when Bajee Rao attacked the British Residency. In 1818 he was appointed Commissioner of the Poonah territory; and he became Governor of Bombay in 1819. In 1827 he returned to England. In 1834 he was offered the Governor-Generalship, but refused. The rest of his life was uneventful, and he died peacefully in his eightieth year.

Kaye, *Indian Officers;* Elphinstone's *Memoirs* (1884).

Ely, The Isle of, was originally an oasis in the midst of the marshes of Cambridgeshire and the fen land. It owes its chief fame to the great abbey which was founded there by St. Etheldreda in 673. In 970 it was refounded by Ethelwoid, Bishop of Winchester, and settled with Benedictines, having been, a hundred years previously, destroyed by the Danes. It was here that Hereward formed his Court of Refuge, which in 1071 was taken by William the Conqueror. In 1108 Ely was made the seat of a bishopric by Henry I. After the battle of Evesham and the surrender of Kenilworth, some of the barons escaped to Ely, but their stronghold was taken by Prince Edward in 1267.

Emancipation, Catholic. [Catholic Emancipation.]

Emancipation, Negro. [Slave Trade.]

Emigration, in its restricted sense, is used for the departure of persons from a country with a highly organised society and thick population to settle in one with abundance of uncultivated soil. The word is opposed, nevertheless, to colonisation, which implies rather the first settlement in a new land, whereas emigration signifies that the country of which it is the object has already made some advance in civilisation. Hence emigration in its proper sense cannot be said to have systematically begun in England previous to 1815, on the termination of the great war with the French Empire. In that year the number of emigrants was only 2,081; in the following year it had increased to 12,510, and it was 34,987 in 1819. The average annual number of those who emigrated in the ten years from 1825 to 1834 was 50,304; from 1835 to 1844 it was 75,923, thus showing a steady rise, though there was a drop during the first half of the latter decade. During the five years ending 1853 the average rose as high as 323,002, an exceptional rate, probably due to such extraordinary causes as the Irish famine, the gold discoveries in Australia and California, and the development of the resources of America through the adoption of free trade in England. The average sank to nearly a half during the Crimean War, and in 1860, when the struggle between the Northern and Southern States was raging, the total was only 91,770. In 1870 it was 256,940; in 1880, 332,294, the increase being chiefly Irish emigrants. In 1893 the number was 307,633, which depression in the colonies and America reduced by one-half in 1896; in 1908 there were 386,411 emigrants (these figures include foreigners in transit *viâ* British ports). The countries to which our emigration is chiefly directed are British North America, the United States, Australia, and South Africa. The first of these was in favour until 1835, after which the outbreak of the Canadian rebellion, the preference of the enormously increasing number of Irish emigrants for American institutions, together with other and more general causes, turned the scale; nor is it probable that even the recent legislative restrictions on immigration into the States will soon equalise numbers which in 1908 were respectively 198,321 and 95,428. It should be observed that the Scotch emigrate less readily than the other inhabitants of the British Isles; the numbers in 1908 were 172,982 English, 38,352 Irish, and 42,273 Scotch. The fact that emigration was pioneered by the movements of whole communities driven forth by religious persecution, and bound for unknown and uncivilised lands, is the main cause of the tendency of earlier emigration to base itself on organised schemes. Thus Wakefield's scheme of combined emigration had its prototypes in the Pilgrim Fathers, and afterwards in the ill-fated Darien expedition. Now, however, such precautions are generally unnecessary, except when dealing with a pauperised and helpless class like the Western Irish. All that need be done is to provide for the safe and cheap transit and reception of individuals. This first responsibility was placed in 1831 in the hands of the *Emigration Commission*, part of whose duties was to distribute useful information, which is now done by the Emigrants' Information Office. It was regulated by law in various *Passengers Acts* providing for the comfort and protection of emigrants, the first of which was passed in 1835, and those now in force in 1855 and 1863. The welfare of settlers is watched over in the colonies and the United

States by government immigration agents, who supply all information free of cost. State emigration has been frequentiy adopted as a relief for pauperism, notably by the *Poor Law Amendment Act* of 1834, and the *Irish Land Act* of 1880. On the other side, the colonies have offered advantages in order to secure manual labour. The graver dangers of the introduction into our colonies of inferior rac- s, such as the Chinese into Australia and British Columbia, have been met by legislation.

Wakefield, *Art of Colonisation*; Sir G. C. Lewis, *Government of Dependencies*; Goldwin Smith, *The Empire*; Knight, *Political Cyclopædia*. Sound statistical and general information can be obtained from the *Statesman's Year Book*, the *Colonial Office List*, the *Imperial Institute Year Book*, and the Handbooks and Circulars published by the Emigrants' Information Office.

Emmett, Robert (*b.* 1778, *d.* 1803), an Irishman, whose unhappy fate inspired some of the finest of the "Irish Melodies" of Thomas Moore. Emmett was in sympathy with the objects of the Society of United Irishmen, and for complicity with the Rebellion of 1798 was expelled from Dublin University. He then withdrew to the Continent, but returned in 1802, and in 1803, at the head of an undisciplined mob, attempted to seize the Arsenal and Dublin Castle. He was captured, condemned for treason, and executed.

Empire, Relations with the. Cut off from the Roman Empire by the English Conquest, Britain began again to have dealings with the "world state," when Christianity and political consolidation had renewed civilisation and intercourse with the world. The Mercian overlords of the eighth century corresponded on equal terms with the great house that was soon to restore the glory of the Cæsars. Charles the Great's jealousy of Offa led to his support of the exile l Egbert of Wessex, whose accession to the West Saxon throne must have strengthened the relations of the two powers, and who may have found in the Carlovingian Empire a model for imitation. The presence of learned men like Alcuin in Charles's court had a similar tendency. The correspondence of Ethelwulf with Louis the Pious, whose granddaughter he afterwards married, kept up the connection. Athelstan's sister's marriage to Charles the Simple, and his support of Louis "Ultramarinus," continued the dealings with the Carlovingian house, even when empire had almost stepped from it. English dealings with the Saxon Emperors were still more intimate. Henry the Fowler married his son Otto to Athelstan's sister, and Giesebracht points out the similarity of Henry's power in Germany and that of the West Saxon overlords in England, and even suggests conscious imitation. With the acquisition of the Imperial dignity, Otto aspired to a far h gher power than his father. But if Henry copied Athelstan, the second coronation of Edgar at Bath as "Emperor of Britain" suggests that that monarch aspired to rival Otto's crowning by John XII. The assumption of Imperial titles by the great early English kings shows that they aimed at least at absolute equality in dignity with the Emperors. It is remarkable that under such circumstances good relations were maintained. The innumerable coincidences of law and usage between England and the Empire, though in the main instances of parallel development rather than of influence, may in some cases illustrate the effects of this constant intercourse. The Norman Conquest allied England with the Papacy, but the continuity of the national tradition soon tended to re-unite English king and Roman Emperor in a common hostility to the Hildebrandine Papacy. William I. and Henry I.'s contest with Anselm is the English reflection of the Investiture Contest. But the superior prudence of the English monarchs avoided that direct breach with the Church which was, perhaps, inevitable in Germany. Even marriage alliances, such as that between Matilda and Henry V., did not result in joining England with the Empire in its extreme measures, but rather led to the Concordat of Worms, which the agreement between Henry and Anselm had anticipated. With Henry II. begins another period of still closer relations. Henceforth the Imperial alliance becomes one of the permanent traditions of our mediæval foreign policy. Henry married his daughter to Henry the Lion, and instituted close friendship with the Guelfic house without impairing his friendly relations with the rival Hohenstaufen on the Imperial throne. In fact, Frederick Barbarossa's contest with Alexander III. necessarily produced close relations with Henry, engaged in his struggle with Becket. Only the prudence of his advisers prevented Henry being bound by his ambassadors to support Barbarossa's schismatic Pope. The Third Crusade was entered into by Frederick as by Richard I., although the English monarch had given a home to his nephew Otto after the fall of Henry the Lion had driven him from Germany. Hence the jealousy of the Emperor Henry VI., Richard's captivity on his return, and humiliating surrender of the Imperial crown of Britain to the German Emperor. Henceforth, hostility to the Hohenstaufen Emperors became the great principle of Richard's and John's foreign policy. But the battle of Bouvines put an end to the hopes of the Guelfic line, and the house opposed to England became undisputed Emperors. Gradually the strong bonds of connection were renewed, and the sister of Henry III. became the bride of Frederick II. All England watched with keen interest that Emperor's struggle with the Papacy, though Henry himself was too much bound by his papal connection and personal religious scruples to give him any help. But so long as his nephew remained alive as Frederick's

heir, Henry refused to join in the papal crusade against the Hohenstaufen. His acceptance of the Sicilian throne for Edmund of Lancaster was only when his sister's son was dead. But the great connection between England and the Empire in this reign is the election of Richard of Cornwall, Henry's brother, as King of the Romans. Though never master of Germany, Richard was yet the most powerful of the claimants during the Great Interregnum. His influence led directly to the close commercial dealings between England and the Hansa. He obtained for his brother great privileges for the Steelyard, and imported Harz miners to work the tin mines of his Cornish earldom. But with the fall of the Hohenstaufen the glory of the Empire had departed; though in its weakness, as in its strength, it adhered to its English connection. Rudolf of Hapsburg had a scheme for renewing the middle kingdom in conjunction with Edward I. Adolf of Nassau served as a hireling in the army of that same monarch; Louis of Bavaria was closely allied with Edward III. They married sisters, and had in the French king and the Avignon Popes common objects of hostility. At Coblenz, in 1338, Louis made Edward Imperial Vicar. But the quarrel for the Hainault succession broke up a friendship which Louis' weakness made unprofitable to England. Even then he found in the Englishman, William of Ockham, a warm defender of his theoretical claims. The Luxemburg house now acquired the Empire, and their alliance with France brought a new coolness between England and the Empire, that was not fully ended till Richard II. married Wenzel's sister, Anne of Bohemia. [Bohemia, Relations with.] The friendship of Sigismund and Henry V., their common religious and European policy, was a fitting crown to the mediæval dealings of England and the Empire; for after Sigismund's last assertion of the international power of the Empire at Constance, that splendid theory ceased to have any practical working. England continued the friend of the nominal Emperors, but it is with the rulers of hereditary dominions, not with the nominal Emperors, that these dealings really occurred. [Burgundy, Relations with.] Charles V., who for a time aspired to a renewal of the Imperial power, inherited not only the Imperial, but the Burgundian and Spanish alliances of England, and was thus united to her by a triple bond. Even this was sundered by the Reformation, though the old Imperial alliance may be regarded as renewed in the dealings of England with the German Protestants. With the rise of Louis XIV.'s ascendency, the Anglo-Imperial alliance is renewed, and continued with few breaks till the end of the Empire in 1806. [Austria, Relations with.]

Pauli, *Englische Geschichte*, brings out very clearly the general dealings of England and the Empire in mediæval times; Giesebracht's *Die Deutsche Kaiserzeit* and Von Raumer's *Geschichte der Hohenstaufen* may be referred to for more detailed information. [T. F. T.]

Empson, Sir Richard (*d.* 1510), was the son of a tradesman at Towcester. He devoted himself to the law, and came under the notice of Henry VII., who employed him in public duties, and especially in financial affairs. Together with Dudley, Empson was the chief agent of the illegal or quasi-legal extortion of Henry's reign. He incurred great unpopularity in consequence, and was executed with Dudley at the beginning of the next reign. [Dudley.]

Enclosures. [Common Lands.]

Engagement, The, 1647, was a name given to a compact made at Newport, in the Isle of Wight, with the Scotch Commissioners, by which Charles I. engaged to support the Covenant and the Presbyterian party; the Covenanters, on the other hand, promising to assist him against the Parliament. [Charles I.]

Englefield, The Battle of (871), fought between the English, under the ealdorman Ethelwulf, and the Danes, resulted in the victory of the former—Sidroc, one of the Danish jarls, being slain. Englefield is a village in Berkshire, about six miles west of Reading.

English Conquest of Britain, The. A close connection is discernible between the differing forms of Roman power in the island and the history of this great movement. From the cessation of that power in its temporal form sprang the conditions that gave it birth; with the introduction of the spiritual form it entered upon a new stage, whose beginning may be taken as marking not merely its complete success, but its virtual ending. As an historical landscape, therefore, it may be said to lie between the year 410, the date of the departure of the Roman officials, and 596, that of the arrival of St Augustine. But these dates enclose the darkest period of British history; next to nothing that is trustworthy has been recorded of the details of the Conquest; and notwithstanding the huge contributions that genius and scholarship have made to the subject of late years, the fraction of solid, or even probable, fact remains as meagre as ever. And our best authorities differ as widely as men can differ regarding the value and interpretation of the fragmentary and confused accounts that tradition preserved among the conquerors; between qualified acceptance and almost unqualified rejection our most masterly historical intellects are divided. Anything like an exact account is impossible.

When the authorities of the Empire parted with the trust of defending Britain they left to the inhabitants their excellent military

organisation, which had hitherto held in check or repelled the various assailants of the province. At first the Romanised Britons showed some capacity for working it from their own resources; armies of their own raising, led by chiefs of their own blood, seem to have stepped into the vacant positions, and maintained the system of defences that Rome had created in comparative efficiency. Of these, the most valuable was the line of fortresses that kept guard upon the Saxon shore, along which the most persevering, relentless, and formidable enemies of Britain, the Saxons, had been prowling in their "keels" for generations, plundering and ravaging the neighbouring lands, and possibly forming scattered settlements upon them. The liberated Britons naturally continued upon this harassed frontier the vigilance their Roman masters had before observed; and the office of Count of the Saxon Shore, hitherto perhaps the most responsible in the country, is thought to have been retained, and to have been first filled under the altered circumstances by one Ambrosius, or Emrys, whose faithful discharge of his trust appears to have won him the lavish admiration of his countrymen. It would seem that under his guidance the Britons gave some promise of ability to maintain their position.

Soon, however, the prospect darkened. The awful crisis in the history of the island which Roman valour and skill had so long kept back again approached, and the necessary warlike vigour and civil virtue for coping with it were no longer forthcoming. After a brief quiescence, the old inveterate foes of Romanised Britain swarmed again to the attack; the Picts from the North, the Scots from Ireland, descended on her towns and fields, and spread slaughter and ruin wherever they went. Above all, the German "Nook" sent forth in new abundance its untiring bands of hardy and merciless adventurers—called Saxons, Angles, and Jutes, but soon to bear the common name of English—who sailed up and down the eastern coast, and landing at unguarded places, pillaged and plundered almost unchecked. Then the loose-jointed political and military organisation of the Britons fell to pieces; civil discord paralysed the state; the struggles of rival princes—tyrants, as they were called—the rage of factions, wasted the strength of the people; famine and pestilence thinned their ranks; and the little hardihood that Roman rule had left in the native character thus missed its small measure of effect. The fitful efforts of isolated chieftains to stem the torrent of calamity having proved unavailing, it would seem that the southern Britons were tempted to try the course of making allies of one class of their assailants against the other, and applied to the Saxons for help. The Saxons came to their help, nothing loth, and so got within the defences of the Saxon Shore, secured their footing in the land, and after driving back the Picts and Scots, quickly found a pretext for turning their arms against their hosts, and wrested from them a considerable share of the soil they had come to defend.

Whether such was the actual form of the event or not, we may accept as an historical fact that in the middle of the fifth century (450, 449, or earlier), an alien race of German origin seized upon a part of south-eastern Britain with the fixed purpose of keeping it, and thus set an example which, cheerfully and promptly followed by their kinsfolk, led to the complete transfer from a substantially Celtic to a substantially Teutonic population of the greater part of the country that is now called England. Later records give us a few names of men and scraps of incidents belonging to this momentous process, which can hardly be altogether fictitious. According to these, Kent, the first-fruits of German cunning and daring, was conquered and occupied by Jutish warriors between 449 and 473; Sussex by Saxon between 477 and 491; Wessex by Saxon and Jutish between 495 and 519; and in part simultaneously with these, in part after them, and till about 550, the other communities and states of the same origin—Middlesex, Essex, East Anglia, the miscellany of settlements that ultimately coalesced into Mercia, and Deira, and Bernicia—were founded, some by Saxons, some by Angles, and some by both. But shadowy as is our knowledge of the foundation of the southern settlements, of the foundation of the northern settlements we know nothing. The first sight that we get of these is after they have become fully established and powerful organisations. Within a century after their first landing in force the terrible strangers had got into their exclusive possession the eastern half of the island south of the Forth.

The whole of this land was won by the edge of the sword. Throughout, the work of conquest was in substance a mere killing and taking possession; fields of slaughter, sackings of cities, massacre and depopulation, spoiling and burning of homesteads, leading into captivity, every conceivable shame and horror that can befall a race make the history of eastern Britain during this time; the indistinct lamentations of the vanquished, the more definite traditions of the victors, concur in proving this. From the British side Gildas exclaims, "Some were caught in the hills and slaughtered, others were worn out with hunger, and yielded to a life-long slavery. Some passed across the sea .... others trusted their lives to the clefts of the mountains, to the forests, and rocks of the sea." From the English side we learn such facts as that, in 473, "the Welsh fled the English as fire;" that in 491 the South Saxons "slew all that dwelt within" Anderida, "nor was as much as one Briton left alive;" that in 508 Cerdic

and Cynric "slew a British king and five thousand men with him." And the name "Flame-bearer," given in Welsh literature to a Bernician king (Ida or Theodric), is fearfully expressive.

Not that the career of the conquerors was one of unbroken success. Now and then the frenzied resistance of the Britons checked, perhaps even beat back, the advance of the English; one illustrious British hero, Arthur, by a life of valiant deeds, laid the foundation of a fame now almost entirely poetical, and one splendid victory postponed the fatal day for the Britons of the west. In whatever part of the island he fought, the fact of his fighting nobly against the invaders is now generally admitted [ARTHUR]; and the battle of *Mons Badonicus* (416 or 420), whatever its site, whether gained by Arthur or another, was undoubtedly a defeat for the English, and secured the Welsh a breathing-space of some length. But neither devoted courage nor flashes of success could save British civilisation from the ruin that was coming upon it like a fate; the onward march of the ruthless German swordsmen was arrested, only to begin anew after a time with undiminished ferocity.

This fresh advance, which began about 560, and carried the West Saxon arms to the Severn, and almost to the Dee, has this special interest: that the persons and events that belong to it are unmistakably historical. Whatever misgivings we may have about Hengist, Cissa, and Cerdic, we cannot but feel confident that Ceawlin and Cuthwine really lived, and that the victory of the former at Deorham (577), and of the latter at Bedford (571), were real achievements. Undoubtedly, too, the area of permanent English occupation was much extended by the aggressions of these princes; it had certainly now reached the Bristol Channel.

The manner of the conquest is well expressed by Bishop Stubbs:—"The conquest of Britain was the result of a series of separate expeditions, long continued, and perhaps, in point of time, continuous, but unconnected, and independent of one another. It was conducted by single chieftains, who had nothing in common with the nation they attacked, and who were about neither to amalgamate with them nor to tolerate their continued existence." This last statement is not undisputed. While one school of historians has no doubt of the utter effacement not merely of the British nation, but even of the British population throughout the conquered districts, another maintains that a not inconsiderable portion of the conquered must have been spared and that their descendants ultimately mixed with the descendants of the conquerors; that, in fact, modern England is not an exclusively Teutonic, but largely a Celtic, nationality. The truth, perhaps, is that the practice of the conquerors varied: while extermination was the rule in their earlier conquests, they allowed many exceptions to it as the tide of war went west. But of the substantial effacement of British civilisation there can scarcely be a doubt; in this respect the conquest was simply a destroying deluge of barbarism, that swept away almost every trace of the greatness that once had been.

Gildas, *De Excidio Britonum*; Nennius, *Historia Britonum*; *The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*; J. R. Green, *The Making of England*; Elton, *Origins of English History*. [J. R.]

Englishry, PRESENTMENT OF, was a system introduced by William the Conqueror, whereby if a man were found murdered, it was assumed that he was a Norman, and the hundred fined accordingly, unless it was proved otherwise. It fell into disuse about the time of Richard I., the two races having mixed to such an extent that it was impossible to say who was an Englishman and who was a Norman. It was not, however, finally abolished till 1339.

Dialogus de Scaccario, i., cap. 10; Stubbs, *Select Charters*, p. 193.

Eocha Burdhe, or "The Yellow-Haired," succeeded his father, Aidan, as King of Dalriada, 606. In 629, the year of his death, he fought in the battle of Fedhacoin, in Ireland, on the side of the Cruithough, against his own son, Conadh Cerr, in whose favour he had resigned Dalriada on the acquisition of Galloway. [DALRIADA.]

Equity. [CHANCERY.]

Erastians, THE, were so called because they held the views of the Swiss theologian Erastus (1524—83) on the inability of the Church to exercise discipline by censure, excommunication, &c.; its province being, according to their theory, confined to teaching. There never was an actual sect of Erastians in England; but their ideas on Church government were advocated by many leading divines, and in the Westminster Assembly (1643—49) were represented by the powerful eloquence of Whitelocke, Lightfoot, and Selden. A proposition, however, condemnatory of their doctrines was carried almost unanimously, and, though the "Chapter of Church Censures" in which it occurs was never formally ratified by Parliament, Erastianism failed from that time to take deep root. The word frequently occurs in the history of the disputes which resulted in the secession of the Free Church of Scotland, and is sometimes used by English High Churchmen—in both cases with reference to those who deny the Church the right of self-government.

Collier, *Ecclesiastical Hist*; Bogue and Bennet, *Hist. of Dissent*; Chalmers, *Life and Writings*.

Errol, FRANCIS, EARL OF (*d.* 1631), was Constable of Scotland, and one of the signers of the "Spanish Blanks" (q.v.). He was con-

verted to the Romish Church by a Jesuit named Father Edmond Hay, but in 1597 found it to his interest to return to the Protestant party, and to obtain the revocation of his forfeiture.

Erskine, Thomas, Lord (*b.* 1750, *d.* 1823), the third son of the tenth Earl of Buchan, was educated at the High School, Edinburgh, and St. Andrews University. At the age of fourteen he entered the navy, but after four years, disgusted at not being promoted, he exchanged the navy for the army. After seven years in his new profession, he left it to enter at Lincoln's Inn, and in 1778 both took his degree and was called to the bar. His first brief was held in defence of Captain Baillie, a naval officer who had been doomed by the ministry for daring to expose the abuses permitted by the Admiralty. Erskine's fame was made at once, and was confirmed in the following January by his brilliant defence of Admiral Keppel in court-martial, which was followed soon afterwards by his equally powerful speech on behalf of Lord George Gordon. In November, 1783, he was returned to Parliament for Portsmouth, and did his utmost in support of Fox's India Bill. His fame is specially connected with his constant efforts to establish the rights of juries in libel cases. In 1794 he made a bold stand against the doctrine of constructive treason which it was attempted to lay down in the trials of Hardy, Horne Tooke, and Thelwall. For the next twelve years he was recognised as leader in the courts at Westminster and was in all State trials to be found retained for the defence. In Parliament he was a firm supporter of Fox, and followed him in his temporary retirement from the House. Addington offered him a place as Attorney-General in 1801, but Erskine declined it. On the accession to power of the Fox and Grenville ministry in 1806, Erskine received the Chancellorship. During his short tenure of that office he had the satisfaction of announcing the passing of the Bill for the Abolition of Slavery. For the fifteen years after retiring from office in 1807, he took little part in politics. On the trial of Queen Caroline, he broke away reluctantly from his long-standing friendship with the Prince Regent, because he felt bound to support the cause of a woman whom he considered to be innocent and injured.

Erskine, *Speeches*; Foss, *Judges of England*; Holland, *Mem. of the Liberal Party*; Brougham, *Sketches*; *Grenville Papers*; Walpole, *Hist. of Eng. from 1815*; *State Trials*.

Escheat (from the Norman-French *eschet*; *escheoir*, to fall) means the reversion of land to the lord. It could happen in two ways: (1) *per defectum sanguinis*, through want of heirs; or (2) *per delictum tenentis*, through the crime of the tenant, in cases of treason or felony; the distinction between it and forfeiture (q.v.) being, that the first is regarded as a natural event, the second as the direct consequence of an illegal act. It affected tenants in fee-simple only. The law of escheats was introduced into England by the Normans, and, in the troubled state of the times, it was not unusual for the estates of some great noble to fall to the crown. They either continued in the possession of the king, under the title of an honour, and were administered like a shire, or were granted out again as an hereditary fief. In the first case, the immediate tenants were protected by Magna Charta from being treated as tenants-in-chief to the crown, and need only pay such dues as they would have owed to their mesne lord. The wanton bestowal of escheated lands upon favourites and relations was a frequent charge against weak kings like Henry III. and Richard II., while Edward II. in 1309 was accused of depriving men of their lands who had a perfectly good title, a practice which the royal officers of Henry VII. carried to a state of great perfection. In *Escheat propter delictum* the land passed to the next heir, subject to the superior right of the crown in the case of treason for life, in the case of felony for a year and a day. It was confined in 1833 to cases of treason or murder, and the law on the subject was further defined in 1838. By the *Felony Act* of 1880, administrators were appointed to the convict's property, and it could be resumed if his sentence expired. *Escheat propter defectum* is now most common in cases of bastardy. The land passes to the sovereign, except in the case of copyhold estates, which go to the lord of the manor.

In Scotland there was escheat for debt as well as for treason; it was abolished in 1737. Single escheat, however, by which the prisoner's movables are forfeited to the crown, still exists as a punishment for crime.

Stubbs, *Select Charters* (*Dialogus de Scaccario*); Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, vol. i., ch. xi. Statutes 4 and 5 Wm. IV., cap. 23, 1 and 2 Vict., cap. 69.

Essex, Kingdom of. In Celtic and Roman times the district lying to the north of the lower course of the Thames was inhabited by the tribe of the Trinobantes. In this region the Romans founded many of their most important towns, such as Camulodunum, London, and Verulam; and towards the end of the period of their rule it formed part of the domain of the "Comes Littoris Saxonici," or Count of the Saxon Shore. When the Roman power was weakening, Essex seems to have fallen an easy prey to the Teutonic invaders; but there is no record left to tell us of the exact process or time of this invasion. It seems probable, however, that the attack was made by way of the estuary of the Stour and Chelm, rather than

up the Thames Valley; and we know that the conquest was achieved by Saxons, and not by Anglian tribes, such as colonised the neighbouring counties to the north. The East Saxons do not seem to have spread far inland, being, in all probability, checked in their onward course by the great wood district lying to the west, whose relics still survive in Hainault and Epping Forest. In the same manner the South Saxons' progress was barred by the Andreadesweald, and for this reason neither Sussex nor Essex ever developed into one of the great kingdoms. But the East Saxons, though they do not appear to have ever had a Bretwalda, as the South Saxons had, were in one respect happier than the South Saxons; for it was into their hands that the great town of London fell. We read in Bede that by the year 604 it was the "Metropolis" of Sebert, King of the East Saxons, and about the same year it became the seat of Mellitus, whom Ethelbert of Kent sent to preach to that tribe. Bede tells us how, on the death of Sebert (616), the country relapsed into Paganism, from which it was not converted till many years later. Mellitus was driven to Gaul, and seems to have returned only to occupy the metropolitan see of Canterbury, leaving London without a bishop till 654. On the accession of Sigebert, who had been baptised by Finian, Bishop of Lindisfarne, Ceadda was invited from Mercia to undertake the office of Bishop of the East Saxons, the see of London was renewed, and before the century was out an East Anglian king (Sebbi) had exchanged his crown for the garb of a monk in London. By this time the East Saxons seem to have been in greater or less subjection to Mercia; and though a late legend speaks of their largely increasing their bounds to the north and west, this kingdom seems to have for the future fluctuated between Mercian and West Saxon rule. At last, after the battle of Ellandun, the Chronicle tells us how the East Saxons "turned to Egbert, because they had formerly been forced from his kinsmen unjustly." Probably the old line of East Saxon kings had now died out, and the people were more willing to have a Saxon than an Anglian ruler. But Essex was not as yet thoroughly merged in the West Saxon kingdom; on Edgar's death it was detached from Wessex, and given, with Kent, Surrey, and Sussex, to Athelstan (836). We have now reached the times of the Danish invasions. When East Anglia was over-run, and St. Edmund martyred by these marauders, Essex seems to have shared the fate of its northern neighbour, and some years later, by the Treaty of Wedmore (878), was, together with London, left in the hands of Guthrum. Later on we find the Essex Danes taking a prominent part in the invasion of 894, and next year the whole Danish army that had already harried North Wales retired by way of Northumberland and East Anglia to the Isle of Mersea, on the Essex coast. With Edward the Elder, however, the tide began to turn against the strangers; in 913 he built the burgh of Hertford, and in midsummer of the same year brought his army to Maldon, while the fortress of Witham was building; "and a good deal of the folk submitted to him who were before under the power of the Danish men." In 921 the inhabitants of Kent and Surrey, aided by many East Saxons, wrested Colchester out of the hands of the Danes, though not without destroying the town. However, before the year was out Edward had repaired the fortress and permanently taken the district into his power, for the army of East Anglia swore fealty to him at the same time. Towards the end of the century (991) Essex was once more exposed to the ravages of the Danes, and when Ethelred promised them tribute in 1011, Essex is mentioned as one of the districts they had over-run. When England was divided between Canute and Edmund Ironside (1016), Edmund received East Anglia and Essex, together with the district south of the Thames—a sure proof that there was not a very large number of Danes settled in the two first-mentioned provinces. From this time the history of Essex belongs to that of England generally. In the days of Edward the Confessor it formed a part of Harold's East Anglian earldom, and towards the end of the reign part of Leofwine's anomalous earldom, which included Kent, Surrey, and much besides.

KINGS OF ESSEX.

Escwine	*s.* 527
Sleda	*s.* 587
Sebert	*d.* 616
Seward and Sigebert	616—617
Sigebert the Little	617—653
Sigebert the Good	653—660
Sigehere	(?)
Stebbe	*s.* 665
Sigeheard	*d.* 694
Swœfred	*d.* 704
Offa	*vcs.* 709
Selred	709—746

Anglo-Saxon Chron.; Bede, *Hist. Eccles.*; Lappenberg, *Anglo-Saxon Kings*; Freeman, *Old Eng. Hist.*

[T. A. A.]

Essex, PEERAGES OF. A *Barony* of Essex was held under William I. by one Swene, who possessed twenty-two lordships in that county; but the lands were confiscated on the defeat of his grandson, Henry de Essex, in judicial combat (1163). In the meanwhile, the Empress Maud granted (1144) the *Earldom* of Essex, with the third penny of the county, to Geoffrey de Mandeville, from whom it passed successively to his two sons. They dying childless, it was allowed (1199) to Geoffrey Fitz-Peter (Fitz-Piers), the Justiciar, husband of a grand-niece of the first earl. Geoffrey again had two sons who succeeded him, but left no issue; and the title was conferred, some time before 1239, upon a son of a sister of the last earl, Humphrey de Bohun,

Earl of Hereford, in whose family it continued until Humphrey de Bohun, Earl of Northampton, Hereford, and Essex, died (1372), without male issue. The latter's elder daughter and co-heiress, Eleanor, then gave the title to her husband, Thomas of Woodstock, son of Edward III., and afterwards Duke of Gloucester. On his murder (1397), the earldom of Essex lay dormant until it was revived in favour of Thomas's eventual heir, Thomas, Lord Bourchier, Count of Eu, in Normandy (1461). With the death of his grandson (1539) it became extinct, and was immediately re-granted to the famous Thomas Cromwell. On Cromwell's attainder, in 1540, his honours became forfeit, and in 1543 the earldom was given to William Parr, brother of Queen Katharine Parr, and husband of the only daughter of the last Bourchier, Earl of Essex. Parr was afterwards created Marquis of Northampton (1546), but attainted in 1553. In 1572 the earldom of Essex was once more revived in favour of Walter Devereux, second Viscount Hereford. His son Robert was attainted in 1601, but the honours were restored two years later to his son, Robert, on whose death without issue (1646) the title became extinct. Finally, in 1661, Arthur Capell, second Baron Capell, was created Earl of Essex and Viscount Maldon, and by his descendant the title is at present held.

Essex, Henry Bourchier, Earl of (*d.* 1483), was the son of Lord Bourchier, and brother of Thomas Bourchier, Archbishop of Canterbury. In 1454 he was created Lord High Treasurer, but forsook the Lancastrian cause, and espoused that of York. On Edward IV.'s accession to the throne, he was again made Treasurer, and was created Earl of Essex.

Essex, Walter Devereux, Earl of (*b. circa* 1540, *d.* 1576), son of Sir Richard Devereux, succeeded his grandfather as Viscount Hereford (1558); married (1561) Lettice, daughter of Sir Francis Knollys. He distinguished himself by his fidelity during the conspiracy of the Duke of Norfolk and the rising of the North, and was therefore created Earl of Essex (1572). The following year he undertook, with other noble adventurers, the conquest of Ulster; but, owing it is supposed, to the machinations of Leicester, his expedition was a total failure. In 1574 he was appointed Governor of Ulster, with an independent commission, and in 1576 Earl Marshal of Ireland. He succeeded in effecting no permanent conquest, but signalised himself by the treacherous murder of his guest, Sir Brian O'Neil, and by ordering the massacre of the women and children of the Scots of Antrim on the Island of Rathlin. He died in September, 1576.

Essex, Robert Devereux, Earl of (*b.* 1567, *d.* 1601), entered Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1577. On his appearance at court, in 1584, he became at once a favourite with both queen and people. In 1585 he accompanied Leicester to Holland, distinguished himself at Zutphen, and was, in 1588, appointed General of the Horse in the army raised to meet the Spanish Armada. In 1591 he commanded the auxiliaries sent to assist Henry IV. in Normandy, but his chief military exploit was the capture of Cadiz in 1596. Not content with his great position as favourite, and his reputation as a soldier, he also aimed at eminence as a statesman, and from 1592 devoted himself to the study of foreign affairs. He headed the party that demanded the vigorous prosecution of the war against Spain, opposed the cautious policy of Burleigh, and entered into communication with King James, whom he urged to demand recognition as the queen's heir. On the death of Burleigh, however, his son succeeded to his power, and Essex, a few months later, eager for an opportunity of gaining power and credit, obtained the post of Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, and was charged with the task of suppressing Tyrone's rebellion (March, 1599). His conduct in Ireland exposed both his ability and his honesty to injurious suspicions. Instead of at once attacking the main strength of the rebels in Ulster, or consolidating the English power in Leinster, he wasted his time and his army in marching and counter-marching, in gaining little victories, and achieving no substantial success. When he did attack Tyrone, he speedily admitted him to peace, on terms which seemed to be dictated by private ambition rather than by public policy. For this he was, on his return to England, disgraced, tried by a special commission, dismissed from all his offices, and was for a time in custody. Believing his punishment to be the work of his enemies in the Council, he set on foot a conspiracy to force his way into the queen's presence, and to remove his opponents from the government by arms. But his attempted *coup d'état* failed, and he was apprehended, tried by the Lord High Steward's Court, sentenced to death for high treason, and executed on Feb. 25, 1601. He affirmed that his design was merely to go with his friends and petition the queen, and to gain their petition to remove from the queen's chamber Raleigh and Cecil, his enemies; that he had never in any way intended to hurt the queen. By the ruling of the court in this case, it was held treason to compel the king by force to change his policy.

Camden, *Annales;* Aikin, *Court of Queen Elizabeth; State Trials.*

[C. H. F.]

Essex, Robert Devereux, Earl of (*b.* 1592, *d.* 1646), son of the preceding, was educated at Eton, and at Merton College, Oxford. In 1606 he married Frances

Howard, from whom he was divorced seven years later, in order that she might marry the Earl of Rochester. He distinguished himself as a soldier, serving in the Palatinate (1620), in Holland (1622—3), in Mansfeld's army (1624), and in the expedition to Cadiz (1625). On the outbreak of the Scotch rebellion, he was appointed by Charles I. lieutenant-general of the English army. He is described as being then "the most popular man in the kingdom, and the darling of the swordmen." At the opening of the Long Parliament he sided with the popular party, urged the execution of Strafford, and though holding the office of Chamberlain, refused to follow the king to York. He was appointed in July, 1642, general of the army raised by the Parliament, and commanded at Edgehill (Oct. 23). In the spring of 1643, after capturing Reading, he marched on Oxford, but was prevented by bad weather and sickness amongst his troops from besieging it. In the autumn of the same year he performed his greatest exploit during the war, the relief of Gloucester (Sept. 5), followed by the victory of Newbury (Sept. 20). In June, next year, he marched into the west of England to relieve Lyme, leaving Waller the task of pursuing the king. After relieving Lyme, and taking some of the royal fortresses in Devon and Dorset, he proceeded into Cornwall. There he found himself, contrary to his expectations, unsupported by the country, and distressed for provisions, whilst the king, who had defeated Waller, prevented his retreat, drove him further west, and speedily reduced his army to extremities. The cavalry broke through the king's lines, and came safe away; Essex himself escaped by sea; but the infantry were forced to surrender (Sept., 1644). Nevertheless, the Parliament appointed him to command the new army which was being collected. Illness, however, prevented him being present at the second battle of Newbury, and on April 2, 1645, he laid down his commission in obedience to the Self-Denying Ordinance. As a general, he exhibited great irresolution, and too often allowed his judgment as a soldier to be overruled by political considerations. Clarendon charges him with pride and ambition, but admits his honesty and praises his fidelity.

Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion*; Whitelocke, *Memorials*; May, *Hist. of Long Parl.*

[C. H. F.]

Essex, Arthur Capel, Earl of (*b.* 1631, *d.* 1683), son of Arthur, Lord Capel, created Earl of Essex in 1660, was a leading member of the Country Party in the reign of Charles II. From 1672 to 1676 he was Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, and in 1679 he was appointed First Commissioner of the Treasury, but resigned before long. In 1683 he was concerned in the Revolutionary Plot, and was arrested and committed to the Tower. But before his trial could come on, he was found to have committed suicide. Macaulay characterises him as "a man of solid, though not brilliant parts, and of grave and melancholy character."

Estates of Scotland, The. In Scotland the Representative Assembly of the nation had more in common with the French than with the English Parliament. The deputies of the "Three Estates," that is, the clergy, the barons, and the burgesses, sat in one chamber. The Chancellor was President. The officers of State had seats in virtue of their offices; and the judges of the Court of Session sat round a table in the centre of the hall, between the barons and the commons. The earliest laws of the kings of the Scots were passed in "Assizes." The first faint indications of a National Council appear in the reign of Alexander I. This council is called the Curia Regis from the reign of William the Lion till the death of Alexander III. The Assembly which met at Scone in 1286, to determine the succession of the crown, is the first recorded meeting of the Parliament. It consisted only of the great tenants of the crown, met to choose their liege lord. In the appeal to Edward to adjudge the crown, and in the Treaty of Brigham, 1290, the "community" is mentioned for the first time as having a voice in the affairs of the nation; and to the treaty between John Baliol and Philip of France the seals of six burghs are appended. The Parliament of Robert Bruce at Cambuskenneth was the first in which the representatives of the "Third Estate," the deputies of the burghs, had a place. From this time their place in the National Council was secure. The agreement for the payment of the ransom of David II. bears the seal of seven burgesses, as well as those of bishops and barons. At first each royal burgh was required to send two members to Parliament; but as the burghs were privileged to hold their own *Court of the Four Burghs*, which had sovereign authority in all burghal disputes and questions, they were disposed to shirk Parliamentary attendance; and in 1619 it was enacted by the Convention of Burghs that each burgh should send one member only to the Estates, save Edinburgh, which was to send two. Commissaries to represent the lesser barons date from the reign of James I. By an Act of 1428 these lesser barons were relieved from their attendance, on condition that they elected two commissaries for each shire. Every one holding land from the crown was to have a voice in the election. A statute of James VI. limited the right of voting to those who had their land in free tenantry and lived within the shire. The statute of 1661 extended this right to all who held lands of the king to the extent of £1,000 Scots real rent. There was no regular

attendance of the commissaries till late in the reign of James VI. The commissaries and the members of the burghs were paid for their attendance. An Act of 1661 fixes their pay at £5 Scots per day during their attendance and their journey to and fro. All the work of the Scotch Parliament was done by permanent committees—the practice of debating in full Parliament being unknown. When the Estates met they elected a committee composed of members from each of the three divisions. To this committee the work of discussing and maturing the measures to be passed was handed over. The Estates did not sit while the committee was at work. When the Bills were ready, they met and passed them. This committee was called the *Lords of the Articles.* This practice began in the reign of David II., to let the members go home to get in the harvest. In the reign of James I. it had become established as a regular part of parliamentary procedure. There was no fixed rule for choosing the Lords of the Articles, either as regarded their number or the mode of their election. This uncertainty led to the struggle between the Estates and Charles I., in 1633. The Lords of the Articles then numbered thirty-two, and an attempt was made to rob the majority in the Estates of its power against the crown by adroit management in their election. Eight bishops were first elected; they in their turn chose eight barons, and barons and bishops together chose eight commissaries and eight burgesses. Thus the whole committee were picked partisans of the bishops. The Estates protested, each division claiming the right to elect its own delegates. This matter of the election of the Lords of the Articles was again fought over in 1689. The Parliament which had put William on the throne demanded the right of discussing measures in plain Parliament, after the English fashion. The king at first refused to agree to this, and offered to increase the number of the Lords of the Articles to thirty-three, and to leave the Estates perfect freedom of election; but the Estates were firm in their demands. William yielded, and an Act of 1690 finally abolished the Lords of the Articles. The Estates were formerly the highest court of justice, and professed to give "remeid of law" in cases of appeal against the justiciars and sheriffs. To manage this judicial business, a committee, called the *Lords Auditors of Complaints*, was appointed, but its powers only lasted while Parliament was sitting. In 1503 it was made permanent; the members, to be chosen by the crown, were to sit continually in Edinburgh. By James V. the Lords Auditors and the Lords of the Council were united to form the Court of Session. Thus it was that the "Estates" grew out of the council of the king; to the barons were joined the clergy, and in the fourteenth century the representatives of corporations. The lesser barons were not regularly represented by commissaries till the latter part of the sixteenth century.

Scottish Statutes, published by the Record Commission; *Ancient Laws and Customs of Burghs of Scotland;* Innes, *Lectures on Scottish Legal Antiquities;* Stevenson, *Documents connected with the Hist. of Scotland;* E. W. Robertson, *Scotland under the Early Kings;* J. H. Burton, *Hist. of Scotland.* [M. M.]

Estates of the Realm, The, are defined by Bishop Stubbs as "the several orders, states, or conditions of men who are recognised as possessing political power." As originally constituted in England they were the nobles, the clergy, and the commons. The mistake of describing the three Estates as consisting of the King, Lords, and Commons, is quite as old as the fifteenth century, and is due to the failure of the Parliamentary representation of the clergy as a separate Estate. This failure has caused the Estates to assume the Parliamentary form of Lords Spiritual, Lords Temporal, and Commons. The precedence given to the clergy would appear to be a matter of courtesy; the Commons (*communitas communitatum*, the general body into which organised bodies of freemen are combined) is always the third Estate. It was some time before the three Estates assumed their final form. At one time there seemed to be some probability that there would be a sub-estate of the lawyers, who were much favoured by Edward I., and of the merchants, who were frequently consulted previous to the imposition of taxation upon their order. It was some time, too, before the lesser nobility separated from the baronage, and before the prelates were included in the latter body, the lesser clergy preferring to assemble in Convocation. In Scotland the three Estates comprised the prelates, the tenants-in-chief, great and small, and the townsmen. In 1428, James I., in imitation of the English system, instituted commissioners of shires, to supersede the personal appearance of the minor tenants-in-chief; then the three Estates became the lords lay and clerical, the commissioners of shires, and the burgesses, who throughout their history continued to sit in one house. In 1640, the Parliament re-arranged itself into three Estates—the nobility, the barons, or representatives of the smaller freeholders, and the burgesses with their commissioners, to the exclusion of the bishops, but this was repealed on the restoration of the episcopacy by Charles II.

See the admirable discussion of the whole subject in Stubbs's *Const. Hist.*, ii., chap. xv. Also *Lords' Report on the Dignity of a Peer*, and Erskine, *Institutes of the Law of Scotland.*

Estates, The Committee of the, was appointed by the Scotch Parliament of 1640 to act in permanence during the recesses, both in the camp and at the capital. It consisted of so many from each of the three Estates, which were now defined to be the nobility, barons, and burgesses. It dissolved in 1648.

after the battle of Preston, but a new Committee was formed by Argyle and his friends, who treated with the victorious Cromwell. After the battle of Worcester, those of the Committee of Estates who had supported the coronation of Charles II. at Scone were sent as prisoners to London. The Committee was resumed after the Restoration, pending the arrival of the Commissioner, Middleton. It signalised its short reign by committing to prison some Remonstrant clergy.

Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*, vols. vi. and vii.

Ethandun, THE BATTLE OF (878), was the great victory of Alfred over the Danes after his retirement to Athelney; this led immediately to the treaty with Guthrum. [ALFRED.] Ethandun has been identified with Edington, near Westbury, Wilts; with Yatton, five miles north-west of Chippenham; and with Heddington, which is on the Roman road between Bath and Marlborough.

Ethel is defined in the Anglo-Saxon dictionaries as equivalent to *terra hereditaria* and *fundus paternus*, or sometimes, in a wider sense, to *patria*. It is the word used to translate country in the Anglo-Saxon version of St. Luke. It is the same word as the *odal* of the Scandinavian races. Though perhaps not etymologically connected with "*alod*"—a relationship which, however, some scholars allow—it has practically the same signification, and denotes the land which in early Teutonic days belonged indefeasibly to the head of each household, and which its owner held, not of the king's gift or any other man's favour, free from all burdens save that of the public defence. Perhaps from the very earliest days the ethel may have been subject to assist in the repair of bridges and the maintenance of fortifications, as well as to serve in the fyrd; but the "*trinoda necessitas*" is said not to appear in genuine Anglo-Saxon documents before the beginning of the eighth century. The alod, or ethel, was the primitive homestead, the possession of which marked out the fully-qualified freeman from all other men. By virtue of this ownership he was justified in taking part in the council of his nation, and in fighting in its wars. For the title-deeds of his estate he looked primarily to no written evidence, but to the undisputed possession by which he and his ancestors had held the soil. Later, as more and more of the folk-land was changed into book-land, and the greater security of chartered proof became evident, the owner of an ethel gradually took to the custom of receiving charters. Many of the smaller allodial holders, indeed, seem to have sold their land to the wealthier lords, or to have commended themselves to a patron, and so received back their old estates as a gift. The word *ethel*, or *athel*, occurs in many compounds, both in the names of persons and places, *e.g.*, Athelstan, Atheling, Ethelred, Athelney, &c. [ALODIAL LAND.]

Kemble, *Saxons in England*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Hallam, *Middle Ages*; Skeat, *Etymological Dictionary*. [T. A. A.]

Ethelbald (ÆTHELBALD), King of the West Saxons (855 — 860), succeeded his father, Ethelwulf. His marriage with his step-mother, Judith, is the solitary fact we know about him with certainty, as there is a gap in the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* from 855 to 860.

Ethelbald (ÆTHELBALD) (*b.* 716, *d.* 757), King of Mercia, was descended from one of the brothers of Penda. He was persecuted by Ceolred, and took refuge in the marshes of Fenland. On the death of Ceolred, he was unanimously chosen king. His reign was distinguished by many successful conflicts against the Britons, and though he failed to subdue Northumbria and Wessex, he assumed the title of "Rex Britanniæ." He was defeated by Cuthred of Wessex at Burford, in 752, and again, in 757, at which battle he is supposed to have been slain.

Ethelbert (ÆTHELBERHT) (*s.* 860, *d.* 866), King of the West Saxons, succeeded his father, Ethelwulf, in the kingdom of Kent, and his brother Ethelbald in Wessex, though according to his father's will the latter kingdom should have gone to Ethelred. The *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* tells us that "he held the kingdom in good order and great tranquillity." Most of his reign was occupied in repelling the incursions of the Danes, who were at this time strong enough and bold enough to attack Winchester, the royal city of the West Saxon kings.

Ethelbert (ÆTHELBERHT) (*b.* 560? *d.* 616), King of Kent, ranks as the third Bretwalda. We are told that "in the infancy of his reign he was such an object of contempt to the neighbouring kings, that, defeated in two battles, he could scarcely protect his frontier; but in riper years he quickly, by successive victories, subjugated every kingdom of the Angles, with the exception of Northumbria." This statement of William of Malmesbury is greatly exaggerated, and probably means little more than that he conquered Sussex and Essex, and obtained a nominal suzerainty over the other kingdoms. His marriage with Bertha, daughter of Charibert, King of the Franks, is the important event in his reign, as it led indirectly to the coming of St. Augustine and the conversion of Ethelbert to Christianity (597). Ethelbert was the first king among the Anglo-Saxons who drew up a code of laws.

Anglo-Saxon Chron.; William of Malmesbury; Lappenberg, *Anglo-Saxon Kings*.

Ethelfleda (ÆTHELFLÆD) (*d.* 919), was a daughter of King Alfred. She was married

to the Ealdorman Ethelred, and, together with her husband, ruled over Mercia. She was of great assistance to her brother Edward in his wars against the Danes, and joined him in rebuilding Chester and other ancient towns that had fallen into decay. In 916 her troops defeated the Welsh at Brecknock. Her husband died in 912, and she left only a daughter, Elfwin, whom Edward deprived of the government of Mercia, and forcibly carried off to Wessex. Ethelfleda seems to have had the title of "The Lady of the Mercians," expressive of the power she possessed, and the relations in which she stood to Edward.

Florence of Worcester; *Anglo-Saxon Chron.*; Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, vol. i.

Ethelfrith (ÆTHELFRITH), King of Northumbria (593—617), was the son and successor of Ethelric. He married a daughter of Ella of Deira, and incorporated that state with his own kingdom of Bernicia, having driven Edwin (q.v.), the son of Ella, into exile. He was a far-sighted and successful king. He defeated the Scots and the Britons, and captured the city of Chester. He destroyed the monastery of Bangoryscoed, and put all the monks to death, asserting that as they prayed for his defeat, they were, though unarmed, fighting against him. Ethelfrith, having learnt that his brother-in-law, Edwin, had taken refuge with Redwald of East Anglia, demanded that he should be given up; and on his request being refused, war ensued, in which Ethelfrith was defeated and slain.

Ethelheard (ÆTHELHEARD) (*s.* 725, *d.* 740), King of Wessex, succeeded his brother-in-law, Ina. He was descended from Cerdic, but belonged probably to a distant branch of the royal house. His election was opposed by the Atheling Oswald, but unsuccessfully. His reign was an unfortunate one; the British recovered something of what they had lost, and the Mercians captured Somerton (733), an important border fortress, now a mere village, between Oxford and Banbury; and Wessex was obliged, in some degree, to own the Mercian overlordship.

Ethelhun (ÆTHELHUN), called "The Proud Ealdorman," rebelled against Cuthred of Wessex in 750, but was defeated, and pardoned. In 752, it was chiefly owing to his bravery that the West Saxons won the battle of Burford.

Ethelnoth (ÆTHELNOTH), Archbishop of Canterbury (1020—1038), had been one of the chaplains of Canute, and was one of that king's chief advisers. It is to him that we must attribute much of Canute's civil and ecclesiastical policy. Ethelnoth was a man of large views, and being himself a secular, did much to improve the position of the secular clergy. During Canute's absence from England, Ethelnoth was one of the regents of the kingdom, and to him the king addressed his famous letter describing his visit to Rome. On Canute's death, in 1035, Ethelnoth refused to crown Harold, and prohibited any of the bishops doing so.

William of Malmesbury; *Encomium Emmæ*; Hook, *Archbishops of Canterbury*.

Ethelred (ÆTHELRED) **I.,** King of the West Saxons (866—871), was the son of Ethelwulf, and succeeded on the death of his brother Ethelbert. His reign is important for his great struggle with the Danes. At first the invading host attacked the tributary provinces. Northumberland, disputed between rival kings, fell an easy prey, and one or two other provinces received a tributary crown at the hands of the heathen invaders. They next entered Mercia. The West Saxon monarch, hastening to the relief of his vassals, was unable to dislodge the invaders from Nottingham, which they had seized. East Anglia was completely conquered, and its king, Edmund, put to death. In 871 the Danes attacked Wessex, and made Reading their head-quarters. Thence they sallied forth, and no less than nine pitched battles ("folk-fights"), besides numerous smaller engagements, were fought between the Danes, led by Bagsecg and Halfdene, and the English, under Ethelred and his brother Alfred. The most important of these fights took place at Ashdown, in which the English were completely victorious; but in many of the other battles the Danes got the upper hand. In the midst of this struggle Ethelred died, probably of his wounds. He was succeeded by his brother Alfred. [DANES; ALFRED.]

Asser, *Life of Alfred*; *Anglo-Saxon Chron.*; Pauli, *Life of Alfred*.

Ethelred (ÆTHELRED) **II.,** KING (*b.* 968, *s.* 979, *d.* 1016), sometimes called the "Unready"—the Purposeless—the son of Edgar by Elfrida, was born in the year 968, and succeeded on the murder of his half-brother Edward. During the early part of his reign the government was in the hands of his mother, and very probably Dunstan (q.v.) remained chief adviser. We read of incursions of the Danes from the very commencement of this reign, but it was not till after the death of Dunstan, in 988, that we have the beginning of Danish attempts at settlement. In 991 East Anglia was attacked, and the great battle of Maldon fought, in which the brave Ealdorman Brihtnoth was slain. In this year too, by the advice of Archbishop Sigeric, the fatal plan of buying off the invaders was adopted. In addition to foreign enemies, Ethelred had to contend against treason at home, his two favourites, Elfric, Ealdorman of Mercia, and Edric Streona, frequently betraying his plans to the Danes. After repeated raids on England, Olaf of Norway

was bought off in 994. But the Danes still continued their incursions. In 997 Devon and Cornwall, in 998 Dorset and Hampshire, and in 999 Kent, were carried by them. In 1000 Ethelred led an army into Cumberland against Malcolm, who had refused to pay money for buying off the Danes, and in the same year an English force invaded Normandy unsuccessfully. The quarrel with Normandy was, however, soon made up, and in 1002 Ethelred married Emma, the sister of the Norman duke. In that year the sum of £24,000 was paid to the Danes. This year also saw an attempt to exterminate the Danes by the massacre of St. Brice (1002), which, far from accomplishing its purpose, only led to Sweyn gathering a large force together to avenge the slaughter. He captured Exeter and Salisbury, and met with no resistance, save in East Anglia. In 1006 "the great fleet came to Sandwich, and did all as they were wont; they ravaged and burned and destroyed wherever they went." Once more they were bribed to leave England. In 1008 Ethelred got together a fleet to oppose the Danes, but quarrels among the commanders and a great storm ruined this project, and the last chance against the invaders was gone. In 1009 London was ineffectually attacked, but Oxford was burnt, and "at length there was no head man who would assemble forces, but each fled as he best might; nor at the last would even one shire help another." In 1013 Sweyn made another great attack on England. The North at once submitted to him, and by the end of the year he was master of the whole country, and was acknowledged king, and Ethelred fled, with his wife and children, to his brother-in-law's court in Normandy. But Sweyn's death, in February, 1014, enabled Ethelred to return. With the aid of his son Edmund he drove out Canute, who had been chosen king by the Danish portion of the inhabitants. But Canute returned in 1015, and ravaged Wessex; next year he passed into Mercia and Northumbria, which submitted to him. While he was preparing for the final conquest of Wessex, Ethelred died (April 23, 1016). Ethelred was twice married, his first wife being Ælflæd, and his second, Emma of Normandy. Of Ethelred the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* says, "he held his kingdom with great toil and great difficulties the while that his life lasted." Among the West Saxon kings, Mr. Freeman remarks, "Ethelred stands alone in presenting the wretched spectacle of a long reign of utter misgovernment, unredeemed, as far as we can see, by any of those personal excellences which have sometimes caused public errors and crimes to be forgotten."

Anglo-Saxon Chron.; Lappenberg, *Anglo-Saxon Kings*; Freeman, *Norm. Conq.*, vol. i.

Ethelred (ÆTHELRED), King of Mercia (675–704), was the son of Penda and brother of Wulfhere, whom he succeeded. He married Osthryth, sister of Alfred of Northumbria. He defeated Lothaire of Kent in 675, and ravaged the whole of that kingdom. The remainder of his reign was peaceful, save for an attack on his brother-in-law, whom he compelled to restore the province of Lindsey to Mercia. He resigned the crown in 704 in favour of his nephew, Cenred, and became a monk in the abbey of Bardesey, where he died, in 716.

Ethelred (ÆTHELRED), King of Northumbria (774—779 and 789—793), was the son of Ethelwald. In the fifth year of his reign he was compelled to abdicate and fly the country, but the death of Alfwold and the bad government of Oswold afforded an opportunity for his return. He attempted to strengthen himself by the murder of his uncle, but in the sequel was himself assassinated by some of his thegns.

Ethelwald (ÆTHELWALD) **Moll,** King of Northumbria (759—765), succeeded after the murder of Oswulf. His parentage is unknown, but very probably he was one of the thegns who assassinated Oswulf. Civil war distracted his reign, and he was eventually defeated, and obliged to resign his throne.

Ethelwald (ÆTHELWALD) was the son of Ethelred I. In 901 he rebelled against Edward the Elder, and seized Wareham, saying that he would either live there or die there, but on the approach of Edward, he fled to the Danes in Northumbria. In 904 he subdued Essex, and persuaded the East Anglian Danes to invade Mercia, but in 905 was slain in a skirmish.

Ethelweard (ÆTHELWEARD), or as he styles himself "Fabius Quæstor Ethelwerdus," was the author of a Latin Chronicle of the Saxon Kings of England. Of the author nothing is known with certainty, beyond the fact that he was (according to his own account) the great-grandson of King Ethelred, brother of Alfred the Great. He probably died in the closing years of the tenth century. Ethelweard's Chronicle extends from the Creation to the reign of Edgar. It is for the most part a mere Latin abridgment of Bede's *Ecclesiastical History* and the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*; but, says Sir T. Hardy, "he has the merit of being the only Latin historian in an interval of two centuries."

Ethelweard's *Chronicle* was first printed by Sir H. Savile in 1596, in *Scriptores Post Bedam*, and has been reprinted in the *Monumenta Historiæ Britanniæ*.

Ethelwulf (ÆTHELWULF), King of the West Saxons (*s.* 837, *d.* 858), was the son of Egbert, whom he succeeded. His reign was occupied in great measure in repelling the

incursions of the Danes, by whom he was defeated, in 840, at Charmouth, and who, in 851, captured Canterbury and London, and drove out the Mercian king. Ethelwulf marched against them, and routed them at Ockley; and in 853 he assisted Burhred, King of Mercia, against the North Welsh, "and made them all obedient to him." In 855 the Danes, for the first time, wintered in England, and in this year Ethelwulf made a pilgrimage to Rome, whither he had sent his youngest son, Alfred, two years previously. On his way home he married Judith, daughter of Charles the Bold, King of the West Franks, and grandson of Charlemagne. During his absence, Asser tells us, his son, Ethelbald, conspired against him, and Ethelwulf, on his return, to avoid a civil war, gave up Wessex to him, retaining only Kent for himself. Ethelwulf is best known for his famous "Donation," which is often said to have originated the system of Tithes (q.v.). In reality, it was merely "the devotion of a tenth part of his private estate to ecclesiastical purposes, the relief of a tenth part of the folk-land from all payments except the *Trinoda necessitas*, and the direction that every ten hides of his land should provide for one poor man or stranger."

Anglo-Saxon Chronicle; Lappenberg, *Anglo-Saxon Kings;* Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, chap. viii.

Eustace (*d.* 1153), the second son of King Stephen, was heir-apparent to his father by the death of his elder brother, Baldwin. Stephen was extremely anxious that Eustace should be crowned king in his lifetime, thus ensuring the succession to him, but this the Pope refused to allow, it being evident that such a course would only perpetuate the period of civil war. Eustace died in 1153, and thus the way was open for the compromise between Stephen and Henry II., which was effected by the Treaty of Wallingford. Eustace married Constance, sister of Louis VII. of France, but left no children.

Eutaw Springs, The Battle of (Sept. 8, 1781), was the last serious engagement in the American War of Independence. On the departure of Lord Rawdon for England, Colonel Stewart had succeeded to the command at Charleston. Greene was too strong and too unembarrassed to remain any longer quiet, and he descended from the Santee Hills, with the intention of driving the British into Charleston, and there blockading them. Stewart met him at the Eutaw Springs. At first the English were repulsed along the whole line, but they gained time to rally, and returning to the attack, drove the Americans from their positions, and remained masters of the field. Their loss, however, was seven hundred men, who could be ill spared, especially in their then critical condition of affairs. Stewart was too much weakened to reap any results from his victory, and was compelled to fall back to Charleston Neck, and to look on while Greene overran South Carolina and Georgia.

Bancroft, *Hist. of American Revolution*, iv., chap. 24; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*, chap. 54.

Evelyn, John (*b.* 1620, *d.* 1706), served in several official positions during the reign of Charles II. He was one of the Council for the Management of the Plantations, and a member of the Board of Trade, and in 1695 he became Treasurer of Greenwich Hospital. Evelyn wrote several works on horticulture, architecture, and general literature. He was also the author of a *Diary*, which, together with his letters, was first printed in 1818, and has been frequently republished. Evelyn's Memoirs are of great value for their sketches of persons and society during the latter half of the seventeenth century.

Evesham, The Battle of (1265), was fought during the Barons' War between Prince Edward and Simon de Montfort. The quarrel with the De Clares and the escape of Prince Edward had arrayed a formidable band of enemies against De Montfort. The royalists were in the Welsh Marches, whither Simon set out against them; but by the capture of Gloucester they cut off his retreat, and having routed the younger Simon, Edward marched to Evesham, where De Montfort was waiting for his son. On August 4 the armies met, and De Montfort at once perceived that he was altogether outnumbered. "God have mercy on our souls," he cried, "for our bodies are the prince's!" In vain he attempted to force his way to Kenilworth, and at length all he could do was to draw his troops round him in a compact ring, and await the attack of the royalists. His son Henry fell at his feet, and at last the earl himself rushed into the thickest of the fight, and was hewn down. The royalists refused quarter, and terrible havoc was made of the baronial forces. "The victory of the king's party at Evesham," says Mr. Blaauw, "was so complete, that the disproportionate loss on the other side, betokening more a surprise than a battle, caused it to be thus described by Robert of Gloucester: 'Such was the murder of Evesham, for battle none it was!'" The royalists had distinguished themselves by red crosses on their arms, and the few who fell in the action owed their death to neglect of this precaution, being killed by their own comrades in mistake.

Matt. Paris, *Hist. Maj.*; Blaauw, *Barons' War*; Pauli, *Simon de Montfort.*

Evesham, The Chronicle of, is a monastic record, containing a history from the foundation of the abbey at the end of the seventh century to the year 1415. Though of slight historical value, it is important for the accurate and detailed picture it gives of the inner and daily life of a great abbey.

Exchequer was the name of the court in which, after the Conquest, the financial

business of the country was transacted. The name arose from the chequered cloth, like a chess-board, which covered the table of the court. The chequers were probably useful in counting money, for which purpose counters were used as late as the reign of Edward II. The organisation of the court dates from Henry I., and it seems to have been originally merely a specialised financial committee of the Great Council. Its principal officers were the great officers of the state and household, with certain others, councillors or judges, appointed by the king, who were called Barons of the Exchequer (*Barones Scaccarii*). The court was generally held at Westminster, but was not fixed there in the twelfth century. Henry II. restored the court, and a full account of it as it existed in his reign is contained in the work called *Dialogus de Scaccario*. Two full sessions were held each year, at Easter and Michaelmas. At these the sheriffs gave in their accounts. These accounts were rendered in three divisions: in the *profer*, at which the sheriff paid the larger part of the money in hand; the *visus compoti*, or statement; and the *summa*, or final balance, with vouchers. All the revenue from the *ferm* or rent of the counties, the danegeld, pleas of the crown, aids, and other feudal dues, were thus brought into the Exchequer. The accounts with the sheriffs were kept by tallies, or pieces of wood inscribed and notched. These were divided down the middle, and one-half was kept by the sheriff and the other by the court. Payment of the ferm of the counties was made in money instead of in kind in the reign of Henry II. Besides the receipt of revenue, the business of the Exchequer included jurisdiction in cases which affected the revenue by the payment of fines; it recorded agreements, charters, and feoffments; and it sometimes seems to have acted as a political council of state, especially in matters of foreign treaties. When the office of Justiciar became extinct, the place of president at the Exchequer Board, which formerly belonged to the Justiciar, was taken by the Treasurer. By 4 & 5 Will. IV., c. 15, the whole position of the Exchequer as regards the receipt of revenue was changed. For this purpose its organisation consists of a Board, at the head of which is an officer called the Comptroller-General. All revenue is paid into the Bank of England to his account, and all payments made by the Exchequer are made in virtue of warrants from the Treasury.

The Exchequer must also be considered with reference to jurisdiction. No small part of its judicial business was lost by the separation of the Court of Common Pleas from the King's Bench (*Magna Charta*, art. 17). It still retained jurisdiction in revenue cases, and in the pleas of all who were in any way connected with the court. Special leave was also given to implead in the Exchequer as an indulgence. Like the other courts, the Exchequer drew business to itself wherever it was possible. This usurpation of jurisdiction was made a subject of complaint, and by the *Articuli super cartas* (28 Ed. I., c. 4) it was provided that no common pleas except those of privileged persons should be heard in that court. From the reign of Edward II. a regular series of Chief Barons begins. With this separate organisation, however, the usurpation by the Exchequer of jurisdiction properly belonging to other courts continued. It drew jurisdiction to itself by means of a writ of *quo minus*, in which it was suggested that the plaintiff was indebted to the crown, and needed payment from the defendant to enable him to pay the king. Courts of Exchequer were set up in Scotland and in Ireland, when those countries were united to England as regards legislation. The fiction of the writ of *quo minus* was abolished by 2 Will. IV., c. 39—the *Uniformity of Process Act*—and a proper jurisdiction was given to the Exchequer. An equitable jurisdiction also pertained to this court, which was extended by the same means as those used in its common law side. While, however, the barons were the judges on the common law side, the Treasurer and Chancellor of the Exchequer presided in equity cases. The appointment of the Chancellor dates from the reign of Edward II. In his oath of office he bound himself to use the seal of the Exchequer for no writs of other courts while the Chancery was within twenty miles. The last case in which the Chancellor exercised judicial functions was in 1735. The equity business of the Exchequer was transferred to the Court of Chancery by 5 Vict., c. 5. The Court of Exchequer has now become, by the Act of 1873, the Exchequer Division of the High Court of Justice. The Chancellor of the Exchequer has now no judicial functions, and is the member of the cabinet who is at the head of the financial administration and acts as Minister of Finance.

The *Court of Exchequer Chamber* was erected as a statutory court by 31 Ed. III., c. 12, to decide cases on writs of error from the common law side of the Exchequer. Its judges were the Lord Chancellor, the Lord Treasurer, and the justices of the King's Bench and Common Pleas. This court was re-organised by 27 Eliz., c. 8, which may indeed be more properly said to have created a new court, having jurisdiction in appeal from the King's Bench. By 1 Will. IV., c. 70, a new court was erected, for the judgments of each common-law court were made subject to revision by the judges of the other two courts sitting in the Exchequer Chamber. The appellate jurisdiction of this court was transferred to the new Court of Appeal, founded by the *Supreme Court of Judicature Act* (36 & 37 Vict., c. 66, s. 18).

Madox, *Hist. of the Exchequer*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, chaps. xi., xv.

[W. H.]

Excise, The, is generally defined as a duty charged before their sale on goods which are manufactured and consumed at home; but it is sometimes used of any tax laid upon the retail trade. It is generally supposed that this tax was first levied in England by the Parliamentary party in the time of the Civil War; but it is obvious that some of the imposts of the later Angevin kings may have been exacted in this way. However, it was not until 1643, when an excise on liquors was imposed, in imitation of the Dutch, by an ordinance of both Houses, and afterwards by the king's rival convention at Oxford, that it became a recognised source of revenue. After the Restoration half its produce was assigned to the crown in compensation for the surrender of the revenues derived from feudal tenure, whereby the burdens of the rich were transferred to the whole nation. James II. obtained from his first Parliament extra excise and custom duties, valued at £900,000 a year, but only £300,000 of this, taken from the excise, was granted to William and Mary, although the revenue granted to Charles II. was continued. At the same time, Parliament declared the excise to be "the most easy and indifferent levy that could be laid upon the people." This view was not shared by the nation at large, and the excise long continued to be a most obnoxious tax, the popular prejudices, caused partly by the practice of letting out the duties in farm, and partly by the obscurity of the statutes bearing on the subject, being even entertained by men like Blackstone and Dr. Johnson. Sir Robert Walpole, in 1733, found these prejudices fatal to his Excise Scheme. He wished to conciliate the country gentlemen by diminishing the land-tax to one shilling, and for that purpose imposed a duty on salt. When the new tax was found to fall short by two-thirds of the required amount, he proposed—not indeed, as had been reported—a general system of excise, but the substitution of excise duties for customs duties on wine and tobacco. By this means smuggling would be lessened, while by a system of warehousing without tax for re-exportation, London would become a free port. The Opposition, however, raised a most violent outcry against the measure, and the general dislike to it was so great that it was thought an attempt to enforce it would have been met by armed resistance in some localities, the ministerial party dwindled rapidly away, and Walpole was compelled to withdraw the bill based upon his resolution. Subsequent ministries, however, increased the amount of the excise duties, partly to decrease drunkenness (for instance, in 1746 a tax of 20s. a gallon was laid on spirits, and in consequence smuggling increased a hundredfold), and levied them on a large number of commodities. This was especially the case during the great struggle with Napoleon, when the excise included taxes on nearly every conceivable article of home manufacture and consumption—licences to permit persons to carry on certain trades, to shoot game, post-horse duties, duties on sales by auction, and other imposts. A great many of these duties have, however, since been abolished, and others have been transferred to the customs. The excise is now almost confined to British spirits and malt liquors. The management of the excise has also been simplified, notably in 1823, when the separate boards for the three kingdoms were abolished, and in 1848, when the Board left Gresham House, and was merged with those of stamps and taxes into the Inland Revenue Board at Somerset House. [Customs.]

Husband, *Collection of Ordinances*, p. 267; *Commons Journals*, Sept., 1660; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*, ii., chaps. x., xi.; Lingard, x. 267; Stanhope, *Hist. of England*, ii. 16; *Reports of the Commissioners of Excise Inquiry*, 1883; 7 & 8 Geo. IV., c. 53; 3 & 4 Vict., c. 5, 7. [L. C. S.]

Exclusion Bill, The, was first brought into the House of Commons in 1679. It disabled the Duke of York, as a Papist, from succeeding to the crown, should he outlive his brother. It met with considerable opposition in the Commons, but eventually passed by 207 votes to 128, upon which Charles dissolved Parliament. He was, however, soon obliged to summon it again (October, 1680), and the Exclusion Bill was again passed by the Commons; but the Lords, chiefly through the influence of Halifax, rejected it by 63 to 30. In January, 1681, the Commons voted that no supplies should be granted till the Exclusion Bill was passed, and refused to entertain Halifax's proposal, by which James was to rule only in name, a regent being appointed on his accession to the crown. Again the Parliament was dissolved (January 16, 1681), but not before the Commons had voted that the opponents of the Exclusion Bill were traitors bought with French money. Again, in the Parliament which met at Oxford in March, 1681, the Commons insisted on the passing of the Exclusion Bill. But this Parliament was in like manner dissolved, and Charles summoned no more Parliaments during his reign, and consequently, the Exclusion Bill fell through. The Exclusion Bill had proposed that the crown should descend to the heirs of the Duke of York on Charles's demise, in the same manner as if the duke was himself dead; but in spite of the temper of the times a great deal of opposition to the measure arose from the fear that Shaftesbury and others were desirous of making Monmouth king.

Burnet, *Hist. of his Own Time*; Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Christie, *Life of Shaftesbury*.

Exeter was probably a hill-fort of the Celtic inhabitants of Damnonia. Its ancient name *Caer Wisc* became *Isca*, or *Isca Dammoniorum* in Latin, and *Exanceaster* in Anglo-Saxon. Conquered by the English at an uncertain date, the city was strongly fortified

by Athelstan. It was several times besieged by the Danes in the reigns of Alfred and Ethelred II., and captured by Sweyn, owing to the treason of its governor, Hugh the French, in 1003. It was erected an episcopal see by Edward the Confessor in 1046. In 1067 Exeter was besieged and captured by William the Conqueror. In Sept., 1497, it was unsuccessfully besieged by Perkin Warbeck, and in 1549 it successfully stood a great siege against the Western insurgents. Throughout the Civil War, Exeter was for the most part Royalist. It was captured by Prince Maurice in 1642, and remained in the hands of the king's adherents till nearly the close of the war, when it was retaken by Fairfax (1646). It was the first important place in England reached by William of Orange, who entered Exeter Nov. 9, 1688. The cathedral, which was commenced by Bishop William of Warlewast in 1112, or perhaps earlier, was not completed till late in the fifteenth century.

Exeter, Peerage of. In early times the Earls of Devon were frequently styled Earls of Exeter. The first distinct peerage deriving its name from the city was the *dukedom* of Exeter, conferred, 1397, upon John Holland, Earl of Huntingdon, third son of Thomas Holland, Earl of Kent (son-in-law of Edmund Plantagenet, Earl of Kent), in 1399; however, the duke was degraded, and his honours became forfeit. In 1416 Thomas Beaufort, youngest son of John of Gaunt, was created Duke of Exeter for his life. Afterwards, 1443, John Holland, son of the first duke, was created duke, having been restored in blood and honours twenty-six years earlier. The dukedom, however, again became forfeit on the attainder of his son Henry, 1461. In 1525, Henry Courtenay, Earl of Devon, was made *Marquis* of Exeter, as was also his son Edward, 1553, the father having been attainted in 1539; on Edward's death, without issue, 1556, the title became extinct. In 1605 Thomas Cecil, second Lord Burghley, was created *Earl* of Exeter, and the honour still remains in his family, Henry Cecil, tenth earl, having been advanced to a *Marquisate* of the same style, 1801.

Exeter, Henry Holland, Duke of (*d.* 1473), was the son of John, Duke of Exeter. He was one of the principal leaders of the Lancastrian party, though he married Anne, daughter of Richard, Duke of York. He fought in the battles of Wakefield and Towton, and after the latter, escaped to Scotland, and was attainted by Edward IV. He afterwards returned, and fought in the battle of Barnet, where he was left for dead on the field, but recovering, fled to France, where he was in such abject poverty that he was obliged to beg his bread in the streets. In 1473 his corpse was discovered on the seashore near Dover, without any clue as to how it got there.

Exeter, Thomas Beaufort, Duke of (*d.* 1427), was the son of John of Gaunt and Catherine Swynford. He was appointed Captain of Calais in 1407, and in 1410 succeeded Arundel as Chancellor. He held the Great Seal for two years, and on his resignation, was created Earl of Dorset. He was one of the commanders in the French wars of Henry V. and Henry VI.'s reigns, and in 1415 was made Duke of Exeter. He was taken prisoner in the battle of Beaugé in 1421, but was released soon after, and was one of the Council during the minority of Henry VI. He married Margaret, daughter of Sir T. Neville, but left no issue.

Exeter, Thomas Cecil, Earl of (*b.* 1542, *d.* 1622), the eldest son of Lord Burleigh, was one of the leaders of the queen's troops against the northern rebels in 1569; he took part in the Scotch expedition in favour of the Regent Murray, and subsequently did good service in the Low Countries, in reward for which he was made Governor of Hull, 1585. He was created Earl of Exeter by James I., 1605.

Exhibition, The Great (1851). The idea of holding a great international exposition of the industrial products of the world, if it did not originate with Prince Albert, the husband of Queen Victoria, was taken up by him with so much energy, that the credit belongs to him. Under his auspices a Royal Commission for this purpose was issued in Jan., 1850, and on May 1, 1851, the exhibition was opened by the Queen in Hyde Park. It remained open till Oct. 15, 1851, having attained a success beyond all expectation. The buildings of glass and iron were subsequently removed to form the Crystal Palace at Sydenham. A second international exhibition was held from May to November, 1862; and since then many others have been held in London and almost every civilised capital.

Exton, Sir Piers, is supposed to have been a relative of Sir Nicholas Exton, who was Lord Mayor of London in 1386 and 1387. Exton is said to have murdered Richard II. in Pontefract Castle, but the whole circumstances of Richard's death are too obscure to allow us to charge him with the crime with any degree of confidence.

Extradition is the surrender of fugitives from justice by one state to another. No systematic usage in this matter prevailed until the nineteenth century. Perhaps the only early treaty containing a provision as to extradition was that of 1174, between William of Scotland and Henry II., wherein it was agreed that persons guilty of felony in England taking refuge in Scotland should be given up, and *vice versâ*. But the other

mediæval treaties usually quoted—*e.g.*, the *Intercursus Magnus* with Flanders in 1497—appear to have contained nothing more than general promises not to harbour rebels. The question of extradition seems to have been first investigated by Grotius and the jurists of the seventeenth century, who laid down the principle that states were bound, either by the law of nations or by reasons of "comity," to give up fugitive criminals; but the earliest distinct statement of English common law was the declaration of the Court of Exchequer in 1749, that "the government may send a prisoner to answer for a crime wherever committed." Yet such dicta, though recognising the duty of extradition, were of slight authority, and action upon them could have been prevented by an appeal for a writ of Habeas Corpus. England for the first time bound itself by treaty at the Peace of Amiens in 1802, in which it was agreed with France that fugitives charged with forgery, fraudulent bankruptcy, or murder should be surrendered. During the early part of the nineteenth century the law of extradition was rapidly developed in the United States, owing to the need of some arrangement between the States forming the Union and between the United States and Canada. In England, however, the history of extradition really begins with the treaties of 1842 with the United States, and of 1843 with France. In 1852 a new convention was made with France, and in this, for the first time, exception was made in the case of persons charged with political offences. Each of these treaties had been confirmed by Act of Parliament, the constitutional doctrine being that, though the crown could make extradition treaties, the executive could not carry them out without statutory authority. On the other hand, "it may be regarded as certain that England will not surrender fugitives except under a treaty" (Wheaton, *International Law*, ed. Boyd, § 116, *b*). The *Extradition Act* of 1870 empowered the executive to carry out extradition treaties made in accordance with its provisions, viz., that no fugitive should be surrendered for a political offence, nor tried for any but the crime for which he was demanded. Under this statute extradition treaties have been made with almost every European state, and with some others.

E. Clarke, *Law of Extradition*, 2nd ed., 1874.

[W. J. A.]

F

Fabyan, or **Fabian,** Robert (*d.* 1512), was an English chronicler of the fifteenth century. He was a prosperous London citizen, and became sheriff in 1493. His book, *A Concordance of Histories*, begins, as usual, with Brutus, and is a commonplace compilation up to his own time, when it becomes moderately useful as contemporary, if uncritical, evidence, and is especially full on London history. The first edition was printed in 1516.

Factory Legislation. The great development of English industry towards the end of the eighteenth century, unaccompanied by any State regulation or supervision, led to gross and wide-spread neglect of the commonest precautions for the preservation of the health of the workers. In the nineteenth century a long series of Acts were passed designed to protect the health of labourers in factories and workshops, and especially of women and children. The *Health and Morals Act* of 1802 (42 Geo. III., c. 73), was passed at the instance of Sir Robert Peel the elder. It provided for the cleansing and ventilation of factories; but the scandals of the apprentice system had produced the Act, and it was mainly directed to limiting the hours of apprentices' work to twelve a day, the prohibition for them of night work, with some arrangements for their clothing, education, and moral well-being. The *Second Factory Act* of 1819 (59 Geo. III., c. 56) was passed on the recommendation of a committee of the House of Commons, appointed in 1816. Its operation was limited to cotton-mills. By it, children under nine were not to be employed at all. Between nine and sixteen, they were not to work over twelve hours a day, and night work was prohibited. In 1833, *Lord Althorpe's Act* (3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 103) became law. It introduced the "half-time" principle for "children" (*i.e.*, those between nine and thirteen), and made their education out of work hours compulsory. The provisions confined by earlier Acts to cotton-mills were made more general, and a new departure was made by some provision for the welfare of "young persons" (*i.e.*, those between thirteen and eighteen). Inspectors were appointed to see the Acts carried out, as the justices had proved but inefficient executors of previous legislation. But a more general law was still wanted, and *Sir Robert Peel's Factory Act*, 1844 (7 & 8 Vict., c. 15), was passed. Lord Ashley's long and philanthropic agitation had won two victories over the government in the House of Commons in favour of a ten hours' limit to the labour of women and children. At last, Peel agreed to accept a twelve hours' limit, and the amended bill of Lord Ashley thus became law. Its provisions were that the working hours of children under thirteen should be diminished to six and a half hours per day; that the time during which they were to be under daily instruction in schools should be extended from two to two and a half hours in winter, and three hours in summer; that the labour of persons between thirteen and eighteen, and of adult women (now first brought under the Factory

Acts), should be limited to twelve hours a day; that a certificate of baptism should be produced, if demanded, to prove that the child was really of the age required by the law; that the amount of the fines imposed for the violation of the law should be diminished, but that they should be inflicted for each person improperly worked, instead of for each offence, which might include several persons; and that machinery should be guarded, to prevent accident. Inspectors were appointed to carry out the Act. In 1847, Mr. Fielden, member for Oldham, introduced and carried a bill which limited the labour of young people between the ages of thirteen and eighteen to twelve hours a day, allowing two hours out of the twelve for meals; and he further proposed that the same restriction should apply to females above eighteen years of age. The principle of State regulation of the labour of women and children was thus fully recognised. The piecemeal method of English legislation rendered it now necessary for the friends of the Factory Acts to get supplemental statutes passed to include the unprotected industries. Among these were the *Mining Act* of 1842, which entirely prohibited female and child labour in mines. In 1845, Lord Ashley's *Print-works Act* was passed. In 1850 a thorough measure for supervising mines was passed (*Coal and Iron Mines Act*). Not till 1860 were bleaching and dye-works included in the Acts; not till 1867 were all factories included in the scope of the *Factory Acts Extension and Workshop Regulation Acts* (30 & 31 Vict., c. 103 & 146); and even here small exceptions required subsequent legislation, and the mistake of the Act of 1867 in entrusting the working to local authority had to be corrected in 1871 by its transference to Government inspectors. In 1878 was passed Sir R. A. (afterwards Viscount) Cross's *Factory and Workshop Act* (41 Vict., c. 16), repealing, consolidating, and amending all prior Acts. There was further legislation in 1891 and 1895. In 1901 an Act was passed consolidating, with amendments, all previous Acts. In 1886 Sir John Lubbock's *Shop Hours Act*, amended 1892, limiting the hours of labour for young persons in retail shops, was passed, and a Shop Assistants (Seats) Act in 1899.

Von Plener, *English Factory Legislation*, translated by Weinman, is the standard history. For the working of the Acts, see *Report of the Factory Acts Commission*. Notcutt's *Law Relating to Factories* will explain the present law. A briefer account can be found in Stanley Jevons, *The State in Relation to Labour*.

Fairfax, Ferdinando (*b.* 1584, *d.* 1648), 2nd Baron (of Cameron, in the peerage of Scotland), son of Sir Thomas Fairfax, of Denton, Yorkshire, married Mary, daughter of Lord Sheffield. Lord Fairfax represented Yorkshire in the Long Parliament, and was appointed, in Nov., 1642, commander-in-chief of the Parliamentary forces in the northern counties. After some successes he was obliged to retreat into the West Riding before the superior forces of the Marquis of Newcastle, and suffered a severe defeat at Adwalton Moor, near Bradford (June 30, 1643). With the remainder of his troops he made his way to Hull, which he successfully held against Newcastle's army, until he forced them to raise the siege (Sept. 2—Oct. 11, 1643). He took part in the battle of Marston Moor, and on the capture of York by the combined army (July, 1644) was appointed its governor. He resigned in consequence of the Self-Denying Ordinance, and died March 14, 1648.

Fairfax, Thomas, 3rd Lord (*b.* Jan. 12, 1612, *d.* 1671), son of the preceding, was educated at St. John's College, Cambridge, and married Anne, daughter of Lord Vere (1637). He served in the royal army against the Scots, and was knighted by the king for his services. When the Civil War began he acted as his father's lieutenant in Yorkshire. On Jan. 23, 1643, he recaptured Leeds, and on May 21st Wakefield, making on the latter occasion 1,400 prisoners. After the defeat at Adwalton Moor, at which he was present, he made his way to Hull, but during the siege joined Cromwell in Lincolnshire with his Yorkshire horse, and helped to gain the battle of Winceby (Oct. 12, 1643). On Jan. 28, 1644, he defeated the king's Irish troops at Nantwich, and reconquered the county of Cheshire for the Parliament. On April 12th he defeated Lord Bellasis, the Governor of York, at Selby, taking 1,600 prisoners. He took part in the siege of York, and commanded the right wing of the Parliamentary horse at Marston Moor, and after the rout of that wing joined Lord Manchester's division. After the victory he was occupied in reducing the Yorkshire fortresses. These successes led the House of Commons to appoint him commander of the New Model Army (Jan. 21, 1645). He took the field at the end of April, 1645, with the intention of relieving Taunton, but was recalled from the West to besiege Oxford. On the news of the king's capture of Leicester, he raised the siege of Oxford (June 5), and overtook and defeated Charles at Naseby (June 14). Then he turned westward again, relieved Taunton, defeated Goring at Langport (July 10), and captured Bridgwater, Bristol, Tiverton, and other Royalist strongholds. With the defeat of Sir Ralph Hopton at Torrington, early in 1646 (Feb. 16), the subjugation of the West was completed, and the surrenders of Oxford (June 24) and Raglan (Aug. 19) brought the first Civil War to an end. In the quarrels which took place next year between the army and the Parliament, Fairfax, after labouring hard to effect a reconciliation, cast in his lot with the army, and shared the responsibility for the

expulsion of the eleven members. On the outbreak of the second Civil War, Fairfax defeated the Kentish Royalists at Maidstone (June 1, 1648), and after ten weeks' siege obliged those who had taken refuge in Colchester to surrender. He seems to have been willing to approve of the trial and deposition of the king, but he refused to sit in the High Court of Justice, and on June 25, 1650, resigned his command rather than invade Scotland. During the Protectorate he took no part in public affairs. In Richard Cromwell's Parliament he represented Yorkshire, and after the dissolution of that assembly was appointed by the Rump a member of the Council of State, but did not act. When Monk marched into England Fairfax raised volunteers, was joined by a large part of Lambert's forces, and occupied York. He openly declared for a free Parliament, and for the restoration of the king (Jan., 1660), thus exercising an important influence in bringing about the Restoration. His death took place in 1671. He was an able general and an honest man, but had none of the qualities of a statesman, so that, to use the phrase of Clarendon, he was throughout "overwitted" by Cromwell.

Fairfax, *Short Memorials* in the *Antiquarian Repertory*, vol. iii., 1808; C. Markham, *Life of the Great Lord Fairfax*; Whitelocke, *Memorials*; Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion*. [C. H. F.]

Falconberg, Elizabeth, Countess of (*b.* 1637, *d.* 1712), was the third daughter of Oliver Cromwell; she was married in 1657 to Viscount (afterwards Earl of) Falconberg. Always attached to the Church of England, she exerted herself in favour of the Restoration. During Charles II.'s reign she frequently appeared at court.

Falconberg, William Neville, Lord (*d.* 1462), was the son of Ralph, Earl of Westmorland, and brother of the Earl of Salisbury. He distinguished himself in the siege of Orleans and other operations in France in Henry VI.'s reign. He espoused the Yorkist cause, and fought at Towton. In 1461 he was made Earl of Kent.

Falconbridge, or **Fauconberg,** The Bastard of, was an illegitimate son of William Neville, Lord Falconberg. In 1471 he landed in Kent to make a last attempt in favour of Henry VI. He got together some men, and forced an entrance into London, with the design of liberating Henry from the Tower. But when he burned Aldgate and London Bridge, the citizens rose against him, and he was compelled to retire. This attempt made it necessary for Edward to put Henry to death.

Falkirk was the scene of a battle between the Scotch and the English, July 22, 1298. This was fought in the valley between the town of Falkirk and the River Carron, resulting in a victory for the English, who were commanded by Edward I., the Earl Marshal, and Anthony Beck, Bishop of Durham, over a far inferior Scotch force, led by Wallace and Sir John Grahame, the latter of whom was killed. Wallace had arranged the Scottish pikemen, on whom he mainly relied, in four circular bodies, connected by archers. The front was defended by palisades, and by a morass beyond them. Behind the main body was marshalled the cavalry, to prevent retreat. Well might Wallace say, "I have brocht you to the king, hop gif ye can." The first attacks of the English, led by the Earl Marshal, failed through the English becoming entangled in the morass. The Bishop of Durham then attempted a flank charge, to avoid the bog, but was equally unsuccessful. A third attack by the king in person changed the fortunes of the day. The circles were broken by the English archers, and the mounted knights completed the destruction of the enemy. The Scottish army was completely shattered, and Wallace, though he escaped from the field, remained a hunted fugitive for the short remainder of his life.

Falkirk, The Battle of (1746), was fought between the royal troops and the Young Pretender, the former being defeated.

Falkland, Henry Carey, Lord (*d.* 1633), was Deputy of Ireland between 1622 and 1629. His inquiry into defective titles, and transplantation of many native septs in favour of English settlers, were among the causes of the Rebellion of 1641. But his comparatively mild government was ill adapted to carry out Charles I.'s policy, and he was removed to make room for Strafford.

Falkland, Lucius Carey, Lord, son of the preceding (*b.* 1610, *d.* 1643), was educated at Dublin, and served in the Low Countries. Returning to his seat of Great Tew, in Oxfordshire, he gathered round him there, and at the neighbouring university, a small band of liberal theologians. In 1640 he entered the Long Parliament. A devoted lover of Constitutionalism, and an opponent of arbitrary power in any shape, Falkland had no sympathy with the government of Strafford and Charles; but he believed that the royal government might be amended or reformed. He accordingly became the leader of that Parliamentary Royalist party that almost succeeded in preventing the passage of the Grand Remonstrance. He very unwillingly joined the war on the Royalist side, and almost courted the death he met at Newbury, his last words being "Peace, peace." His personal gifts, liberal spirit, and relations to the parties of his time, invest his career with unusual interest.

Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion*; Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng.*, *1603—16*[illegible].

Falkland Castle, in Fifeshire, was the scene of the Duke of Rothesay's murder

in 1482. In 1592, Lord Bothwell made one of his numerous attempts to seize James VI. while he was in the castle.

Falkland Islands, The, are a group of islands lying in the South Atlantic, and consisting of East and West Falkland, together with about two hundred smaller islands; they were discovered by John Davis in 1592. In 1690 an English navigator, named Strong, gave them their present name. In 1765 Commodore Byron took possession of them for the crown of England. In 1764 a French colony had settled there, but Spain got rid of this in 1766 and expelled the English garrison in 1767. This nearly led to war, but after much negotiation the Spanish garrison was withdrawn in 1771. The uncertainty of the tenure on which England now claimed to hold the islands, without occupying them, afforded a theme for Junius and for Samuel Johnson. In 1820 the Buenos Ayres Government formed a settlement and so revived the dormant British claim, which was made effective in 1832. Now they are chiefly used as a whaling-station and for the purposes of sheep-farming. They are ruled by a governor, assisted by an executive council and a legislative council, both of which are appointed by the crown. The population is about 2,200.

Lucas, *Historical Geography of the British Empire.*

Family Compact, The, is the name applied to various treaties between the Bourbon Kings of Spain and France during the eighteenth century. The first compact began in 1733, and being specially directed against English trade led, in 1739, to a war between Spain and England. The more famous compact was in 1761, and its object was to associate Spain to France in the Seven Years' War. Pitt had timely warning of the agreement, and the refusal of George III. to sanction an attack on Spain led to his resignation. But when the compact became known, war was inevitable.

Famine, The Cotton, is the name generally given to the distress among the cotton operatives in Lancashire, in 1862–64, due to the stoppage of their raw material by the blockade of Southern ports in the American War of Secession. Great efforts at relief were made: in April, 1863, the gifts for this purpose, in money and kind, were estimated by the chairman of the Central Relief Committee at over £2,000,000. By 1864 the distress was over.

Famine, The Potato (Ireland). In 1847 a failure of the potato crop caused the superabundant cottier population of Ireland to experience severe distress, which, coming after several years of scarcity, soon became as serious as an absolute famine. Despite the repeal of the Corn Laws and the exertions of State and private benevolence, many perished, and more escaped by emigrating to America. Among the political consequences of the famine was the revolutionary movement of Smith O'Brien in 1848, but more important was the social and economical revolution which the famine effected. The diminution of the population from eight millions to not much more than five; the disappearance of cottier tenancy in many parts of Ireland; great changes in the ownership and cultivation of land; the introduction of the "English system" of competition and free contract; the raising in some degree of the standard of living; and the creation of a new set of grievances, while old ones were removed—all flowed from the potato famine.

Famines, Indian. The irregularity of the rainfall of a tropical climate, hostile invasion, plagues of locusts, storms, imperfections in the system of transport, and excessive export of grain, have been the many causes of Indian famine. A dense and poor population, whose increase is checked by no prudential restraints, and which has few manufactures as a refuge when agriculture fails, must always be liable to experience the worst forms of such scarcities. The removal of the old positive checks on population by the strong government of the English has, if anything, increased the tendency to famine, though better organisation of relief has made their effects often less disastrous. But in the early years of English rule in India (notably in 1770, 1781—83, and again in 1790—92) there were severe famines. The experience of these years led to the beginning of those remedial measures which have in recent times made Indian famines, which still recur with disastrous frequency, much less terrible. In 1860 and 1861 no rain fell between the Jumna and the Sutlej, and the sufferings of the people were frightful. No less than 500,000 human beings are believed to have perished, and the whole of the population, notwithstanding the benevolent exertions of government and individuals, and the receipt of large subscriptions from England, endured misery which it was hopeless to alleviate in proportion to the existing necessity. In 1865 rain failed in Orissa, and scarcity began to prevail, which passed into absolute famine almost without notice, and certainly without precaution. Till it reached an alarming height, the government of Bengal was inactive, and the time passed by in which supplies of grain could be sent by sea. When the people were perishing in thousands, no vessel could approach the coast, and the supplies forwarded by land were utterly insufficient to meet the general wants. The immediate destruction of human life was estimated at two millions, and the amount of human suffering had been incalculably great. At the end of 1873, over a large tract of

country estimated to contain no less than 28 millions of people, comprising several important provinces of Bengal and Behar, the great harvest of the year was hopelessly withering for want of rain. The April crop of 1874 also proved a failure. The government made great efforts. The stock of rice it purchased amounted to 500,000 tons. The difficulty, however, was how to distribute it; but the government overcame this so effectually, that it is said that fewer persons died of starvation in Bengal and Behar than in an ordinary year. The cost of the relief operations was ten millions. In 1876 and 1877 the rainfall was lamentably deficient, and in the latter year failed altogether over parts of Madras, Bombay, Hyderabad, and Mysore. In 1876 the area of failure was so vast that famine prices were inevitable. All that could be were employed on public works; gratuitous relief began on a large scale, and the activity of the government staved off a vast amount of distress. Much the same may be said of the famine of 1896–7, which affected also North-Western India and Bengal. In 1899–1900 occurred another dreadful famine, affecting tracts covering 475,000 square miles, while at one time 6,500,000 persons were receiving relief. A great deal has been done of late years in the way of permanent irrigation works and railways, with a view of preventing the recurrence of famine.

Famosus Libellus was the title of a document sent by Edward III. in 1341 to all the bishops and chapters in the kingdom, containing the recapitulation of all the charges which the king had brought against Archbishop Stratford.

Farm, especially in the forms *firma comitatus* (farm of the shire), and *firma burgi* (farm of the borough), was the technical name for the composition paid—in the former case by the sheriff, and the latter by the rudimentary corporation [Towns]—to the crown or lord in return for the privilege of collecting and appropriating the taxes of the district.

Farnham Castle, the residence of the Bishops of Winchester, overlooking the town of that name in the S.W. angle of Surrey, was built by Henry de Blois, destroyed by Henry III. as adulterine, but rebuilt subsequently. It was governed by Denham for Charles I., and captured by Waller in 1642, when its fortifications were finally demolished.

Fast Castle, a famous stronghold on the coast of North Berwickshire near St. Abb's Head, was the place to which the conspirators in the Gowrie plot (q.v.) proposed to carry off James VI.

Fastolf, Sir John (*d.* 1459), was an English general of some reputation in the struggles for the retention of France under Henry VI. In 1429 he was thoroughly beaten at Patay by the Maid of Orleans. In the Paston Letters we have copious accounts of his private life: these show him to have been hard, grasping, and litigious. It has been suggested that he was the prototype of Shakespeare's Falstaff, with whom he has nothing in common, except it be in the resemblance between their names.

J. Gairdner, Introd. to *Paston Letters.*

Favourite, a word of ill-omen in English history, is generally used to designate a person who, having ingratiated himself with the sovereign, uses his power unworthily and for his own ends, who unduly influences his master, and who, without sharing ministerial responsibility, becomes practically the chief minister of the realm. We can hardly consider such men as Edric Streona (q.v.) in the light of favourites, and besides, the Anglo-Saxon constitution did not afford much opportunity for the favourite. The Norman kings were too wise to endanger their position by favouritism, and the same may be said of the early Plantagenets. Flambard and Falkes de Breauté are unworthy instruments in the hands of unscrupulous kings, and the power of such creatures is not derived from the mere favour of royalty. The real beginning of favouritism in England may be seen in the Poitevins and Savoyards who thronged to the court of Henry III., and of whom the unknown satirist of the day says:—

"A paltry set of curs is troubling all the land—
Drive out or let them die, that base ungodly band."

Edward II.'s favourite, Gaveston, is typical of the class—handsome, brave, and high-spirited, armed with all the accomplishments of the age, but arrogant, self-seeking, and utterly reckless of consequences, whether to himself or to his master. The opposition is heightened by the fact that he is a foreigner, but the same objection cannot be urged against the Despencers, who succeeded Gaveston in Edward's affections. Here the opposition is personal, and is directed also against those influences which tend to separate the king from his barons. But the displacement of the Despencers and their weak-minded master only brings on the scene a far more criminal favourite than any that had appeared before. For nearly four years England is under the rule of Roger Mortimer, whose criminal intrigue with the queen is the chief source of his power. At the end of Edward III.'s reign the king falls for a time under the influence of a worthless woman, Alice Perrers, who abuses her power, not only by obtaining lands and possessions for herself, but by interfering with the course of justice. The next reign is that of a young prince who makes a bold attempt to govern by ministers of his own choice; but favouritism creeps in, and De Vere must fall into the same category with the Despencers, even if De la Pole does not deserve the title of favourite. Henry VI. and his queen, by the power they gave to

Suffolk and Somerset, alienated the nobles, and laid themselves open to the charge of favouritism, an accusation which their antagonists were only too glad to take up. The influence of such a woman as Jane Shore in the time of Edward IV. was probably not very great, though Richard III. thought it worth while to make a severe example of her. The Tudors were far too able and far too determined to desire or need the aid of favourites, and the relations of Leicester and Essex to Queen Elizabeth were rather of a personal than of a political character. James I.'s nature needed some friend to lean upon, and he found his favourite, first in Somerset, and, subsequently, in Buckingham. Charles II. was too astute to injure his position by favouritism, and the secret advisers of James II., such as Father Petre, based their influence on religious rather than on personal grounds. The Dutch followers of William III. were unjustly stigmatised as favourites, a name more deservedly applied to Lady Marlborough and Mrs. Masham in the next reign, or to the venal mistresses of the first two Georges. Constitutional government made favouritism impossible. Bute was stigmatised as a favourite, but George's effort to make him supreme in the councils of the nation was mainly part of that king's persistent policy to nominate his own ministers. Favouritism may now be considered extinct, and the methods of government have become of such a character that its revival is hardly likely. [F. S. P.]

Fawkes, Guy (*b.* 1570, *d.* 1606), was the agent and most famous conspirator in the Gunpowder Plot. A Yorkshireman by birth, he became a Catholic, and having wasted his patrimony, served with the Spanish army in the Netherlands, whence he returned to attempt to carry out the well-known conspiracy with which his name is inseparably connected. He was executed in 1606. [Gunpowder Plot.]

Fealty is, as its etymology shows, a promise of fidelity, made by one man to another. As used in a technical sense in feudal law it differs from homage, in that it had no connection with the holding of land, and from allegiance, which was due to the sovereign only, and was a national, not a feudal obligation. The oath of fealty was taken at the time of doing homage, and when not taken to the king, in words something like these—"Hear you this, my lord A, that I, B, from this day forward will bear you faith of life and limb, saving my faith to the king and his heirs (*i.e.*, saving the oath of allegiance which was taken by every subject), and the services which belong to you for the fees and tenements I hold of you, lawfully will perform to you, as they become due, to the best of my power, so help me God and the saints." On the Continent generally, and in palatinate jurisdictions in England, the oath of fealty would be taken absolutely without any saving clause reserving duty to the monarch as above. [Feudalism.]

Fearchar Fada (*i.e.*, the Tall), chief of the Dalriadic tribe of Cinel Loarn, endeavoured unsuccessfully to throw off the yoke of the Britons and Angles, in 678, in which year three battles were fought. In 685 he joined forces with Brude, son of Bile, and advanced with great success against his enemies. He died 697.

Feckenham, John (*d.* 1585), last Abbot of Westminster, was under Henry VIII. an Anglican, and Bonner's chaplain. He was imprisoned throughout the reign of Edward VI., and rewarded by Mary with the abbacy of the revived monastery of Westminster. He is described as "a man full of tender and gentle humanity," and all parties speak well of him. He attended the first Parliament of Elizabeth, but was deprived and imprisoned, and though regaining partial liberty in 1578 by partial conformity, was again imprisoned till his death.

Felony. The original meaning of this word is still obscure. According to Mr. Skeat (*Etymol. Dict.*), "felon" is of Celtic origin, from a verb meaning to betray, deceive, fail. This may explain the fact that the early feudal lawyers constantly used the term "felony" to describe an act of treason or disobedience to a lord "by which a fief is lost"—*e.g.*, refusal to follow the lord to war, or neglect for a year and a day to ask investiture. Thus the term became associated with the idea of forfeiture, and was extended to *crimes* of such a nature as to induce forfeiture of lands or goods. Hence arose the division of crimes into *felonies* and *misdemeanours*, though no clear definition of either word is possible. Not all crimes involving forfeiture are felonies; for this would include misprision of treason, which is only a misdemeanour. "If felony is defined as a crime punishable with death, it excludes petty larceny, which was never capital, and includes piracy, which was never felony. Felony was substantially a name for the more heinous crimes, and all felonies were punishable by death, except petty larceny and mayhem (*i.e.*, maiming), which came by degrees to be treated as a misdemeanour. If a crime was made felony by statute, the use of the name implied the punishment of death, subject, however, to the rules as to benefit of clergy. Thus, broadly speaking, felony may be defined as the name appropriated to crimes punishable by death, misdemeanours being a name for all minor offences" (Stephen, *Hist. of Crim. Law*, ch. xx.). There are two main differences as to procedure in cases of felony and misdemeanour. In the first place, a warrant is not necessary for arrests for felony, while, as a rule, it is necessary for misde-

meanour; and secondly, a person committed for trial for felony is not entitled to be bailed, while a person accused of misdemeanour is usually so entitled. Since, however, milder punishments have been substituted for death, and the Felony Act of 1870 has abolished forfeiture, the distinction between felonies and misdemeanours has become of little practical importance.

Stephen, *Hist. of the Criminal Law.*

Felton, JOHN (*d.* 1628). A dismissed officer of the army who, partly from private wrongs, partly from fanaticism, assassinated the Duke of Buckingham in 1628, at Portsmouth. He was hanged at Tyburn.

Fenian Conspiracy, THE. The name is said to be derived from Fion or Finn MacCoul, the Fingul of Macpherson's Ossian. The Fenians formed at one time a sort of standing militia in Ireland. The Fenian "brotherhood" was formed in Ireland and the United States, to liberate Ireland from the connection with England and establish a republic. Secret drillings in connection with this society began to take place frequently in 1864, but the society is supposed to have been formed as early as 1858. On Sept. 15, 1864, the Irish government of Lord Wodehouse at last became possessed of information convincing them of the treasonable character of these proceedings. In consequence, between the 16th and 30th of that month, sixty-five persons were arrested in Dublin and about twenty in Cork, while O'Donovan Rossa, who was one of the conspirators, also had his paper, the *Irish People*, confiscated. Stephens, the "Head Centre," was arrested, but was enabled to make his escape. A commission had since November been sitting in Ireland to try the prisoners, and many of them, including O'Donovan Rossa, were convicted of treason felony, and sentenced to periods of penal servitude varying from five to ten years. Important discoveries of documents had also been made. In May, 1866, the American Fenians made a raid into Canada, but were promptly repulsed. Late in the autumn large stores of arms were seized, and the garrison of Ireland largely increased; but no blood was shed. In 1867 the rebellion so long threatened seemed at last to be breaking out. On Feb. 11th came an attempt to surprise Chester, and on the 12th an outbreak in Kerry. The defence of Kilmallock police barracks, however, showed the feebleness of the movement. In March followed an attack on the barracks at Tallaght; it was repulsed, and 208 prisoners were brought into Dublin. The spirit of the Fenians in Ireland was now quite broken; thus, 1,000 men who held the market-place at Drogheda fled at the approach of a few policemen. In May a special commission began to sit to try the rebels, and many of them were convicted. None were, however, executed. On Sept. 18 an attack was made on a police van at Manchester, and on Dec. 13 the attempt to blow up Clerkenwell Gaol. In Ireland, in 1868, attacks on isolated martello towers became frequent, and the Habeas Corpus Act was again suspended till March 1, 1869. In 1870 a Fenian raid into Manitoba was driven back by the militia, and, in 1871 a similar attempt was roughly put down by United States troops, General Grant having issued a proclamation against them. In Jan., 1871, most of the Fenian convicts had been released, and were uproariously welcomed in the United States. But the organisation of Irish sedition passed into different hands, and the Fenian leaders lost their influence. The French Communist General, Cluseret, who had been in the Fenian service, says, most probably with truth:—"Their insurrection was foolishly planned, and still more foolishly executed."

Annual Register; Fraser's Magazine, 1872; McCarthy, *Hist. of Our Own Times;* O'Leary, *Recollections of Fenianism.*

Fennington Bridge, THE BATTLE OF (1549), was fought in Devonshire between the royal troops, under Lord Russell and Sir Peter Carew, and the Cornish rebels, who were completely defeated.

Fenwick, SIR JOHN (*d.* 1697). A zealous Tory member of the Parliament of 1685, who became, after the Restoration, one of the most ardent Jacobite conspirators. In 1695 he joined Charnock, Porter, and others in designs against the king, which ripened next year into the Assassination Plot. His fellow-conspirator, Porter, informed the government of the whole intrigue, and Sir John attempted to escape to France, but was arrested near Romney Marsh. He was committed to the Tower. In order to gain time, he offered to disclose all he knew touching the Jacobite plots. His artful confession, while silent about the real Jacobite plotters, contained a great deal of evidence—mostly true, no doubt — against Marlborough, Godolphin, Russell, and Shrewsbury, who had from time to time intrigued with the court of St. Germains. Furious at the charges brought against their party, the Whigs determined to pursue the subject. Fenwick was examined by William, but refused to make any disclosures. He had heard that his wife, Lady Mary Fenwick, had succeeded in getting Goodman—the only other witness against him—out of the country, and Porter's evidence remained unsupported. But the Whigs, not to be baulked of their prey, brought in a bill of attainder against him, which the Commons passed, by 186 to 156. The bill passed through its first stage in the Lords without a division. After a violent struggle, the second reading was carried, by 73 to 53, and the third, by 68 votes to 61. On Jan. 28 Fenwick was executed. Hallam's opinion on the act of attainder is

that, "it did not, like some acts of attainder, inflict a punishment beyond the offence, but supplied the deficiency of legal evidence." Yet, allowing the substantial justice of the sentence, it is questionable whether it was not ill-advised to break from the rigid rules of law, especially for so second-rate a person as Fenwick.

State Trials; Commons' Journals; Hallam, *Const. Hist.;* Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.;* Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*

Feormfultum, corresponding to the *Naturalia* of the Franks, was in Anglo-Saxon times partly a tax, partly a gift in kind, levied on the produce of the land for the support of the king and his household.

Fergus, Lord of Galloway (*d.* 1161), was contemporary with David I. of Scotland, whom he assisted with soldiers at the Battle of the Standard. In 1160 he joined the sons of Malcolm MacBeth against King Malcolm, but was forced to submit to the royal power. He retired to a monastery, and died 1161. He married Elizabeth, natural daughter of Henry I.

Fergus Mor (*d.* 501), son of Erc, King of Irish Dalriada, crossed over at the end of the fifth century with his brothers, Loarn Mor and Angus, and founded in Argyleshire a Scottish colony, which afterwards developed into the kingdom of Dalriada.

Ferguson, Robert (*d.* 1714). A Scotch clergyman who got a living in England, but, being a Presbyterian, was expelled in 1762, and became a schoolmaster and Dissenting preacher. He was a man of bad character, and constantly involved in plots. Being a furious Whig, he was expelled from England after the failure of the Rye House Plot. He then went to Holland, instigated and took part in Monmouth's rebellion, escaped after Sedgemoor, and joined William III.'s expedition. Disgusted, however, at his inadequate reward, he turned Jacobite, and shared in the Assassination Plot and Montgomery's Plot. Notwithstanding his connection with so many conspiracies, he escaped every danger, and died a natural death.

Ferozeshar, The Battle of (Dec. 21, 1845), was fought between the Sikhs under Lall Sing, 35,000 in number, with 100 guns, and the English under Sir Hugh Gough. The English began operations by attacking at night the entrenched camp of the enemy round the village of Ferozeshar; but the storm of shot was terrific, and entirely frustrated the rash attempt to carry the camp by a charge. When day dawned the assault was renewed, and as quarrels had broken out among the Sikh leaders, the resistance was comparatively feeble, and the Sikhs were finally put to flight. That this battle was the most severe ever fought in India was due almost as much to the rash blundering of the English as to the valour of the Sikhs. [Sikh Wars.]

Ferrar, Robert, Bishop of St. David's (*d.* 1555), was deprived of his see by Mary, having previously been imprisoned by Northumberland, at the instance of some of his clergy who accused him of neglect of duty. He was condemned for heresy, and burnt at Carmarthen, March 30, 1555. Mr. Froude says of him:—"He was a man of large humanity, justice, and uprightness, neither conspicuous as a theologian nor prominent as a preacher, but remarkable chiefly for good sense and a kindly imaginative tenderness." This seems a rather exaggerated view of a very ordinary man, who, with excellent intentions, was quite unable to cope with the difficulties of his position.

Ferrers, George (*b.* 1512, *d.* 1579). A lawyer, dramatist, and poet of some celebrity, mainly remembered from his connection with a famous case of privilege of Parliament. In 1543, while member for Plymouth, he was imprisoned for debt. Parliament took up his case, and compelled the Sheriff of London, with his officers and the creditor as well, to appear at the bar, and sent them all to prison. A remarkable trial followed, leading to Ferrers's release by virtue of his privilege. Henry VIII., in whose service Ferrers was, warmly took up his cause.

Hatsell's *Precedents;* Hallam, *Const. Hist.*

Ferrybridge, The Battle of (1461), was fought just before the battle of Towton. The Yorkists who were at Pontefract attempted to secure the passage of the Aire at Ferrybridge; but a body of light cavalry under Lord Clifford was detached by the Lancastrians, attacked and defeated the Yorkists, and slew Lord Fitzwalter their leader. The Yorkists, however, succeeded in crossing the Aire at Castleford, three miles higher up the river, and in attempting to regain the main body of the Lancastrians at Towton, Clifford was defeated and slain.

Fethanleag, The Battle of (584), was fought between Ceawlin and Cutha, Kings of the West Saxons and the Britons. Cutha was slain, and Ceawlin, though he took many towns and countless booty, says the Chronicle, returned in anger to his own country. Henry of Huntingdon says that the English were defeated, but afterwards rallied by Ceawlin, and so won the day. Dr. Guest identifies his Fethanleag with Faddiley, near Nantwich, in Cheshire, and regards the battle as a critical one in the conquest of the Severn Valley by the English. As compared with the great victory of Deorham in 577, which gave the Welsh the Lower Severn, it was a check on the English. If, as Dr. Guest holds, Ceawlin's destruction of Uriconium, lamented in the

Welsh elegy on the death of Cynddylan, marked the beginning of the campaign, the defeat of Faddiley left the Middle Severn Welsh until the days of Offa, and even Chester until the reign of Ethelfrith.

Anglo-Saxon Chronicle; Guest, *The Conquest of the Severn Valley* (*Origines Celticæ*, vol. ii.).

Feudalism (for etymology see FIEF) is in its most general sense defined as an organisation of society based on land tenure. It is applied specially to the system which arose in Western Europe after the dissolution of the Carlovingian Empire, and also less fully to special and analogous systems which sprang up among the Germanic peoples not directly included in that empire—as England or Sweden—but where similar tendencies afterwards manifested themselves. We must distinguish feudalism in its legal, political, and even in its vaguer social aspects. Legal feudalism indicates a certain method of land tenure. Political feudalism followed when every regalian right became attached to ownership of land by a feudal tenure. The social ideal of a feudal society necessarily followed at a later stage.

The main source of feudalism, both in England and on the Continent, is to be found in the primitive German Constitution. The settlement of the wandering nations had made that primitive personal polity a territorial one, and its essentially unprogressive character on the old lines necessitated a new system to meet the varying needs of a progressive society. Contact with dying Imperialism precipitated but did not create this process out of which feudalism sprang.

In the Frankish Empire, Charles the Great bound together the national German state of the Franks, the traditions of Roman law and empire, and his own gift of a powerful administrative system. Under his feeble descendants this system broke down. After the anarchy which this process occasioned, the organised anarchy of feudalism arose, from the beneficiary system, the practice of commendation, and the grants of immunity which were superadded to them. The king was in the habit of granting lands out of his own vast estates to followers on the special promise of fidelity, and lesser proprietors in full sovereignty surrendered their nominal *alod* to a great church or noble, to receive it back as a tenant protected by a powerful patron. These lands were the *beneficia*, the territorial source of feudalism, and the condition on which they were very commonly held was military service. Commendation was personal, and consisted in a man submitting himself to a lord, whose vassal and man [HOMAGE; VASSAL] he became. "The union of the beneficiary tie with that of commendation," says Dr. Stubbs, "completed the idea of feudal obligation." The third element arose as follows. The national courts had become stereotyped or ineffective, and it became customary to unite to the grant of a beneficium a grant to its lord of power to exercise full jurisdiction within it. Thus the fief or benefice was withdrawn from the national system, and when these grants of immunity from the courts of the *gau* became general, and when political functions followed judicial ones, we have the complete feudalism of eleventh century France—when, though ties of feudal dependence united the meanest vassal to the crown as supreme overlord, the national system had become obliterated, central power nominal, and all real power in the hands of a multitude of landowners, who had every regalian right in their own estate. This was the system which the barons of Normandy lived under, and which they would fain have brought to England with them.

In England, however, a similar but independent process had set in. The *Comitatus* of the old Germans which had died out in Gaul, became in England the source of a new organisation of society. The king's *thegns*, the *comites* in a later stage, received with grants of folkland, grants of immunities from the jurisdiction of the popular courts, which resulted in the establishment of practical feudalism on these *soken* or franchises. The free man bowed his neck for bread or protection. Everything became territorialised. What was originally the exception rapidly tended to become the rule. The great earls, as on the Continent, gradually threw off their neutral character. Harold suggests the parallel of Hugh Capet, and Continental feudalism found a soil ready to receive it.

William I. and his sons brought with them feudal theory and feudal practice. To him, as to his barons, no legal theory of tenure was possible but the feudal one; and the generation after the Conquest saw feudalism in its legal aspect established universally in England. But William had seen how feudalism as a system of government meant mere anarchy in Normandy, and did his best to prevent its introduction into England. The barons naturally desired as much power here as at home; but save in the Border Palatinates [PALATINE COUNTIES; BORDERS], and then in Wales and Ireland, which the barons won as independent adventurers, the Norman kings refused them this. Rebellion after rebellion broke out and was crushed. At last Henry I.'s defeat of Robert of Belesme settled the question for his reign. Under Stephen the barons won the day, and then alone did feudal government prevail in England. Henry II., in 1174, put down the final revolt of the feudal party. His administrative system rendered his triumph permanent. Only under Henry III.'s minority were there some slight tendencies to a feudal survival. Edward I. destroyed the political importance of land tenure. Henceforth the barons fought, not to abolish the

central state in favour of feudal localism, but to get the machinery of the central state into their own hands. They fought, not to get rid of the crown, but to put the monarchy in commission. The chivalry of the fourteenth century, though the result of a feudal ideal, was powerless to bring back real feudalism. The baronial power perished with the Wars of the Roses. The legal theory remained, with its obligation of fealty and homage, its incidents of aids, wardships, marriage, its military service, and other effects.

James I. unsuccessfully attempted to abolish feudal tenures. An Act of 1660 actually effected this. The very indefinite sense in which feudalism is sometimes used as indicating the power of the landed aristocracy need not be dealt with. Yet the English land law remains full of vestiges of feudalism. Every copyholder still owes to the lord of the manor the feudal incidents. Lands of the intestate and kinless deceased still escheat to the next lord.

For English feudalism, Stubbs's *Constitutional History* is the supreme authority. Waitz's *Deutsche Verfassungsgeschichte* stands in similar relation to the feudalism of the Frank Empire. The eighteenth century treatises and the law books are all tainted by the false theory of the origin of feudalism, which Waitz finally demolished. Many of the French writers whose works would otherwise be of great value, suffer from the same defect. Roth's *Geschichte des Beneficialwesens und Feudalität*, is a supplement and check on Waitz, with whom he is at variance on some important points. References to the special articles on each of the feudal incidents will supply the details of the feudal system in England. [T. F. T.]

Feversham, Louis Duras, Earl of. A French noble, nephew of Turenne, who entered the English service under Charles II. and James II., commanded the army which defeated Monmouth at Sedgemoor, and, though his incapacity in that campaign was only equalled by his brutality, was made general-in-chief of the army that James II. collected to overawe his people. In 1688 he disbanded that army, and was for a time imprisoned by William III.

Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*

Fief, or **Fee** (Lat. *feudum, feodum*), is derived from the old German word for cattle (modern High German, *Vieh;* old High German, *fihu;* Gothic, *faihu;* Old English, *feoh*), which got to be used in the sense of money or property in general (cf. *pecunia*). It is very doubtful whether the second syllable has any connection with *od*, also meaning property. The word first appears in the ninth century, and gradually acquires the technical meaning of land held of a lord by feudal tenure [Feudalism] or military service.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.;* Ducange, *Glossary* (s.v.).

Fielden, John, originally a labourer, became master of a factory, and from 1832—1847 was M.P. for Oldham. He is chiefly remembered by his exertions in favour of the Factory Acts, especially the Ten Hours Bill.

Fiennes. [Say and Sele, Lord.]

Fiennes, Nathaniel, second son of Lord Say and Sele, was educated at Winchester and at New College, Oxford. He was elected member of the Long Parliament for Banbury, and became a leader amongst the "Root and Branch" party. He was appointed in 1641 one of the committee to attend the king to Scotland. In 1642 he accepted a colonel's commission in Essex's army, and took part in the battle of Edgehill. In the following year he surrendered Bristol to Prince Rupert (July, 1643), under circumstances which made him suspected of either treachery or cowardice. For this he was accused by Walker and Prynne, tried by court martial, and sentenced to death. His former services, and his family interest, secured him a pardon, but he was obliged to abandon public affairs, and leave the kingdom for several years. He returned, regained the confidence of his party, and became, in January, 1648, a member of the Committee of the Two Kingdoms, but was expelled from Parliament by Pride's Purge. In Cromwell's first Parliament he represented the county, in the second the University, of Oxford. He became a member of the Council of State (1654), Commissioner of the Great Seal (1655), one of Cromwell's lords (1657), and was one of the principal speakers in the discussions concerning the offer of the crown to the Protector (1657). He assisted in proclaiming Richard Cromwell, and adhered to his party till the re-establishment of the Long Parliament deprived him of his office. After the Restoration he retired into private life, and died in 1669. Fiennes was an eloquent speaker, and a man of decided opinions, but irresolute in action, and constitutionally timid. "His great and special merit is the firm stand which he made in favour of religious liberty against the narrow bigotry of the Presbyterian party."

Sanford, *Studies of the Great Rebellion;* Foss, *Judges of England.*

Fifteenths was the name given to a grant voted by Parliament to the sovereign, which was originally, as the name implies, a tax of one fifteenth on movables. But in the reign of Edward III. a valuation was taken, and henceforth when Parliament voted a fifteenth each parish voted a fixed sum, according to that valuation. What for the counties was a fifteenth was in towns a tenth, which followed the same rule. The whole amount of a tenth and fifteenth, in Coke's time, was only £29,000.

Fifth Monarchy Men. An extreme sect of the period of the Puritan Revolution, largely found in the army, which supported Cromwell, in the belief that his government was the beginning of the "Fifth Monarchy,"

during which the millennial reign of Christ on earth would take place. The previous four monarchies were the Assyrian, Persian, Grecian, and Roman. But such fanatics could not but be in opposition to any established government, and Cromwell had some difficulties with them. In 1661, the revolt of Venner was largely supported by this sect.

Fiji Islands, The, are a group of about 250 islands, of which about a third are inhabited. They lie between 177° E. and 178° W. long., and between 15° and 20° S. lat. The largest of the islands is Viti Levu, and the only other of any size is Vanua Levu. The Fiji group was first discovered by Captain Cook, in 1773. They were ceded to England by the native chiefs, in 1874, and are at present governed by a High Commissioner. Fiji is an important station between Panama and Australia, and the High Commissioner is in a position to regulate the Polynesian labour traffic.

Smythe, *Ten Months in Fiji;* Williams, *Fiji and the Fijians.*

Filmer, Sir Robert (*d. circa* 1653), was a gentleman of Kent, who matriculated at Cambridge (1604), fought for the king during the Civil War, and wrote in defence of monarchy. His chief works were *The Freeholders' Grand Inquest* (published 1679), *A Treatise on the Functions of the Commons in Parliament*, written in answer to Prynne, and *Patriarcha* (published 1680). Filmer started by denying the doctrine that mankind is naturally endowed and born with freedom from all subjection, and at liberty to choose what form of government it pleased; and that the power which any one man hath over others was at first bestowed according to the discretion of the multitude. He went on to derive regal authority from the authority of a father over his family, as it was exercised by the patriarchs. From the patriarchs, by hereditary descent, this authority was transmitted to different royal houses. The royal authority, therefore, resembled the natural authority of a father over his children. The kingdom and its head, like the family and its head, existed by divine ordinance. The king received from God "his royal charter of a universal father," and ruled, therefore, by divine right. The subject was, in consequence, bound to absolute obedience, and had no right to depose a king or alter the line of succession. Filmer's book was published in the midst of the discussions on the Exclusion Bill, and his theory supplied a powerful argument to those who denied the competence of Parliament to exclude James from the throne. [Locke, John.]

J. Gairdner, *Studies in English History.*

Finch, John, Lord (*b.* 1584, *d.* 1660), was the son of Sir Henry Finch, an eminent lawyer. He was a member of Charles I.'s first two Parliaments, and was chosen Speaker of the third, which met in 1628. He speedily showed himself a decided partisan of the king, and, in 1629, he refused to read a remonstrance against tunnage and poundage after the king's message for the adjournment of Parliament had been delivered. A tumult occurred, during which the Speaker was held down in his chair, and Holles read the protestation to the House. In 1637 Finch was made Chief Justice of the Common Pleas, in which capacity he delivered judgment against Hampden in the case of ship-money. In 1640 he was made Lord Keeper, but, fearing the vengeance of the Long Parliament, he fled from England, at the end of the same year, to Holland, where he remained till 1660, when he returned to England, and took part in the trials of the Regicides. The character of "an unprincipled lawyer and a time-serving minister," which Mr. Foss gives him, seems to be only too well deserved, and he died universally despised.

Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion;* Whitelocke, *Memorials;* Foss, *Judges of England.*

Finch. [Nottingham, Earl of.]

Fines, The Statute of, an Act of the fourth year of Henry VII., was based on a similar one of Richard III. It enacts that a fine, levied with proclamations in a public court of justice, shall, after five years, be under ordinary circumstances a bar to all claims upon lands. Its main object was to give security of tenure to existing tenants by fixing a short term of prescription; a measure very necessary just after the Wars of the Roses. It did not, as some have thought, give liberty of alienation with the view of luring on a spendthrift nobility to ruin.

Hallam, *Const. Hist.;* Reeves, *Hist. of English Law.*

Finglen, The Battle of (719), near Lochavich in Argyleshire, was fought between Selvach, King of Dalriada, and his brother, Aincellach, whom he had driven out in 698. Aincellach made a desperate effort to recover his kingdom, but was slain.

Finlay Question, The. Mr. Finlay, the Greek historian, had settled in Athens when Greece became independent. Some of his land had been seized for the purpose of rounding off the new palace gardens of King Otho, and Mr. Finlay had declined to take the terms offered him, which had been accepted by all the other landowners in a similar position. He appealed to the English government, and his case was lumped with the Pacifico and the Fantôme case into one grand grievance, for which the British government demanded compensation. [Pacifico.]

Firbolgs. One of the legendary or fabulous tribes of the earliest period of Irish history. They may, it has been thought, correspond to the pre-Aryan inhabitants of Ireland.

Fire of London, The Great (Sept. 2—6, 1666), broke out accidentally in a house near London Bridge, but a strong east wind caused it to spread with great rapidity, and for five days London was given up to the flames. Two-thirds of London was destroyed —eighty-nine churches, including St. Paul's Cathedral, and more than 13,000 dwelling-houses. But the fire, though destroying so much, was most beneficial in thoroughly eradicating the plague. The fever dens in which it continually lurked were burnt, and the new houses which were erected were far more healthy and better arranged. The fire was attributed to the hated Papists, and on the Monument, which was erected to commemorate it, the Romanists were directly charged with being the authors of the terrible conflagration.

First of June, The Battle of the (1794), was a naval engagement fought during the wars of the French Revolution. The French had collected a fleet of twenty-six ships at Brest, which put out on May 20 to meet a convoy of corn ships expected from America. On the 28th Lord Howe with the Channel fleet brought them to a partial engagement; but it was not till June 1 that he was able to bring about a decisive encounter. Having the wind of the enemy, he resolved to break through the French fleet, and fight it to leeward. The enemy lay in close line of battle, stretching from east to west, and Howe's object was not to come down on it perpendicularly, but to sail abreast of it until each ship got an opportunity of breaking through it. It was impossible, however, to carry out the manœuvre in detail, and five only of the ships, besides the flag-ship, succeeded in passing through, while the rest engaged the enemy on the windward side. But in whatever position the British ships closed with the enemy, their mode of fighting was too fierce to be long resisted, and after a few hours the French ships which were able began to move off; nor was the pursuit vigorously carried out. As it was, however, eight ships had been lost to the enemy, and 8,000 men, while the English admiral returned his losses at 1,150 in killed and wounded; but the corn ships escaped to Brest. The moral effects of the victory were greater than the material. [Howe, Lord; Bridport, Viscount.]

James, *Naval Hist.*; Allen, *Battles of the Navy*; Alison, *Hist. of Europe.*

Fish, Simon (*d.* 1531), an associate of Tyndall, and one of the earliest English Protestants, became famous as the author of the popular attack on the clergy called the *Supplication of Beggars*, which led him into a controversy with More.

Fisher, John, Bishop of Rochester (*b.* 1459, *d.* 1535), was born at Beverley. After a distinguished Cambridge career, in which he took a prominent part in bringing the studies of that university abreast of the new learning, both in Greek and theology, he was chosen in 1504 Bishop of Rochester, and was also from 1505—8 Master of Queen's College, Cambridge. A man of honesty, piety, and determination, but of strict conservative principles, he became one of the leaders of the party opposed to Henry VIII.'s divorce, listened to the Nun of Kent, opposed the royal supremacy, and was imprisoned in 1534, and attainted. His untimely appointment as cardinal by Paul III. led to his execution, after trial by a special commission, on June 22, 1535.

Fishguard is a small town in North Pembrokeshire, on a land-locked haven. Near here, at Llanwnda, 1,400 French soldiers, the scum of every gaol in France, landed on February 22, 1797. Frightened, as the story goes, by the red coats and tall hats of the old Welshwomen, they surrendered on February 24 to the ill-armed local militia under Lord Cawdor. In 1908 Fishguard was made a port of connection with Ireland, and in 1909 with America.

Fitton, Alexander, a barrister of no reputation or character, was made Lord Chancellor of Ireland by James I. in 1688. He had been detected in forgery, and his only recommendation was that he had recently become a Roman Catholic. After Tyrconnel's death he became one of the Lords Justices appointed to govern Ireland.

Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*

Fitz-Aldhelm, William de, was sent by Henry II., in 1171, to treat with Roderick O'Connor. He was again in Ireland as Henry's envoy, with the bulls of Adrian IV. and Alexander III. In 1176 he became Strongbow's successor as Governor of Ireland. He was strongly opposed to the Geraldines, and defrauded Fitz-Maurice's sons of part of their inheritance in 1177. He was recalled, not having signalised himself in any other way.

Fitz-Athulf, Constantine (*d.* 1222), was the leader of a riot in London in 1222, which, though it owed its origin to trivial circumstances, became most serious in its results, and is supposed to have been secretly fomented by Louis of France. It was, however, summarily put down by Hubert de Burgh; Fitz-Athulf was hanged and his followers fined or mutilated.

Fitzgerald, Lord Edward (*b.* Oct. 15, 1763, *d.* June 4, 1798), was a younger son of the Duke of Leinster, and married the reputed daughter of Philippe Egalité. In 1784 he was a member of the Irish Parliament, and opposed the Address. In 1793 he was compelled to apologise for words reflecting on the Lord-Lieutenant. Just before, he had gone to Paris as envoy of the United Irishmen. In 1796 he took their oath,

and again went over to the Continent, met Hoche in Switzerland, and settled on a French invasion. On his return to Ireland he kept up a constant correspondence with France through his wife at Hamburg. In Oct., 1797, a "person," as he is called, gave information of this to Pitt, and allowed himself to be employed as a spy, but he refused to come forward as a witness, and the government could not, therefore, arrest Lord Edward. On March 12, 1798, he escaped, while his fellow-conspirators were seized. A reward of £1,000 was offered for his apprehension, but he continued undiscovered in his hiding-place in Dublin. Finally, however, he was betrayed by a man whose name never transpired, and on May 19th between five and six o'clock he was seized on his bed. He stabbed Ryan and Swan, two of the officers, but was disabled by a pistol-shot and was captured. The seal of the United Irishmen and a plan for the surprise of Dublin was found on him. Before he could be tried, he died of his wounds (June 4, 1798).

Moore, *Life of Lord E. Fitzgerald;* Froude, *English in Ireland.*

Fitzgerald, Maurice, one of the Norman conquerors of Ireland, was the second son of Nesta (former mistress of Henry I.) and Gerald, Lord of Carew, in Pembrokeshire. He landed at Wexford in 1169 in company with Fitz-Stephen. He is mentioned as a leader in the sally from Dublin which led to O'Connor's flight in 1170. He was with John de Lacy when O'Ruark was killed, and got Wicklow Castle as a fief. He died in 1176. Giraldus says of him that he died leaving no man behind him stronger in constancy and faith. His sons were deprived of Wicklow, but got other estates instead. He is the ancestor of the houses of Kildare and Desmond, and of the Fitzgerald family generally.

Giraldus Cambrensis, *Expugnatio Hiberniæ;* Lyttelton's *Henry II.*

Fitzgerald, Lord Thomas (*d.* 1536), son of Gerald, ninth Earl of Kildare, and vice-deputy for him. On his father's arrest by Henry VIII., Lord Thomas excited in 1535 a somewhat formidable revolt in Ireland, which for a time was very successful. But the storming of Maynooth, the great stronghold of the Fitzgeralds, by Skeffington, led to the ruin of their cause. After a long period of wandering, Thomas surrendered to the English, and was hung with his five uncles at Tyburn on Feb. 3, 1536.

Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*

Fitzgerald, Sir Thomas Tudkin (*d.* 1810), was High Sheriff of Tipperary during the rebellion of 1798. He committed and encouraged the most frightful barbarities. One man named Wright was flogged nearly to death for having a note in French in his pocket. After the rebellion he was fined £500 by a jury on this account; but government paid his fine, and in 1801 made him a baronet. Froude says that his severities prevented an outbreak in Tipperary.

Fitzgerald and Vesci, Lord (*d.* 1843), an Irish Tory politician of some mark, represented Clare in the House of Commons till turned out by O'Connell, on seeking re-election after appointment to office. From 1828—1830 he was Paymaster and President of the Board of Trade; and from 1841—1843, President of the Board of Control.

Annual Register.

Fitzgerald, Family of. Their reputed ancestor was William, Castellan of Windsor in the Conqueror's reign; from him was descended Gerald, father of Maurice Fitzgerald and William Fitzmaurice: the latter is the ancestor of the Knight of Kerry and of the Marquis of Lansdowne. Maurice Fitzgerald, the founder of the house, secured large grants, among them the barony of Offaley. In 1205 his son became Baron of Offaley. The baron's brother was Lord Justice, and fought against the Marshalls on King John's behalf. The younger brother of the seventh Lord Offaley, Maurice, was, in 1329, created Earl of Desmond, and the Lord Offaley himself became Earl of Kildare. From this time the Fitzgeralds became practically the rulers of Ireland, or at least of the English part of it. The destruction of the houses of De Burgh and De Lacy left the Butlers as their sole rivals. From the defeat of Edward Bruce to the reign of James I., the history of Ireland is made up of their constant wars with the Butlers. For the destruction of their immense power, see the articles on the Earls of Kildare and Desmond. The first branch is still represented in our own day by the ducal house of Leinster.

Burke's *Peerage* and *Extinct Peerage;* Nicolas, *Historic Peerage.*

Fitzgibbon, John (*b.* 1749, *d.* 1802), was created Baron Fitzgibbon in 1789, Viscount in 1793, Earl of Clare in 1795. He distinguished himself greatly at Trinity College, and was even then the rival of Grattan. He soon made a name at the bar. In the year 1787 he first signalised himself as Tory member for Dublin, by speaking against the vote of thanks to the Volunteers, then at the height of their popularity. His second great speech was directed against Flood's Reform Bill, which was lost. In 1784 he became Attorney-General, and as such had the courage to attack the Sheriff of Dublin, as he was assembling the freeholders to elect representatives to a new illegal congress. In 1785 he fought a duel with Curran. On Jan. 31, 1787, he brought in a Conspiracy Bill, and he was one of the few Irishmen who opposed the Regency Bill in 1788. In 1789 he became a peer and Lord Chancellor. During Lord Camden's administration, he was virtually Governor of Ireland, and was the mainstay of the govern-

ment during the Rebellion of 1798. The insurgents hated him more than any other man. Lord Cornwallis, though he came out to Ireland prejudiced against him, declared later that he was "by far the most moderate and right-headed man in the country." He defended the Union in a great speech on Feb. 10, 1800, in the Irish Parliament. In the following year he made a bitter attack on the absentee Whig lords in the English Parliament. In 1802 he died, and his burial was nearly interrupted by a furious mob. A typical upholder of the Protestant ascendency, Fitzgibbon is Mr. Froude's special hero.

Froude, *English in Ireland*; Plowden, *Life of Grattan*.

Fitz-Gilbert, Richard, or Richard de Clare, was a Norman baron, nearly related to William the Conqueror. He accompanied William to England, and received lavish grants of land, among which was the manor of Clare, from which he took the name which his descendants likewise adopted. He was appointed joint regent of England during William's absence in 1073, and in 1076 was instrumental in quelling the rebellion of the Earls of Hereford and Norfolk. He lived on till the reign of Henry I.

Fitzharris, Edward (*d.* 1681). An Irish adventurer, who in 1681 concocted a libel upon the king and the Duke of York, in which he advocated the deposition of the one, and the exclusion of the other. This manuscript he probably intended to place in the study of one of the prominent Whig statesmen, and then, by discovering it himself, earn the wages of an informer. He was, however, betrayed by an accomplice, and sent to the Tower, where he invented a Popish Plot for the murder of the king, and the boiling down of the leading Whigs into a jelly, to be used for anointing future Popish kings. Fitzharris was impeached by the Commons, but the Lords declared that they had no power of trying a commoner, as that would be a violation of Magna Charta, while the Commons asserted their right of impeachment. On the dissolution of Parliament he was tried for high treason before the King's Bench, and executed.

Hallam, *Const. Hist.*; *Parl. Hist.*; *State Trials*.

Fitz-Herbert, Mrs., a Roman Catholic lady, with whom George, Prince of Wales, in 1787, went through the ceremony of marriage. If the Royal Marriage Act had not invalidated this marriage as contracted without the royal consent, the Act of Settlement would have deprived George of his rights of succession. To get his debts paid by Parliament, George (there is reason to believe) persuaded Fox to publicly deny his marriage with Mrs. Fitzherbert, though he denied that he had instructed Fox to do so.

Fitz-Jocelin, Reginald, Archbishop of Canterbury (*d.* 1191), was the son of Jocelin, Bishop of Salisbury, and was elected Bishop of Bath and Wells in 1174. On the death of Archbishop Baldwin, the monks of Canterbury, in opposition to King Richard and Earl John, each of whom had his own nominee, chose Reginald to fill the vacant see. Almost immediately after his election he was seized with illness, and expired in less than a month.

Hook, *Archbishops of Canterbury*.

Fitz-Maurice, James (*d.* 1579), was the brother of the sixteenth Earl of Desmond, and far superior to him in address and military skill. When the head of the family was made a prisoner by Sidney, he roused the Geraldines, and, uniting with other chiefs, he took Kilmallock. He went over to Spain to get help in 1570, but on his return, had to submit to Sir John Perrot in 1571. He then again went abroad, and in vain tried to induce France and Spain to come to the aid of the Irish Catholics. Pope Gregory XIII., however, entrusted him with a force of a few hundred men, and he set sail with them in 1579, and landed at Smerwick. Not finding there the support he expected, he went off into Tipperary, where he was soon afterwards slain in battle.

Froude, *History of England*.

Fitz-Nigel, Richard, or Fitz-Neal (*d.* 1198), was the son of Nigel, Bishop of Ely, and great-nephew of Bishop Roger, of Salisbury. He was appointed Treasurer of England in 1165, which office he seems to have held till his death, having also been made Bishop of London in 1189. He was the author of a history of Henry II.'s reign, entitled *Tricolumnus*, which is probably the basis of what used to be attributed to Benedict of Peterborough; but his more famous work is the *Dialogus de Scaccario*, which his position and connection with Nigel and Roger made extremely important and trustworthy.

Stubbs, *Prefaces to Benedict of Peterborough* (Rolls Series). The *Dialogus* is printed in Stubbs's *Select Charters*.

Fitz-Osbern, Roger, Earl of Hereford, was the son of William Fitz-Osbern. In 1075 he entered into a plot with Ralph Guader against William I., the immediate cause being the king's refusal to allow the marriage between Ralph and Fitz-Osbern's sister. Being defeated and taken prisoner, he was sentenced to deprivation of his lands and titles and perpetual captivity. [Norwich, Bridal of.]

Fitz-Osbern, William (*d.* 1071), was a Norman baron, somewhat distantly connected with the Conqueror. He was very instrumental in obtaining the sanction of the Norman nobles to the invasion of England, and commanded one of the wings at the battle of Hastings. He received the Palatine

earldom of Hereford as his reward. During the king's absence in Normandy he acted as regent, and, in 1069, assisted in suppressing the insurrections in the north and west of England. In 1072 he went over to Flanders, where he was slain, while fighting in a civil war.

Freeman, *Norman Conquest.*

Fitz-Osbert, William (*d.* 1196), known also as William Longbeard, the first demagogue in English history, served in the Third Crusade, and is described as a man of great eloquence. In 1196 a poll-tax was levied on London, and Fitz-Osbert organised a resistance to it, and enrolled, it is said, more than 50,000 men. He held meetings, denounced the oppression of the governing *bourgeoisie*, and proclaimed himself the saviour of the poor. The Justiciar, Hubert Walter, collected troops, and speedily awed the city into submission. Fitz-Osbert took sanctuary in St. Mary-le-Bow, where he was attacked by fire, and eventually captured. He was at once tried, and put to death as a traitor. Of his character and aims it is difficult to judge, as contemporary writers express such very opposite views. William of Newburgh says:—"The contriver and fomenter of so much evil perished at the command of justice, and the madness of this wicked conspiracy expired with its author: and those persons, indeed, who were of more healthful and cautious dispositions rejoiced when they beheld or heard of his punishment, washing their hands in the blood of the sinner." On the other hand, Matthew Paris says:—"So perished William Longbeard, for endeavouring to uphold the cause of right and the poor. If it be the cause which makes the martyr, no man may be more justly described as a martyr than he."

Pauli, *Englische Geschichte;* Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops;* William of Newburgh.

Fitz-Peter, Geoffrey (*d.* 1213), was probably the son of Simon Fitz-Peter, one of Henry II.'s justices. He himself acted as an itinerant judge, and Richard I. placed him on the council which was to act, with the Justiciar, during the king's absence on the Crusade. In 1198 he was appointed Justiciar, which office he contrived to hold till his death. His administration was characterised by great sternness and rigid impartiality, and he did what he could to restrain the excesses of John, who, on hearing of his death, exclaimed, with an oath, "Now, for the first time, am I King of England." Fitz-Peter was created Earl of Essex in 1199.

Fitz-Roy, Sir Charles, was Governor of New South Wales (1847—8). His tenure of office was chiefly remarkable for disputes between the Home and the Colonial governments as to the proposed change of constitution in New South Wales.

Fitz-Stephen, Robert, a Norman conqueror in South Wales and Ireland, was the son of Nesta, the former mistress of Henry I., and of Stephen de Marisco. When Dermot came to Wales to collect succours, he was the captive of a Welsh prince; but on his release, in 1169, he led thirty knights, sixty men-at-arms, and three hundred archers to Ireland. With this force he took Wexford; but, in 1170, he was induced by treachery to surrender at Carrig. When Henry II. landed, in 1171, he was taken before him at Waterford as a traitor. He was, however, restored to favour, and entrusted with the custody of Wexford. He followed Henry abroad, in 1174; was sent over to Ireland, again recalled, but finally in 1177, invested with the command in southern Munster. In 1182 he was besieged in Cork, but rescued by Raymond le Gros.

Giraldus Cambrensis, *Expugnatio Hibernix;* Moore, *Hist. of Ireland.*

Fitz-Stephen, William (*d.* 1191). A monk of Canterbury, the eye-witness of the murder of his master, Becket, whose biography he wrote, to which was prefixed a remarkable description of London (printed in Leland's *Itinerary*, vol. viii.).

Fitz-Urse, Reginald. A knight in the service of Henry II., and one of the murderers of St. Thomas. [Becket.]

Fitz-Walter, Milo (*d.* 1146), was one of the itinerant justices in the reign of Henry I. On that king's death he assisted Stephen in his attempt to gain the crown, but before long he deserted the king, and strenuously supported the Empress Matilda, who gave him the title of Earl of Hereford, together with considerable lands and privileges. He was accidentally killed in 1146.

Fitz-Walter, Robert. A northern baron, who, as an old enemy of John, was selected by the baronial confederacy as the leader in the struggle that finally resulted in the grant of Magna Charta.

Fitz-William, Sir William (*d.* 1542), was a famous naval commander of Henry VIII.'s time. In 1513 and in 1522–24 he defeated the French, and in 1537 was made Earl of Southampton and Privy Seal.

Fitzwilliam, William, 4th Earl (*b.* 1748, *d.* 1833), was of the distinguished Yorkshire Whig family, and nephew of Rockingham, and opposed the American War and Pitt's earlier ministry. Taking panic at the French revolutionary excesses he deserted Fox. He was made Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, but recalled, because too liberal, just before 1798. This alienated him from the government, and he became President of the Council under Grenville, in 1807, and lived to share in and see the success of the Reform Bill agitation. He was one of

the best specimens of the Whig grandee of the eighteenth century.

Stanhope, *Life of Pitt.*

Five Boroughs of Mercia. A rude confederacy of Danish boroughs, corresponding, as some have thought, to the older divisions of north-eastern Mercia. They were Derby, Lincoln, Leicester, Stamford, and Nottingham. They were each ruled by their "jarl," with twelve lawmen administering Danish law in each, while a common court existed for the whole confederacy. They were conquered by Edward the Elder; and reconquered (probably in 941) by Edmund, who seems to have allowed them full enjoyment of their local privileges. [DANELAGH.]

Five Members, THE. In January, 1642, Charles I., believing that the Parliamentary leaders intended to impeach the queen, resolved to prevent it by impeaching her assailants. He selected, as the chief offenders, five members of the House of Commons, John Pym (Tavistock), John Hampden (Buckinghamshire), Denzil Holles (Dorchester), Sir Arthur Haselrig (Leicestershire), and William Strode (Dorchester). Lord Kimbolton was included in the same impeachment on January 3. Sir Edward Herbert, the Attorney-General, laid the charges before the House of Lords, who at once appointed a committee to inquire whether his procedure had been according to law. On the same day the king sent the Sergeant-at-arms to the House of Commons with orders to arrest the five members. Charles was urged on by Lord Digby and the queen to arrest the members himself, and about three o'clock on the afternoon of January 4, started from Whitehall with about four hundred armed men to apprehend them. The accused members had been warned by a message from Lady Carlisle, and escaped by the river into the city. The king entered the House, leaving about eighty armed men in the lobby, and made a speech in which he said that since they had disobeyed his orders, he had come to arrest the members himself. He commanded the Speaker to tell him whether the accused members were present; and when Lenthall refused to do so, and the king saw with his own eyes that "the birds were flown," he retired, saying, "I assure you, on the word of a king, I never did intend any force, but shall proceed against them in a legal and fair way, for I never meant any other." The House adjourned till the 11th, appointing a committee to sit in the interval at Guildhall. This committee voted, on the 6th, that the impeachment, the personal issue of the warrants by the king, and the attempt to arrest the impeached members were alike illegal. Addresses and petitions on behalf of the accused members poured in from the city and the country. On the 11th the Commons returned in triumph to Westminster, and two days later the king announced that, as the legality of the impeachment of the members had been doubted, he would now abandon it, and proceed against them "in an unquestionable way." The justifiable distrust caused by this attempt induced the leaders of the Parliament to demand substantial securities from the king, and so led to war.

S. R. Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng., 1603—1642*, vol. x.; Hallam, *Constitutional History.*

Five-Mile Act, THE (1665), enacted that no Nonconforming clergyman should come within five miles of any corporate town or any place where he had once ministered (except when travelling), nor act as a tutor or schoolmaster unless he first took the oath of non-resistance, and swore to attempt no alteration of the constitution in Church or State. It was one of the series of repressive measures, popularly known as the "Clarendon Code," and was aimed at depriving the ejected clergy of their means of livelihood, both by preaching and teaching.

Flag, HONOUR OF THE. From very early times the English required foreign ships to salute English vessels within the narrow seas by lowering their flag. This question was vehemently contested by their commercial rivals, the Dutch, and was one of the smaller points of the chronic dispute between the two nations in the middle of the seventeenth century. The Dutch admitted the claim in 1673.

Flagellants, THE. A sect of fanatical enthusiasts of the thirteenth century, who formed special fraternities for the observation of flagellation as a solemn and public religious ceremony. Started in 1210 by St. Anthony of Padua, this order became widespread through the teaching of Rainer of Perugia. In the reign of Edward III., 120 of them crossed into England, but their long processions and self-immolation did not produce a single convert.

Förstemann, *Die Christlichen Geisslergesellschaften.*

Flambard, RALPH (*d.* 1128), was a Norman of low origin, who after Lanfranc's death became the chief minister of William Rufus. To his malign influence may be attributed much of the tyranny and oppression of this reign. He devised new impositions, and enriched himself as well as the king, by keeping the sees and abbeys vacant. Under him the position of Justiciar gradually became a definite office. In 1099 he was made Bishop of Durham. On the accession of Henry I. he was at once arrested and imprisoned in the Tower, from which, however, he very soon managed to escape, and took refuge in Normandy with Robert, whom he encouraged in his invasion of England. Henry subsequently allowed him to return to his bishopric, where he remained peaceably till his death, occupying himself chiefly in architectural and ecclesiastical works. His character is painted in the

darkest characters by the chroniclers. William of Malmesbury says, "If at any time a royal edict was issued that England should pay a certain tribute, it was doubled by this plunderer of the rich, this exterminator of the poor, this confiscator of other men's inheritance. He was an invincible pleader, as unrestrained in his words as in his actions, and equally furious against the meek or the turbulent. Wherefore the king used to laugh and say, 'that he was the only man who knew how to employ his talents in this way, and cared for no one's hatred so long as he could please his master.'"

Freeman, *William Rufus.*

Flammock, THOMAS, was a Cornish attorney, whose harangues incited the Cornishmen to revolt, in 1491, against Henry VII.'s excessive taxation. He led them on their march to Blackheath, and on the suppression of the revolt was hanged as a traitor.

Bacon, *Hist. of Henry VII.*

Flanders, RELATIONS WITH. Nominally a fief of France, Flanders was very early of sufficient importance to have close dealings with England. The name "Baldwinsland," given by the early English to the country, suggests the frequency of the dynastic relations between the courts. The first Count Baldwin married Judith, the Frankish widow of Ethelwulf of Wessex, and their son married Ælfthryth (Elfrida), a daughter of Alfred the Great. Dunstan found in his exile a refuge in a Flemish monastery. Godwin, in 1051, was warmly welcomed by the great Baldwin, whose dealings with England were singularly intimate. He died soon after his son-in-law, William I., had conquered the kingdom. Later in William's reign, Gerbod of Chester, and William Fitz-Osbern found captivity and death respectively through warlike intervention in Flemish quarrels. Another Baldwin supported William Fitz-Robert against his uncle Henry I. Flemish mercenaries and William of Ypres fought for Stephen. Count Philip joined in 1173 the great confederation which the younger Henry had excited against his father Henry II. But gradually the old changing relations settled down into a general friendship, when not only dynastic accidents, but a common policy of alliance against the encroachments of the French kings, and the growing pressure of economical necessities, firmly bound together the two countries. Count Ferdinand joined John and his nephew, Otto IV., in the confederacy that was dissolved by the battle of Bouvines (1213). Edward I. ended, by the Treaty of Montreuil (1274) with Count Guy, the hostilities between his father and Margaret of Flanders. Guy, on the whole, gave Edward efficient support against Philip the Fair. But the growth of the cloth trade in Flanders had bound its great towns to England, whence came the raw wool which Ghent or Ypres made up into cloth, and the Hanse factories of London and Bruges may have added a further link. On the other hand, the rising power of the towns compelled the Flemish counts to rely on French help; and thus, while the alliance of England and the towns was strengthened, her relations with the counts grew cool. At last, in 1335, Jacob van Artevelde, the Ghent leader, concluded a firm alliance with Edward III. against Count Louis and Philip VI., which continued till Artevelde's death, in 1345. The renewed disturbances at Ghent, under Philip van Artevelde in 1381, were in close analogy and direct connection with the contemporary revolutionary movement under Wat Tyler, and even Bishop Spencer's crusade against the Clementists practically turned to the help of the Flemish townsmen. But the accession of the Burgundian house to Flanders restored the old friendship of the princes, though partly at the expense of the popular party. In 1496 the treaty styled *Magnus Intercursus* expelled Perkyn Warbeck from Flanders, and allowed full freedom of trade between the two countries. But henceforth Flanders is only a fragment of a larger state.

Pauli, *Englische Geschichte*; Schanz, *Englische Handelspolitik*; Macpherson, *Hist. of Commerce*; Ashley, *James and Philip van Artevelde.*

[T. F. T.]

Flavia Cæsariensis was one of the districts of Roman Britain. It probably comprised the North.

Fleet Prison, a famous London gaol, a king's prison since the twelfth century, was situated on the east side of Farringdon Street, on the bank of the Fleet rivulet. The Fleet was burnt down by Wat Tyler, and became of great historical interest, as the prison of religious offenders on both sides, under Mary and Elizabeth, and of the victims of the Star Chamber. On the abolition of the Star Chamber, it became a prison for debtors and those committed for contempt. It was again burnt in the Gordon riots, and abolished in 1841. In the eighteenth century the Fleet became famous for the irregular marriages contracted there by clergymen of abandoned character, and in prison or within the precincts for debt. Lord Hardwicke's Marriage Act (1753) put an end to this abuse.

Burn, *Hist. of Fleet Marriages*; Loftie, *Hist. of London.*

Fleetwood, CHARLES (*d. circa* 1692), the son of Sir William Fleetwood, was one of those gentlemen of the Inns of Court who enlisted in the body-guard of the Earl of Essex. He also served in the army of the Eastern Association under Oliver Cromwell. In the New Model he commanded a regiment of horse, and, after the capture of Bristol, was appointed governor of that place. In Oct., 1645, he became member for Bucking-

hamshire. He took no part in the king's death, though his brother George sat amongst the judges. In 1650 Fleetwood was lieutenant-general of the army under Cromwell which invaded Scotland. As such, he shared in the victory of Dunbar, and played a very important part in the battle of Worcester. On the death of Ireton, Fleetwood married his widow, Cromwell's daughter Bridget; and, after the commandership-in-chief in Ireland had been refused by Lambert, Fleetwood was appointed to that post (June, 1652). In March, 1654, he became Lord Deputy, but was recalled to England in the summer of 1655, probably because he was not sufficiently active in pushing on the transplantation of the Catholics and suppressing the exercise of the Catholic religion. On his return, he took his place as a member of Cromwell's Council, and as one of his major-generals. Notwithstanding his relationship to the Protector, he opposed his taking the crown, but accepted a place in his House of Lords. Fleetwood had some expectation of being nominated Cromwell's successor, but, nevertheless, accepted the appointment of Richard Cromwell. However, he headed the party among the officers which wished to make the army independent of the civil power. Their plan was to make Fleetwood commander-in-chief, independent of the Protector, and practically a co-ordinate power with him. Not succeeding in this, he and the Council of Officers forced Richard to dissolve Parliament. The Rump, directly it was restored, appointed him commander-in-chief of the land forces in England and Scotland, and one of the Commission of Seven, who were to appoint officers (May, 1659); but as they attempted to subject the army to the Parliament, he broke up the House (Oct., 1659), and established the "Committee of Safety." Monk's advance, and the spread of disaffection in army and people, obliged him to recall the Parliament, though Whitelocke very nearly persuaded him to bring back the king instead. He was deprived of his office by Parliament, and, after the king's return, perpetually incapacitated from public employment. He is said to have lived till 1692.

Clarendon, *Hist. of the Reb.*; Whitelocke, *Memorials*; Ludlow, *Memoirs*; Carlyle, *Cromwell*.

Fleming, Sir Thomas (*d.* 1613), a prominent member of the Parliaments of 1601 and 1604, was Recorder of London (1594), and Solicitor-General the following year. He took part in the trial of the Earl of Essex, and became Chief Baron of the Exchequer in 1604. Coke calls him "a man of great judgment, integrity, and discretion."

Foss, *Judges of England*.

Flemings in England. At various times, large colonies of Flemish settlers have been brought over to England. The close commercial and political relations of the two countries largely occasioned this emigration. Henry I. is reputed to have settled Lower and Southern Dyfed with Flemings. He certainly thoroughly expelled the Welsh, and planted the country with Teutonic settlers, who speedily became English, and have remained so to the present time, without any tendency to amalgamate with the surrounding Celts. Not to mention the Flemish mercenaries of Stephen's reign, we find large numbers of Flemish weavers settling in England, especially in the eastern counties, where Norwich became the great seat of the clothing industry. These Flemings taught the English to make up their own wool into cloth, instead of exporting it to the looms of Flanders. Later still, the Reformation led to a large emigration of Flemish Protestants into England.

Fleta. The name usually given to a very valuable work on English law, written some time in the reign of Edward I. Its date is approximately fixed by the fact that the Statute of Westminster the Second (13 Ed. I.) is the last statute quoted. It derives its name from the fact that it is said to have been written by an unknown prisoner in the Fleet.

Fletcher, Andrew, of Saltoun (*b.* 1655, *d.* 1716), was educated by Bishop Burnet, then minister of Saltoun. He first appears as Commissioner for East Lothian in the Scotch Parliament; but his opposition to the court occasioned his outlawry and the confiscation of his estates. In 1685 he engaged in Monmouth's rebellion [Monmouth], but quarrelled with a fellow-officer named Dare, and shot him. Monmouth was obliged to dismiss Fletcher, who withdrew to the Continent, and entered the Austrian service against the Turks. In 1688 he joined William of Orange at the Hague, and after the Revolution his estates were restored to him. He soon joined the "Club," a body of politicians who were dissatisfied with the Revolution Settlement in Scotland. Proud of his good family and theoretical Liberalism, Fletcher hated monarchy and democracy: and desired to make Scotland an oligarchical republic, of the Venetian or Bernese type. At this time he published two *Discourses* concerning the affairs of Scotland, in one of which he recommended predial slavery as a remedy for pauperism. He formed a friendship with Paterson, the originator of the Bank of England, and supported his Darien scheme. In Anne's reign he led the "Patriots" in their opposition to the Union. In 1703 he introduced his "Limitations" for Queen Anne's successor, some of which strangely anticipate modern Liberalism, and was a prime mover of the "Bill of Security," which passed in 1704, while the "Limitations" were accepted in 1705. But, finding he could not withstand the Union, he exerted

his influence more practically to secure freedom of trade. This attitude, rather than any real connection with the Jacobite conspiracies, led to his arrest in 1708.

Lord Buchan, *Life of Fletcher*; Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*; Macaulay, *Hist. of England*.

Fletcher, Richard (*d.* 1596), Bishop of London, "a comely and courtly prelate," was made Dean of Peterborough (1583), in which capacity he attended Mary Queen of Scots at her execution. He was a great favourite of Elizabeth's, by whom he was advanced successively to the sees of Oxford, Worcester, and London, but lost her regard on his marriage, for which he was suspended. He was the father of Fletcher the dramatist, and the uncle of Phineas Fletcher, the poet.

Fleurus is a small town, fifteen miles west of Namur, famous for several battles, and especially those in 1690 and 1794. In the former engagement (July 1, 1690), the Duke of Luxemburg gained a well-contested victory over the Dutch and Imperialists under the Prince of Waldeck. The latter (June 26, 1794) resulted in victory for Marshal Jourdan over the Prince of Coburg.

Flodden Field, The Battle of (Sept. 9, 1513), was fought between James IV. of Scotland and the English under the Earl of Surrey. The most noteworthy circumstances of this engagement are: (1) The skilful movement by which the Earl of Surrey succeeded in crossing the river Till, and cutting off all communication between King James and Scotland. (2) The omission of the Scots to take advantage of the favourable moment for attack presented by the passage of the English army over the river. (3) The utter defeat of the English right wing under Sir Edward Howard, and the loss of this success to the Scots through the misconduct of the troops of Earls Huntly and Home, who, instead of following up their victory, abandoned themselves to pillaging the baggage of both armies. (4) The prowess of the English archers, whose murderous volleys threw the Scottish right, led by Lennox and Argyle, into complete confusion, and rendered their subsequent defeat and ruinous flight a comparatively easy matter. (5) The desperate resistance against overwhelming numbers made by the Scottish centre, and the death of James IV. during the heat of the contest. (6) The indecisiveness of the conflict. Notwithstanding reverses elsewhere, and the death of their king, the Scots succeeded in holding Flodden Hill during the night, and only abandoned their position at the dawn of the next day on learning the real state of affairs. Meanwhile, on the English side, the contest had so nearly resulted in a defeat that Surrey was quite unable to prosecute the war with any vigour. The loss of the Scots in this battle was from 8,000 to 10,000 men; that of the English from 6,000 to 7,000. At the commencement of the battle, the contending armies mustered respectively 30,000 and 32,000 men.

Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*.

Flood, Henry (*b.* 1732, *d.* 1791), was the son of Warden Flood, Chief Justice of the King's Bench in Ireland. He studied at Dublin and at Oxford, and in 1759 entered the Irish Parliament as member for Kilkenny; and about 1761 he became the idol of the Irish patriots. In 1767 he successfully opposed an attempt made by government to increase the Irish army. In 1773 he was the most vigorous supporter of the Absentee Tax, and the real leader of the Opposition to the Castle. In 1774, however, he came to terms with Lord Harcourt, the Lord-Lieutenant, and finally contented himself with a vice-treasurership, a sinecure of £3,500 a year. In 1779, however, he again deserted the government, and advocated free trade. In 1781 he attacked the Castle expenditure. His name was now struck off the list of Privy Councillors, and he lost his place. He then tried to supplant Grattan, and recover his old position, but was twice defeated. In 1782 he stood forth as a defender of Protestant ascendency. When Grattan was rewarded for his services, his friends tried to get a reward for him, too, but failed, and a bitter personal attack on Grattan being unsuccessful, he left Ireland for England. In 1783 he returned. Another quarrel with Grattan would have ended in a duel if they had not both been ordered into custody. Flood now took the part of the Volunteers, and agitated for a Reform Bill: he was, however, averse to the Catholic claims. In 1784 his great motion for Reform was defeated, and his influence continuing to decline, he again went to England in 1787. Since 1785 he had had a seat in the English Parliament, but he was little appreciated, and a motion for Reform brought forward by him in 1790 was a failure.

Froude, *English in Ireland*; Plowden, *Life of Grattan*.

Florence of Worcester (*d.* 1118). A monk of Worcester, and compiler of a Chronicle from the Creation to the year of his death. The earlier part is taken from Marianus Scotus; and the English part previous to his own age is a free translation of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle with occasional additions. For his own period, Florence is very valuable, and though not possessing the literary merit of William of Malmesbury, is lucid, honest, and fair. Florence of Worcester's Chronicle has been published by the English Historical Society.

Florida, The, was a ship built in Birkenhead, nominally for the use of the Italian government. She got out of the Mersey without the slightest difficulty, although the American government had warned ours of her real purpose as a Confederate

privateer. Within three months she had captured fifteen vessels. Thirteen of these she burnt, and the other two were converted into cruisers by the Confederate government. The damage done by the *Florida* was included in the Geneva award with the *Alabama* and other claims. [GENEVA CONVENTION.]

Floyd's Case (1621). Floyd was a Catholic barrister, who, in prison, had uttered disrespectful language against the Elector Palatine and his wife. Parliament, then sitting, and disgusted at James's obstinate aversion to their zeal for the cause of the Palatine, inflicted on Floyd a heavy fine, together with whipping, the pillory, branding, and imprisonment. The Commons took the initiative, but the Lords inflicted the sentence. This case illustrates the indefinite right of Parliament to exercise jurisdiction even over those not its members, and for offences not directly against the House.

Hallam, *Const. Hist.*

Flying Squadron (*Squadrone volante*) is the name of a party of Scotch politicians, formed about 1705. It was borrowed from the famous "Flying Squadron" of independent cardinals during the previous generation at the Papal Court. Lord Tweeddale was the leader of this "New Party," which, by keeping close together, and joining first one side and then the other in the Union debates, had for some time a good deal of power. It had the fate of the Union question in its own hands, and its adhesion to the cause of the government in 1706 secured the triumph of that measure.

Burton, *Hist. of Scotland* and *Reign of Queen Anne.*

Foley, PAUL, a Tory politician in the reign of William III., began his political career as a Whig, but about 1690 became a Tory. He was so wealthy—his father was a successful ironmaster—that it was unnecessary for him to follow law as a profession; but he had studied it carefully as a science. He paraded his independence and disinterestedness rather ostentatiously, and "was so much afraid," says Macaulay, "of being thought to fawn that he was almost always growling." In 1695 he was chosen Speaker of the House of Commons, and was again re-elected at the close of the year. In 1696 he proposed the establishment of the Land Bank.

Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*

Foliot, GILBERT (*d.* 1187), was a monk of Clugny, and became Bishop of Hereford and, subsequently, of London. He is mainly remarkable by his zeal for the cause of Henry II., and in the disputes with Becket was sent to Rome by the king in 1164 to represent his case to the Pope. He was excommunicated by Becket, but the Pope withdrew the sentence; a second excommunication shortly afterwards followed, but on that occasion the Pope confirmed the archbishop's sentence, and Foliot was suspended from his functions, and not restored till after Becket's death. Foliot was a man of learning, and his letters are of considerable value, but he has been traduced without mercy by the partisans of Becket.

John of Salisbury; Robertson, *Becket.*

Folkland. The public lands of the nation in old English history. When the English came to Britain, though individual property in land was the rule, the idea of corporate property in it so far existed that after giving to each individual, family, or township their appropriate share, it was natural that what remained over should continue the property of the tribe or nation. With the consolidation of the original states into a single kingdom, the aggregate amount of folkland became very large. It was under the control of the king with the counsel and consent of his Witan. As time went on, large grants of folkland were made, both to individuals who had done services to king and people, and to communities. Thus the new nobility of services and the monasteries received their endowment from this source. Land thus cut off from folkland was called bocland (q.v.), *i.e.*, land granted by boc or charter. The alienation could be made only with the consent and witness of the Witan. Temporary rights over folkland were also frequently granted in the form of leases for services or money payments. These became in time fixed and constant, so that the land became practically in possession of the lessees. Thus folkland was being constantly diminished in quantity; and as, meanwhile, the development of the theory of royalty subordinated the Witan to the crown, the king, as representative of the nation, acquired practically the disposal of it. Ultimately, about the time of the Norman Conquest, the remnant of folkland became *terra regis*, the king's domain; and the private property of the crown, hitherto distinct, became merged with it. It is only in recent times that the distinction of crown or national lands and the private estate of the sovereign has been restored. But a long series of land grants by every weak or foolish king, despite occasional resumptions, has reduced the crown lands to a comparatively trifling amount. They are now under the control of the Commissioners of Woods and Forests. Folkland, as distinct from the royal domain, was peculiar to England. The "commons" in possession of the township, or some smaller community, were not considered a part of it, though also, in a sense, the property of the people.

Until recently, the nature of folkland was very imperfectly understood. See for the various old theories Schmid's *Gesetze der Angel-Sachsen;* for the view now universally accepted, see Stubbs's *Const. Hist.*, and the authorities there quoted; and especially Kemble's *Saxons in England;* and K. Maurer's *Kritische Ueberschau.* [T. F. T.]

Folkmoot, the meeting of the people, is the old English name for the great assembly of the nation for political, judicial, and general deliberative functions. Tacitus tells us how the Germans of his time consulted the whole nation on all important matters, and the Campus Martius or Madius of the Franks was in later times the folkmoot of that nation. Among the Scandinavian peoples such moots continued to a much later age, as the Icelandic *Althing*, and the great Swedish *Ting*, which met at Upsala. In England, there never was a true folkmoot of the whole nation which assembled together at any single place until the establishment of the House of Commons. The Witenagemot (q.v.) was, though indirectly a national senate, directly nothing more than a gathering of magnates. The Shiremoot or County Court (q.v.), however, composed of the representatives of every township within its jurisdiction, was a complete folkmoot for the district comprised in the shire. The House of Commons, formed by concentrating in a single assembly the representatives of the shires, was its lineal successor and natural development.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Kemble, *Saxons in England.*

[T. F. T.]

Fontenoy, The Battle of (May 11, 1745), was fought during the Austrian Succession War, and resulted in a victory for the French. The Duke of Cumberland advanced with 50,000 English, Dutch, and Austrian troops to relieve Tournay, besieged by Marshal Saxe. The French, while continuing the siege, took up a very strong position south of the town to cover their operations. On their right was the Scheldt, along their front a steep and narrow valley, at their left a wood with forts. This strong position the allies attempted to take. The Dutch under the Prince of Waldeck, after a spiritless attempt had failed, withdrew from the field. But the mass of the English and Hanoverian troops won the heights opposite them; and if supported by the Dutch, must have retained their position. As it was, fresh troops from the French side gradually forced them to retire, with a steadiness as great as that displayed during their advance. The capture of Tournay followed this French victory; but it was rather the withdrawal of troops to Scotland to oppose the Pretender than the effects of Fontenoy that made the subsequent campaign in Flanders so disastrous to the allies.

Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; Arneth, *Maria Theresia.*

Fordun, John (*fl. circa* 1377). A Scottish chronicler, whose *Scotichronicon* has been the basis of the legendary history of Scotland. His artificially-constructed scheme of history must, says Mr. Skene, be entirely rejected.

Fordun's *Chronicle of the Scottish Nation* has been edited, with English translation, introduction and notes, by Mr. W. F. Skene.

Foreign Legion, The. Prince Albert's special idea during the Crimean War was to raise a foreign legion, and instructions were given to the English ministers at foreign courts to aid this project. The result was a series of collisions with foreign powers, and especially a serious quarrel with the American government, on account of the dismissal of Mr. Crampton, the English minister, for his proceedings in this direction. In the end some few Swiss and other foreigners were enlisted, who never did anything of importance.

Annual Register; Hansard, *Debates.*

Foreign Enlistment Act, The (1819), forbade British subjects to take service with a foreign state without royal licence, and also the equipment of ships to be used against a power with which England was at peace. It was specially suspended to allow Sir de Lacy Evans to raise a British Legion against the Carlists in Spain in 1835. The *Alabama* and other affairs led to some trials in 1862 and 1863, the proceedings of which showed that the Acts required amendment. This was done by a new Foreign Enlistment Act, passed in 1870.

Forest, Miles, was one of the murderers of Edward V. and his brother Richard in 1483. As a reward he was made keeper of the wardrobe at Barnard Castle; but after the death of Richard III., he took sanctuary, where, according to Sir Thomas More, he "piecemeal rotted away."

Forests. Forest, from the Norman Conquest to the Commonwealth, bore the technical signification of crown land reserved for the purposes of the chase, and, as such, cultivated and inhabited on sufferance if at all. A forest was defined as containing eight things: soil, covert, laws, courts, judges, officers, game, bounds. It comprised both "vert"—*i.e.*, trees, underwood, and turf—and "venison"—*i.e.*, the hart, the hind, the hare, the boar, the wolf, which are beasts of forest; the buck, doe, fox, marten, which are beasts of chase; the rabbit, pheasant, partridge, quail, mallard, heron, &c., which are beasts and fowls of warren. The land subject to forest law need not be all wooded, *e.g.*, Cornwall was "forest" under John. But the forest districts did, of course, mainly coincide with the great woods which, in old days, had made even the Roman roads deflect from a straight course, and which had then, under Roman rule, been cleared away by the legionary, the metal-worker, the citizen, the peasant, to grow up again in time to check the advances of Angles and Saxons, to force this advance to take certain lines, and to limit its first results to the establishment, at least in Mid-England, of petty and isolated "folks." Thus the West Saxons found their natural boundaries determined by Andred's Weald on the east, by Selwood on the west, as decisively as by the Thames and the sea on the north and

on the south. Kentish folk, East Saxons, and East Angles were cut off from each other by marsh and wood; so were Mid-Angles from West Angles, Deirans from Bernicians; while along the Severn, in the Peak district, and in the hills of the kingdom of Elmet, the nature of the ground long barred the way westward, and from the Clyde to the Parret, the Welsh confronted the invaders in a long continuous line until the seventh century. The mighty Andred's Weald, even in Bede's day, lay stretched for 120 miles from Hampshire to the Medway. The Wire Wood covered what are now Worcestershire, Shropshire, and Staffordshire, as Arden once covered Warwickshire. Epping Forest was part of a greater whole, which extended from London nearly to the Wash, as another such region from the Peak to the Trent; from the Peak to the Tees was little but desert; from Tees to Tyne was one great forest in St. Cuthbert's days. These great woods were being rapidly cleared or opened out, when the Norman kings came and largely increased them; as by the depopulating and "afforesting" a district containing twenty-two churches, to form the New Forest. But they also introduced the new Forest Laws, by which the Conqueror, who "loved the tall stags as if he had been their father," inflicted a cruel penalty (the loss of eyes) for hunting the royal deer. The so-called Forest Laws of Canute, a palpable forgery of the twelfth century, probably represent the state of things under Henry I.; they make it capital "to kill a stag as to kill a man;" merely to hunt a deer was punished by the lash, if the offender were a villein; if a freeman, by a heavy fine. Within the forest bounds, no bows were to be carried without a licence, no dogs were to be kept but mastiffs, and those to be "lawed" by cutting off the claws of each forefoot. In Henry II.'s Forest Assize the third offence is capital; and even Edward I. allows a trespasser who should resist the hue and cry to be lawfully slain, and requires a solemn inquest and verdict to be taken upon the body of a dead stag. The same jealous watch was exercised over "vert" as over "venison." The forest courts and officers, under the hand of Henry II., became an exact analogy of the shire system, to which they stood as it were as rivals. The Court of Reguard was indeed held only every three years, for the "lawing" of dogs, agistment of cattle, &c. But the wood-mote, or Court of Attachment, met every forty days, and therein the foresters made their presentments to the verderers, a jury of inhabitants. Presentments reaffirmed went before the swain-moot, which met thrice a year; while final judgment was given at the Justice Seat, or occasional visits of itinerant forest justices. This last office was abolished in 57 George III., the criminal law of the forest having already been almost wholly repealed in 7 George III. Nothing stood more in the way of that alliance between the king and the English people against the Norman baronage —that alliance on which hung, for more than a century and a half, the very existence of the throne—than this tyrannous forest system. Even in his great need, in the very charter by which he purchased his accession, Henry I. insists on retaining his father's forests; and Stephen, too, who gave up everything, could not bring himself to keep his promise of giving up the forests which Henry I. had added. Henry II. developed them into an organisation under a master forester and sixteen forest justiciaries. John was forced into an engagement to give up those added by himself, and "to consider the extensions made by his father and brother;" but we find one of the grievances at the Parliament of Oxford, in 1258, is that neither this, nor the engagement made in 1217 by Henry III.'s ministers, in his name, had been carried out. It was not until the last year of the century that the often-promised "perambulation" was made, and the forest bounds reduced, by a strict inquiry between the royal officers and the local representatives. It was characteristic of the short-sightedness of the Stuart kings that they revived this old source of discontent. Traces are to be found under James I. of attempts to restore the old claims in their fulness, and at last Noy's bullying chicanery won a suicidal victory in the decisions of 1633—37, which inquired into all alterations made since John and Henry II., and undid much of the "Perambulation" of 1300.

The forest policy of the earlier kings is not to be explained by a royal infatuation for the pleasures of the chase. The forests, in fact, offered to the king (1) a revenue, (2) an armed force, (3) a jurisdiction altogether outside the ever-narrowing circle of his constitutional position. Thus (1) the crown derived considerable profits from such rights as the "pannage" of swine and the agistment of cattle within these vast domains; the chiminagium, or tax on carts which came to take fuel, charcoal, or bark; the "pleas" of the forest courts, and the fines on offenders. But too often the forests were treated as an inexhaustible treasury, wherefrom to make grants to courtiers. Again (2), the host of stewards, foresters, reguardors, agistors, woodreeves, and bailiffs were a rude substitute for a standing army and a royal police. (3) The code of forest law, too, stood out in relief from the common law; what was "not justice in itself, was justice according to the forest law," and these courts could enforce an attendance even from the great lord who claimed a franchise superior to hundred and shire moot, even from the clergy, who could in other cases appeal to their ordinary. They were, indeed, as Henry II.'s Treasurer calls them, "the shrine and bower of kingship," a royal counterpoise at once to the baronial "liberty" and the popular

"shire-moot," an *imperium in imperio*. The king claimed a supervision over the very parks and woodlands of his earls and barons, bishops and abbots, whether within a forest's bounds or not. "A subject," says Coke, "cannot have more than a chase, unless by express grant, first, of the privilege of a royal forest, and then of the jurisdiction belonging thereto."

To a people feeling the ordinary courts an irksome burden, the added duty of attendance at the forest courts must have seemed intolerable. And yet, till Magna Charta, this was enforced, probably in more than half the shires, on all alike, whether dwellers in forest bounds or not. In the Forest Charter of 1217, concessions are made which show how well grounded the complaints were; the swain-moot is to be convened not more than three times a year, and the Court of Attachment every forty days; the necessary officers and parties alone are bound to attend. The keepers of royal castles are forbidden to hold forest pleas; the same rules henceforth are to be binding on the barons' and prelates' conduct to their mesne vassals.

The forests reached their widest extent in the reign of John. Not merely were there such woods as Delamere, Windsor, Whittlebury, Dean, the New Forest, Andred, Sherwood, Selwood, Arden, and such hill districts as the Chilterns, the Peak, Exmoor, Dartmoor, the Yorkshire Wolds; but whole counties were reckoned as forests, and subject to forest law, *e.g.*, Devonshire, Cornwall, Essex, Rutland, Northamptonshire, Leicestershire, Lancashire. Edward I.'s concessions then "disforested" an immense proportion of lands hitherto included, perhaps two-thirds of the whole. But Henry VIII. added Hampton Court, the royal rights still weighed on twenty counties in the Tudor reigns, and the number of royal forests was still reckoned at sixty-eight in the eighteenth century. The Commonwealth Commission, which sat to carry out the remedial Act of 1641, did not act on the suggestion made for a complete sale of them; but the reductions it effected were not wholly lost at the Restoration. Most of the forest laws, and many of the forest dues, became obsolete. And now the people began to encroach upon the crown. When investigation was made at the end of the eighteenth century, and early in the nineteenth, it was found that endless unlicensed enclosures had been effected; iniquitous transfers made under colour of sale; timber was stolen, mines neglected, plantations mismanaged; officials had transformed themselves into owners; and there were only twenty forests which could supply timber for the navy. But under the provision of several Acts of George III., and the Consolidating Act of 10 George IV., c. 50, a better system of management was inaugurated about 1809. Twelve of the twenty royal forests then remaining were re-inclosed and re-planted, and a commission appointed in 1838 gradually simplified their organisation, and improved their yield, till, a few years ago, the eight royal forests which remained yielded an average profit of £8,000 a year, as against an actual loss in 1846—7—8, due to former mismanagement. Some have been sold, as Sherwood to the Duke of Grafton, and some opened out to agriculture, as large parts of Windsor. The office of Woods and Forests was separated from the department of Public Works in 1851. This by no means represents the whole result of their work, for much of the old forest domains are now classed as crown lands, and on them the revenue has risen from £250,000, in 1853, to over £500,000, a sum which more than covers the King's Civil List. It is singular that in this way those royal demesne lands, of which the forests once formed the main part, after straining the relations between crown and people for centuries, and assisting unduly to magnify the prerogative, while they soon failed to add to its real strength, or materially to aid the Exchequer, have at last been made to cover the cost of the monarch's establishment.

The Hundred Rolls (passim); *Domesday Book*; Coke, *Institutes*, iv. 320—1; Manwood, *Forest Laws* (1695); *Fifth Report of Deputy Keeper of Public Records*; *Records of Commissioners of Woods and Forests*, 1787—1883, especially those for 1850 and 1881; *Calendars of State Papers (Domestic) under James I. and Charles I.*, especially Introduction to Calendar for 1634—5; Green, *Making of England*; Pearson, *Historical Maps of England*; Stubbs, *Select Charters*; Stanford, *Historical Map of England and Wales*. [A. L. S.]

Forfeiture of Lands. (1) For Treason. The earliest law of treason, that of Alfred, enacted that if a man plotted against the king's life, he should be "liable in his life and in all that he has;" and in the first detailed discussion of the subject, that of Bracton (*temp.* Henry III.), forfeiture is set down as one of the penalties. From this period the law was unchanging until 1870. The traitor forfeited to the crown for ever all his freehold lands, whether entailed or not, all rights to freehold lands which he then had or might afterwards acquire, and all interests in land for life or other term of years. Sentence of forfeiture was retro-active as far as the date of the act of treason; it therefore annulled all deeds of conveyance, &c., which might have been made since, but did not affect a wife's jointure which had been settled on her previously. Dower, on the other hand, was forfeited by 5 and 6 Edward VI. As forfeiture was a consequence of attainder, if the rebel was killed on the field, executed by martial law, or died before judgment was pronounced, his lands were not forfeited. In Scotland conviction for treason did not bring with it forfeiture of entailed lands. At the Union it was thought necessary to make the law uniform in England and Scotland, but as this met with much opposition from the Scots, it was enacted (7 Anne) that though for the

present forfeiture should follow treason in Scotland as in England, it should cease in both countries upon the death of the then Pretender. After a second Act immediately before the rebellion of '45 had secured the continuance of the penalty, the whole clause relating to the ultimate cessation of forfeiture was abolished by 39 George III. (2) For Murder. The criminal forfeited to the crown only the *profits* of his entailed estates, and the possession for a year and a day with right of "waste" of lands in fee simple. After this the lands were escheated to the lord. Possession by the crown for a year and a day originally followed *all convictions for felony*, though it became customary to pay a composition to prevent the use of the right of entry. By 54 George III. forfeiture for a year and a day was abolished for all felonies except treason and murder, and finally the Felony Act of 1870 abolished attainder and its consequent forfeiture altogether. Forfeiture of *goods and chattels* followed conviction for any felony, and did not need, as in the case of lands, to be preceded by attainder. This also was abolished in 1870. [W. J. A.]

Forman, Andrew (*d.* 1522). A Scottish ecclesiastic and statesman of the early part of the sixteenth century. He became Bishop of Moray, was ambassador to ratify the alliance of Scotland and England at the accession of Henry VIII., but soon after attached himself to France, was made Archbishop of Bourges, and persuaded James IV. to begin the war of 1513 against England. In 1515 he was made Archbishop of St. Andrews at the request of Albany. In 1517 he became one of the Council of Regency in Albany's absence. Forman was able, versatile, and magnificent. He has been compared to Wolsey, but his want of fixed principle or policy make the comparison very unjust to the latter.

Burton, *Hist. of Scotland.*

Fornham St. Genevieve, The Battle of (1173), was one of the victories won by Henry II. over the rebellious barons who allied themselves with the French king. Here Robert de Beaumont and his Flemish mercenaries were totally defeated by the Justiciar, Richard de Lucy. Fornham is two miles from Bury St. Edmunds.

Forrest, Dr., was an Observant Friar and confessor to Catherine of Aragon, a strong opponent of her divorce and of the royal supremacy, and was executed in 1538, being hung in chains over a slow fire, so that his "treason" and heresy should both receive their legal punishment.

Forster, Wm. E. (*b.* 1818, *d.* 1886), was educated at the Friends' School, Tottenham. In 1861 he was returned to Parliament in the Liberal interest for Bradford, and in Lord Russell's administration he was Under-Secretary for the Colonies. As Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education he passed the Education Bill (1870) through the Commons. On Mr. Gladstone's retirement in 1874 he was one of the candidates for the Liberal leadership, but resigned in Lord Hartington's favour. In 1880 he became Chief Secretary for Ireland, but resigned in 1882 on Mr. Parnell's release. He ardently supported the Northern cause in the American War of Secession, took a middle course in the Eastern Question (1876–78), and was keenly interested in Imperial Federation.

Sir Wemyss Reid, *Life.*

Fort Duquesne was the most celebrated of the ring of forts built by the French about the middle of the eighteenth century to connect Louisiana with Canada. It was situated in the upper valley of the Ohio. Against it, in 1756, General Braddock led his ill-fated expedition; but shortly after, the English conquered the fort and renamed it *Pittsburg*, in honour of the great War Minister. It is now, under its new name, the great seat of the American iron and coal trades.

Fort Erie, on Lake Ontario, was besieged and taken by the British troops, under Sir George Drummond, after the battle of Lundy's Lane, in 1814.

Fort George, on Lake Ontario, near Niagara, was the scene of frequent skirmishes during the American War of 1812–15. In 1813 it was taken by the Americans from General Vincent, and was again invested by General Brown in the following year.

Fort St. George. [Madras.]

Fort Teviot, five miles south of Perth, was the capital of the old Pictish kingdom.

Fort William, close to Inverlochy in South Inverness-shire, commands the sea entry to the Highlands, and was built in 1691 by General Mackay. It was successfully attacked by the Jacobites in 1715 and 1745.

Fort William. [Calcutta.]

Fortescue, Sir John (*d.* after 1476), was descended from an old Devonshire family, and in 1442 was made Chief Justice of the King's Bench. He was a strong partisan of the Lancastrian cause, and in the first Parliament of Edward IV. was attainted of high treason. He fled to Scotland, and afterwards to France, where he became the tutor of the young Prince Edward, for whose instruction he wrote his famous work, *De Laudibus Legum Angliæ*. He was present at the battle of Tewkesbury, and in 1473 obtained a reversal of his attainder by retracting what he had written against Edward IV.'s title to the crown. His book (best ed., Plummer's, 1885) is of much interest, from its picture of a constitutional ideal that had almost been realised in the preceding generation.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Foss, *Judges.*

Forties, The, was a name given to the Irish forty-shilling freeholders in the early part of the nineteenth century. The Irish election law had never been altered, and in old days, when the landowners could depend on their tenantry, it had been a favourite practice with them to increase them, in order to have more voters under their control. In 1826, however, in two cases they followed the priests and O'Connell, and threw out two landlords' candidates. In 1828 they returned O'Connell for Clare. In 1829 the Emancipation Bill was accompanied by a measure raising the franchise to £10, and thus sweeping them away. O'Connell was much blamed for not raising his voice on their behalf, but he was probably afraid to endanger Emancipation.

Fortrenn was a province of Celtic Scotland, comprising the districts of Menteith and Stratherne, and extending from the Forth to the Tay. After the re-establishment of the Pictish power by the victory of Nectansmere, the name Fortrenn began to be used as synonymous with the kingdom of the Picts.

Foss Way was a Roman road, probably running from Ilchester to Lincoln, crossed by the Ermine Street. Another road in Dorsetshire had the same name. [Roman Roads.]

Guest, *The Four Roman Ways* (*Origines Celticæ*, vol. ii.).

Foster, Sir John, was sent in 1565, in conjunction with the Earl of Bedford, on a mission to Mary Queen of Scots, on behalf of the Earl of Murray. In the rebellion of the northern earls, 1569, he did good service on the royal side, and in the following year harried Teviotdale. In 1572 he was charged, as Warden of the Middle Marches, with the duty of superintending the execution of Thomas, Earl of Northumberland. In 1585 he was taken prisoner by Ker of Ferniehurst, the Warden of the Scotch Marches, near Riccarton.

Fosterage, The Custom of. The Irish in mediæval times were remarkable for their affection for their foster-children, and Giraldus Cambrensis goes so far as to say "That the Irish loved their foster-children, and were cruel to their own relations." Fosterage was one of the chief means by which they influenced their conquerors, and the Statute of Kilkenny in 1367, and several other statutes, were passed to prevent this form of degeneracy. Sir J. Davis says of it, "Yet in Ireland they put away all their children to fosterage, the potent and rich men selling, the meaner sort buying, the nursing of children, and the reason is because, in the opinion of this people, fosterage hath always been a stronger alliance than blood, and the foster-children do love and are beloved of their foster-fathers and sept more than of their own natural parents and kindred, and do participate their means more frankly, and do adhere to them with more affection and constancy." The Statute of Kilkenny had made fosterage with the Irish high treason, but the custom continued till Cromwell's time.

Giraldus Cambrensis, *Expug. Hib.*; Davis, *Discovery*; Moore, *Hist. of Ireland*; O'Curry, *Manners and Customs of the Ancient Irish*.

Fotheringay Castle, in Northamptonshire, was founded after the Norman Conquest by Simon de Liz, and subsequently rebuilt by Edmund Langley, Duke of York. In 1452 it was the scene of the birth of Richard III.; after the discovery of Babington's plot, Mary Queen of Scots was confined, tried, and executed in Fotheringay Castle. It was entirely demolished by order of James I.

Fougères, The Capture of (1449), was made by a body of English troops with the connivance of the Dukes of Somerset and Suffolk in flagrant violation of the truce which had been made between England and France. Fougères, which is situated in Brittany, close to the Frontiers of Normandy and Maine, was at this time a place of great wealth, and by its capture the English obtained enormous booty, but the glaring breach of faith threw the Duke of Brittany into the arms of France, and hastened the expulsion of the English from Normandy, completed in 1450.

J. Gairdner, Introduction to *Paston Letters*.

Foundling Hospital, The (Dublin), had large private funds amounting to £16,000 a year; about 120 noblemen and gentlemen were on its committee. Yet when De Blacquiere, in 1789, moved for a committee of inquiry, a motion which Grattan (q.v.) resisted unsuccessfully, the most terrible mismanagement was exposed. It was discovered that out of 2,180 children sent to the institution in one year, 2,087 had disappeared, and that each child cost the public £120. The committee also had never had a quorum, except when a place was to be given away.

Four Masters, The Chronicle of the, was written by Michael, Conary, and Cucogry O'Clerighe, and Fearfeafa O'Mulconry, who compiled in Irish, from original documents, the annals of Ireland from 2242 B.C. to A.D. 1616. The writers did their work in a Franciscan monastery in Donegal in 1632–36, under the patronage of Fergus O'Gara, a native chieftain. Nearly all the MSS. they used were lost in the conflicts of the next few years. The work is the most important of the collections of early Irish annals, though, of course, largely mythical.

The work, printed in O'Conor, *Rerum Hibernicarum Scriptores*, vol. iii., has been translated and edited by J. O'Donovan, 1848.

Fourmigni, The Battle of (1450), was one of the last battles of the Hundred Years'

War, and was fought between a body of English troops who had been sent into France under Sir T. Kyriel to reinforce the Duke of Somerset, and the French under Richemont. The English were defeated with great slaughter. This defeat decided the fate of Normandy, which was reconquered by the French in the course of the same year.

Fowler, Sir Henry. [Wolverhampton, Viscount.]

Fox, Charles James (*b.* 1749, *d.* 1806), was the second son of Henry Fox, afterwards Lord Holland. Educated at Eton and Oxford, he afterwards travelled on the Continent, and while still in Italy, he was returned M.P. for Midhurst, as a supporter of Lord North. His success was immediate, and was the more readily assured since he took the side of the majority. His brilliant and reckless support was rewarded by his appointment in Feb., 1770, as a junior Lord of the Admiralty. This position he retained for two years, and then, after attacking Lord North with much warmth on the Church Nullum Tempus Bill, in Feb., 1772, he resigned, and thus felt himself at liberty to oppose the Royal Marriage Act. He was again taken into the ministry as a Lord of the Treasury; but his fiery spirit was too independent to allow him to remain long in any subordinate post. He instituted a mutiny in the government ranks, which resulted in Lord North's defeat. Henceforth, his great social influence and greater debating powers were enlisted on the Whig side. He openly opposed Lord North's ministry, especially in regard to their American policy, and at once became a recognised leader of the Whigs, and a close friend of Burke, whose views he now began to share. In 1779 he made a most violent attack upon Lord Sandwich, the First Lord of the Admiralty, and moved that he might be excluded from the king's councils. He had now come to be the acknowledged leader of the Opposition in the House of Commons; and was selected by the Radical electors of Westminster as their champion along with Admiral Rodney. He still continued to attack the ministry with the fiercest invectives, and even threatened Lord North with impeachment. In 1782 Lord Rockingham formed a cabinet, in which Fox was one of the Secretaries of State. With Lord Rockingham's death in July, Fox's share in the government came to an end. He distrusted Shelburne, and would not serve under him. Before a year was passed, Shelburne, unable to withstand the strictures with which Fox greeted his peace proposals, resigned; and Fox became the colleague of Lord North, as Secretary of State, under the nominal lead of the Duke of Portland. An alliance so unnatural could not last long, and the government was defeated on Fox's India Bill, chiefly through the king's influence. After the dismissal of the Coalition ministry, Pitt came in with a minority to back him; but Fox did much to ruin the cause of his party by the factious and violent opposition which he offered to all Pitt's measures. Pitt soon became firmly established in his position; but Fox continued to harass him with attacks at every point. He opposed his India Bill, and tried to make capital out of Pitt's measures for the relief of Ireland. In 1786 he obtained a splendid opportunity of displaying his eloquence and abilities in the prosecution of Warren Hastings; but in this great trial he seems to have been eclipsed by his illustrious companions. Two years later he warmly espoused the unconstitutional position desired by the Prince of Wales on the question of the Regency Bill, but he was baffled by the patient resolution of Pitt. In 1789 came the news of the destruction of the Bastille. Fox at once hailed with delight what he deemed the uprising of an oppressed people. In 1791 he passed the celebrated Libel Bill. With greatly diminished following, Fox still continued to watch with sympathy and enthusiasm the course of the Revolution in France, and furiously opposed the notion of war with that country. In 1795 he employed his most vehement eloquence in opposing in vain the Sedition and Treason Bills. Seeing that he could effect nothing, Fox retired in 1797 into domestic privacy at St. Anne's Hill. In 1804, on the resignation of Addington, Pitt, well aware of his difficulties, was very anxious to form a cabinet on a broad basis, where faction might be sunk in patriotism. With this object in view he desired the co-operation of Fox; but the king would not hear of it. On Jan. 26, 1806, Pitt died, and the king at length overcame his prejudices and had recourse to the Opposition, out of which a ministry was formed with Lord Grenville as Prime Minister, and Fox as Foreign Secretary. Fox now abandoned his passionate longing for peace with France before the necessity of saving Europe; and in his efforts to achieve this object, he was as resolute as Pitt. But Napoleon took advantage of his still strong desire for peace to carry out his own schemes for the conquest of Europe; and the fatal indecision of the ministry left Prussia unaided to oppose Napoleon's combinations, and to be defeated at Jena. Death, however, came to Fox just in time to save him from witnessing the overthrow of his most cherished hopes. While negotiations were still pending between England, France, and Russia, Fox died Sept. 13, 1806. To a real passion for liberty, very unusual with eighteenth century Whigs, Fox added honesty, manliness, and consummate eloquence. His sweet disposition effaced the memory of his private irregularities; his general straightforwardness atoned for occasional factiousness.

Lord Russell, *Life of Fox*; Trevelyan, *Early Life of Fox*; Stanhope, *Pitt*; Walpole, *Mem. of*

George III.'s Reign; Jesse, *Mem. of Reign of George III.*; Massey, *Hist. of Eng.*; Adolphus, *Hist. of Eng.* [W. R. S.]

Fox, Richard (*d.* 1528), Bishop of Winchester, was born at Grantham, and, by the favour of Cardinal Morton, made Bishop of Exeter, Durham, and Winchester, in succession. He was a prominent minister and diplomatist under both Henry VII. and his son, until thrown into the shade by Wolsey. He was also zealous for the "New Learning," and founder of Corpus Christi College, Oxford, and several schools.

Fox, Sir Stephen (*b.* 1627, *d.* 1716), was of humble stock, and began life as a choir boy at Salisbury. Thence he became a member of Lord Percy's household, and took some share on the Cavalier side in the Great Rebellion. Clarendon persuaded Charles II. when in exile to make Fox his business manager—an office he filled with great discreetness. He made the scanty finances of the exile adequate to support him. After the Restoration his promotion was rapid. He was made Paymaster, Master of the Horse, and Lord of the Treasury, sitting in the House as member for Salisbury. He became very rich. Despite his gratitude to the Stuarts, his name appeared on every commission of William III.'s Treasury. He took a large part in the foundation of Chelsea Hospital. Of his two sons, Stephen became Lord Ilchester, and Henry became Lord Holland and father of C. J. Fox.

Trevelyan, *Early Life of C. J. Fox.*

Foxe, John (*b.* 1516, *d.* 1587), the martyrologist, was compelled to quit England during the Marian persecution, but on the accession of Elizabeth returned, and was made a canon of Salisbury. A friend of many of the most noted men of the age, Foxe would have obtained the highest dignities of the Church had he renounced his Calvinistic views. His *Acts and Monuments*, commonly known as the *Book of Martyrs* (first published in 1563) is a vast but prejudiced and uncritical compilation of the annals of martyrdom, which, though containing much useful matter, is too unsafe a guide for the historian to follow, unless substantiated from other sources.

France, Relations with. Long before France, in the modern sense, was constituted, England had frequent dealings with the territory now known by that name. The old English monarchs were often in close relations with the Carlovingian Emperors. [Empire, Relations with.] French history strictly begins in 987, when Hugh Capet, Duke of the French, assumed the crown of the Carolings, and, like Harold, founded a monarchy, national in idea but feudal in reality. The abandonment of the Carlovingian kings by the Norman dukes was among the chief causes of Hugh Capet's success; but there was a natural enmity between the weak suzerain and the mighty vassal that transferred itself to England when William of Normandy became English king. French ideas, manners, military system, architecture even, had already come into England with Edward the Confessor. After the Conquest the governing classes were practically Frenchmen. But the political relations with the French monarchy, which it is our main business to trace here, were necessarily determined by William's hostility to the Parisian king. The subsequent national hostility between France and England sprang much more largely from the uneasy relations of the early Capetians to their over-powerful vassals than from English dislike to what was French. William I. fought against Philip I. for the possession of the Vexin, and met his death during the campaign. In 1094, Philip vainly helped Duke Robert against William II., and again, in 1097, fought with the English king about the Vexin. Louis VI. was a more redoubtable antagonist than the weak Philip. But the reunion of England and Normandy after 1106 made Louis' efforts to weaken Henry fruitless, and the Treaty of Gisors (1113) ended the war for a time. But in two or three years the war was renewed, until the English victory at Brenneville (1119), and the mediation of Calixtus II., produced another peace. The subsequent efforts of Louis were of little importance. The reign of Stephen suspended foreign relations; but Henry II., from the very fact that he ruled more of France than the French king himself, was the more likely to be his unwilling vassal. In 1159 Henry was involved in the War of Toulouse, but in refusing to wage open war with his lord, Louis VII., showed a scruple that was not experienced by Louis, who never lost an opportunity of attacking Henry—*e.g.*, in 1167—8, during the Becket quarrel; in 1173—4, when Louis helped the younger Henry to revolt against his father, and set on foot a powerful but unsuccessful coalition against the Angevin. Later in the reign, when Louis stirred up Richard and John against their father, the relations of England and France for the first time assumed that aspect of lasting hostility that influenced all subsequent history. The temporary suspension of enmity for crusading purposes—the joint Crusade of Richard I. and Philip Augustus [Crusades]—led only to a quarrel in Palestine, and Philip's premature return to arrange attacks on Normandy. John, Philip's old ally, became his enemy on his accession to the throne. Philip's conquest of Normandy in 1204, his alliance with Innocent III. against the excommunicated English king, the crowning victory of Bouvines (July 27, 1214) over every branch of the German race, sufficiently indicate the

relations of England and France under John. But so little national opposition was there as yet that the revolted barons, enraged at John's repudiation of the Great Charter, invited Philip's son Louis to avenge their wrongs, and occupy their throne. Nothing but John's opportune death and the wisdom of Pembroke could have saved England from at least a temporary union with France.

Though the results were not at first apparent, the separation of England and Normandy had revolutionised the relations of England and France. The countries henceforth pursued a separate course. The feudal hostility became national. England became conscious of national identity. Though French still in manners and speech, the barons of England were no longer French in feeling. Strengthened by the annexations of Philip Augustus, the French monarchy was now a sufficient basis for the development of French national sentiment. One thing alone retarded this change of relation—the retention of Guienne by Henry III. and his successor. In consequence of this there was still a feudal element in the relations of England and France. Besides being English monarchs, Henry III. and even Edward I. were also feudal potentates in the separatist south. In both aspects they were equally hostile to the Parisian monarchs.

Under Henry III.—in whose reign a new importation of French manners, and the great absorption of French words in the English tongue occurred—the struggle for Poitou, lost in about 1229 by the English and in vain attacked in 1242, was counterbalanced by the conscientious moderation of Louis IX., which led to his selection as mediator between Henry and the barons in 1264. But the Mise of Amiens disgusted the national party, and led the way to the struggle of Edward I. and Philip the Fair; while the rival claims of English and Angevin claimants to the Sicilian throne had added previously a new element of difference. Yet, in 1286, Edward mediated between France and Aragon, though his award was repudiated. In 1294 a great war began, during which Edward for a time lost Gascony, and in which Scotland, then struggling against Edward for national independence, first became the hereditary ally of France. In 1297 the war ended, and in 1299 Boniface VIII.'s mad action led to the definite Treaty of Chartres. Edward II., though married to the sister of Charles IV., fell into difficulties with that monarch in 1324; the revolution of 1327, however, put these into the background.

In 1328 the old line of French kings died out, and the accession of Philip of Valois was contested by Edward III. as the son of Isabella. In 1337 French help to Scotland led Edward to prosecute his claim by arms. So began the *Hundred Years' War* between France and England. After a period of brilliant victories, Edward III. forced on the French the Treaty of Bretigny (1360), but Charles V, profiting by Edward's dotage, and the minority of Richard II., reconquered all he had won save Calais. The marriage of Richard II. with Isabella of France, in 1397, coinciding with that monarch's arbitrary stroke for absolutism, marks a curious approximation between the two countries, during the pause between the acts of the great struggle. It led to the friendship of the Armagnacs for the deposed Richard which was, perhaps, the beginning of that Anglo-Burgundian alliance that alone made possible the brilliant successes of Henry V. Under him the second heroic period of the Hundred Years' War was fought, and the Treaty of Troyes (1420) made Henry son-in-law and successor of the French monarch. Edward III. had the assistance of the feudal south, but Henry V. was the ally of the monarchical north of France, a different native faction contributing to each king's success. Thereafter the minority of Henry VI. and the national enthusiasm engendered by the Maid of Orleans, led to the loss not of Paris only or of Normandy, but of the ancient possession of Guienne. The death of Talbot, in 1453, ended the Hundred Years' War and the hopes of English domination in France. Calais, Edward III.'s great prize, alone remained of all the conquests.

The question of peace or war with France was now one of the chief points of dispute between the court and constitutional parties. The unpopularity of Suffolk, and the popularity of York, were largely the result of their adopting a statesmanlike and popular view respectively. But the alliance, first of the Lancastrians, then of Warwick, with France, forced Edward IV., however unwillingly, to the Burgundian alliance; and though Charles the Bold's abandonment of his cause led to the Treaty of Pecquigny (1475) and friendship with Louis XI., yet before Edward's death that monarch had repudiated the English alliance. In vain Richard III. sought the friendship of France. Charles VIII., no less than Francis of Britanny, helped Henry of Richmond to the throne; though Henry VII.'s constant Spanish policy, the war of the Breton succession, and the French support of Warbeck, despite the Treaty of Etaples (1492), show that the normal hostility of England and France still continued.

With Henry VIII. a new era in foreign relations began. Instead of the long-standing traditional policy of the Middle Ages, the policy of interests begins with the establishment of the political system of Europe, the doctrine of the balance of power, and the growth of modern diplomacy. In the early part of his reign, Henry was eager to win new Crecys and Agincourts at the expense of the traditional enemy. But besides this, a new motive—the desire of adjusting the balance in Italy—led Henry to join the War

of the Holy League against France (1511—1514). For a few years old and new motives coincided to keep Henry true to his traditional hostility, and the first war of Francis I. and Charles V. (1521—1529) saw Henry again the enemy of France. But the negotiations of 1520 clearly show that Henry's main motive had reference to the political exigencies of the moment, rather than to any traditional theory of policy. The withdrawal of England from the war, after the battle of Pavia (1525), the moment that Charles had an overwhelming advantage, illustrates Henry's regard for the balance of power. The alliance with France in 1526, the long and wearisome negotiations to enlist France on the side of Henry's divorce, equally indicate the new state of things. Francis played Henry false, and deserved the English attack in 1543, which, successful during Henry's life, led to disastrous failure during the weak rule of Somerset. Northumberland was the friend of France; but the accession of Mary, with the consequent Spanish alliance, was the cause of a fresh war between the two countries, during which France gained Calais. The Treaty of Cateau Cambresis (1559) ended the war, but the accession of Francis II., the husband of Mary of Scotland, and tool of the Guises, and the ambiguous compromise as to the restoration of Calais, kept alive the enmity.

The Treaty of Cateau marked the beginning of a new era. Political considerations were subordinated to religious ones; and during Elizabeth's reign, despite her personal feelings, the Huguenots were the natural allies, the Catholic League the natural foes, of the English. The accession of Henry IV. ended the active period of Catholic reaction, and led, for the first time, to a hearty national alliance of France and England against Spain. For the next half century religious hatred of Catholicism, and political fear of the overweening Spanish monarchy, continued to produce this approximation between the old rivals. James I.'s Spanish policy was unpopular and unsuccessful. In 1624 a French alliance was adopted, and Charles I.'s marriage with Louis XIII.'s sister, though it did not prevent the war of 1627, kept the two nations on fair terms during the whole reign of that monarch. Richelieu's underhanded support of the Scots rather strengthened than weakened this position. The vacillating foreign policy of the first Stuarts made it impossible for fixed relations, either friendly or hostile, to be established; and it was reserved for Cromwell to revive the foreign policy of Elizabeth, and, in league with Mazarin, to humble effectually the pride of Spain. But Elizabethan policy was now obsolete. Cromwell's friendship with France is largely responsible for the aggressions of Louis XIV. Under Clarendon, who closely followed Cromwell in foreign policy, the same policy of French alliance became a source of that minister's unpopularity. The Triple Alliance (1667) of the Cabal was the beginning of the policy of combined resistance to Louis XIV., of which ultimately England was to be the centre. But Catholic and despotic leanings, love of bribes, and fear of decided action, kept England's general influence on the side of France, so long as Charles II. and James II. were on the throne. Only under Danby, when the Orange marriage and the decided action of 1677 were effected, did England in any vigorous way set itself against French aggressions. The great development of French influence on literature, culture, manners, and fashions helped to maintain this French friendship. But with the Revolution of 1688, the prince who was at the centre of the European opposition to the universal monarchy of Louis XIV. became King of England, and the addition of the whole weight of England to the coalition led to the ultimate defeat of France. The war of 1688—1697 [Ryswick, Treaty of] prepared the way for the War of the Spanish Succession (1702—1713). The well-contested defeats of William, and the crowning victories of Marlborough, broke up the power of France, even when the connection of the dethroned Stuarts with France, and the doctrine of *laissez-faire* in European politics, kept up a French party in the country, which secured the conclusion of the Treaty of Utrecht (1713). This Tory alliance with France, strangely enough, endured for twenty-five years of Whig ministry. The Regent, Philip of Orleans, and the ministers of George I., were, from widely different reasons, equally anxious for its maintenance. Philip drove away the Pretender from France, and, in 1717, the Triple Alliance of England, Holland, and France was effected to maintain the Treaty of Utrecht against the efforts of the reviving monarchy of Spain. The peace policy of Walpole and Fleury kept this state of things alive. It was during this period of unity that the close literary and philosophic intercourse between France and England, which was to make the doctrines of Locke and Newton the common property of Europe, was effected. But the revival of Spain was not very real. When prosperity visited France anew, her ministers were anxious to revive the schemes of Louis XIV., and, besides regard for the political balance of Europe, the rivalry of England and France in America and India, the efforts of both nations at colonial expansion, proved a new and deep-seated source of hostility. Thus, in the War of the Austrian Succession (1740—1748), and still more in the Seven Years' War (1756—1763), England and France were again involved in war. The glories of Pitt's great ministry led to the vast extension of the Indian and colonial empire of England, even though the desire of George III. to leave foreign politics alone, and devote himself to the restoration of the royal power, led to the premature Peace of Paris (1763). For

the next few years there was peace, but little cordiality, between France and England. At last peace was broken by the French, who openly helped the revolted colonists of America (1778). A fierce war was now waged between that year and 1782, terminated by the Peace of Versailles. During the next few years Pitt kept on good terms with a nation already on the verge of a revolution; although acts like his intervention in Holland would, in more fiery times, have led France into war. But Pitt's famous commercial treaty with France (1786), which revived a trade between two countries fast drifting into commercial as well as political alienation, is the chief mark of his French policy, and the "Anglomania" in France of the period antecedent to the Revolution was one effect of the increase of pacific relations.

At the outbreak of the Revolution France and England were on better terms than since the days of Walpole. That event, hailed by all but a few as the beginning of a brighter state of things in France, brought the nations still nearer together in sympathy. But it was soon seen that the course of the French Revolution was very different to what had been hoped for. Very early Burke sounded the alarm, and the growing ascendency of the Jacobins soon confirmed his prophecy. Henceforth, sympathy with the Revolution was attended with social ostracism, and remained only with the few staunch Whigs who still followed Fox as their leader, or with professed Radicals and agitators. In 1793 the great war of England against the Revolution began, and continued with but two slight breaks (the few months after the Treaty of Amiens, and the few months of Napoleon's captivity in Elba) until 1815. It became in turns a war of reactionary propaganda which would make no peace with a "regicide" Directory, a hopeless struggle for the balance of power in Europe against the aggressions of Napoleon, and finally an heroic defence of the English nation, and in a sense of the principle of nationality generally, against the lord of all Europe. In 1815 the restoration of the Bourbons ended, so far as was possible, the work of the Revolution, and a common attachment to some at least of the principles of the Holy Alliance united Tory England with the men of the Restoration. Since 1815 a slow but growing cordiality has replaced the old tradition of international hatred. On several occasions relations have become extremely strained. The Spanish Marriage Project of Louis Philippe, the question of the Lebanon, the ill-regulated ambition of Napoleon III. [Volunteer Corps], and, more recently, the Egyptian difficulties and the jealousies of French colonial enthusiasm, have produced unpleasantnesses that at an earlier period would doubtless have ended in war. But Napoleon III. finally determined on the English alliance, and the common Crimean and Chinese Wars, and still more, Cobden's famous commercial treaty, developed more friendly feelings, which in England, at least, are well established, and have issued in the international agreement of 1904, dealing with the principal recurring causes of friction.

In English, Dean Kitchin's *History of France* gives the best general account of French history. The compendium of M. Th. Lavallée, and M. Henri Martin's fuller *Histoire de France*, are standard French authorities. Von Ranke's works are the fullest for the international dealings of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, especially his *History of England* and *Französische Geschichte*.

Franchise. [Election.]

Francis, John, a youth of 19, shot at Queen Victoria (May 30, 1842), for which he was condemned to execution, but the sentence was commuted to penal servitude for life. The absurdity of indicting such a man as a traitor led to an Act punishing such cases by imprisonment and whipping.

Francis, Sir Philip (*b.* 1740, *d.* 1818), entered the Indian Civil Service, and was sent, in 1774, to Bengal, as a member of the new council appointed under the Act of 1773. He distinguished himself by the violence of his opposition to Warren Hastings. Returning to England in 1781, he entered Parliament in 1784, where he joined the Opposition, and stimulated Hastings's impeachment. Many, including Lord Macaulay, have regarded him as the author of the *Letters of Junius*. [Junius.]

Frank Almoign (*libera eleemosyna, i.e.*, free alms), was the name of a peculiar species of clerical tenure. The general condition of grants of land in frank almoign was, that the grantees should pray or say mass for the grantor and his kin; but no particular service was specified. It was a "nobler" tenure than the analogous tenure by divine service, in which the service was fixed. Frank almoign was always an exceptional tenure, as the great bulk of Church lands were held by ordinary lay tenure, such as knight-service and socage. The Act of 12 Car. II. exempted this tenure from abolition.

Frank-pledge, Frithborh, or (in the North) **Tenmannetale,** was an association of ten men, under the *borhs-ealdor*, *frith-borge-head*, or *capital pledge*, who were to be standing securities for each other, bound to produce any one of their number if called upon by the law to do so, and, if he is unable, liable to pay for what he has done amiss unless they can purge themselves from all complicity in the matter. The associations were called *tithings*, and every man was obliged to be a member of one such body. The frank-pledge may be regarded as a sort of artificial prolongation of the family tie, or, as based on the principle of the law of Athelstan, that every man should have a security for him. This law of Athelstan's,

re-enacted with additions by Edgar and Canute, resulted in the frank-pledge, which we first find described in the so-called laws of Edward the Confessor—and, therefore, to have been not earlier than the Conquest. The *View of Frank-pledge* was an important item of business in the local courts, and ultimately reverted to the court leet. In later views the capital pledge and other representatives of the tithing often had the duty of representing their township in the shire moot. This brought together the conceptions of township and tithing, and in this, says Dr. Stubbs, was the chief historical importance of the frank-pledge.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, especially i., § 41, with the references there given; Palgrave, *English Commonwealth;* K. Maurer, *Kritische Ueberschau.*

Frederick, Prince of Wales (*b.* 1707, *d.* 1751), was the son of George II. and Caroline of Anspach. Before coming to England, he quarrelled with his father because his intended marriage with Princess Wilhelmina of Prussia was broken off. On his arrival in England he joined the party that was in opposition to Walpole, taking Bolingbroke as his political adviser. The *Idea of a Patriot King* was written by that statesman as a guide for the prince when he should ascend the throne. In 1736 Frederick married Augusta of Saxe-Coburg; but this did not tend to the union of the royal family. He demanded (1736) that his income should be fixed by Parliament. The king's overtures were rejected; and after an animated debate, the ministers were victorious. The prince thereupon hurried his wife from Hampton Court to the empty palace of St. James's, when she was on the point of giving birth to a child. For this the prince was peremptorily ordered by George to leave the court; Queen Caroline remained implacable, refusing to see him on her death-bed. Frederick withdrew to Norfolk House in St. James's Square, and became the leader of the Opposition. On the fall of Walpole Frederick headed the Opposition as they went to pay their respects at court; but his reception by the king was merely formal. No reconciliation was effected, and the prince continued to oppose the ministry and court until his death.

Free Church of Scotland, The, was formed in 1843 by the "Disruption" from the Established Church of a large body of ministers and laymen. The Tory government, at the end of Queen Anne's time, passed (1712) an Act restoring patronage in Scotland. It was extremely unpopular at the time, and since has been the chronic cause of the various schisms of the Church of Scotland. Yet the patronage conferred by the Act gave only a recognised right to the benefice and its emoluments. The spiritual office of pastor could only be added to this by the "call" of the parishioners; but this "call" was frequently nominal, and, if but a few parishioners would make it, "a forced settlement" of the presentee could be effected. The beginning of the nineteenth century saw the acquisition by the Evangelical party of a majority in the General Assembly over the Moderates or Latitudinarians. In 1834 the Assembly passed the *Veto Law*, which declared it to be a fundamental article of the Church's doctrine that no minister should be intruded into a parish against the will of the people, and declared that a majority of male heads of families, full members of the Church, should be able to bar an obnoxious presentee. This was an attempt to make the call a reality in all cases. Before long this Act created litigation in the Court of Session, as well as great controversy on the relation of the ecclesiastical and civil powers. At Auchterarder, the call of the presentee was signed by two heads of families only, while the great majority of the parish expressed vehement dissent. Yet the Court of Session declared the presentment legal under the Patronage Act, and the House of Lords, on appeal, confirmed their decision; while at the same time the Scotch judges were accused of extending their jurisdiction on other points into spiritual matters cognisable by the Church alone. In 1842, after tedious litigation, the Auchterarder case was finally decided. In May, 1843, at the time of the meeting of the General Assembly, four hundred and twenty ministers, led by Dr. Chalmers, the most famous clergyman of his day, left the Established Church; and, leaving the hall of the Assembly, met in another room, as the first General Assembly of the Free Church, with Chalmers as Moderator. The bulk of their congregations followed them. The organising power of Chalmers, shown from the first by the Sustentation Fund for ministers' salaries, and the scheme for the education of the clergy of the new Church, triumphed over the financial and social difficulties of the new undertaking. In four years seven hundred Free churches were built. The Free Church simply reproduced in doctrine, discipline, and organisation the Established Church; save that, of course, the right of appointment to benefices was strictly confined to the congregation, and the "Erastian" dependence on the State avoided; though, as a theory, the "voluntary principle" was repudiated by these Hildebrands of the Reformed Church.

In 1900 the United Free Church of Scotland was formed by the union between the Free Church and the United Presbyterians. A small minority of the Free Church Assembly, however, maintaining that the union was *ultra vires*, claimed the property vested in the Free Church, and ultimately appealed to the House of Lords, which upheld their contention. The decision created such widespread discontent, that Government in 1905 appointed a committee of

inquiry. Following on the commissioners' report, an Act of Parliament was passed under which an Executive Commission allocated the property, etc., as between the two churches.

Subordinate Standards of the Free Church; Hanna, *Life of Chalmers*; *Annals of the Disruption*; Pauli, *Englische Geschichte seit 1815*.

[T. F. T.].

Freehold. The term "liberum tenementum," "free tenement," appears soon after Domesday in the sense of land held by a freeman by a free tenure, *i.e.*, by knight-service or socage. It was thus opposed to base or villein tenure. Freeholds were granted or conveyed by the process of feoffment, *i.e.*, an act of formal delivery of possession (livery of seisin), accompanied by words describing the nature of the interest conferred and the services to be rendered in return. But in Bracton (*temp.* Henry III.) the term "freehold" had come to have also a special sense, and to be applied to what had previously been only one characteristic of freehold tenure, namely, a right over land for a period without fixed or specified termination. Hence arose the term "freehold *estate*." "Estate" in English law means the interest which a holder has in the land, and especially the "quantity of interest" as measured by its duration. Estates are divided into such as are freehold, and such as are less than freehold, the former including estates of inheritance or for life, the latter estates for years (or leases), or at will.

Digby, *Hist. of the Law of Real Property*; Stephen, *Commentaries*.

Freeman, Edward Augustus (*b.* 1823, *d.* 1892), the learned historian of the Norman Conquest, was educated at Trinity College, Oxford. From 1884 until his death he was Regius Professor of Modern History at Oxford. His *History of the Norman Conquest* appeared between 1867 and 1876. He also wrote many other works, historical and architectural.

Free Trade Agitation. [Corn Laws; Cobden; Peel.]

French Revolution, War of the, is the name generally, though not very accurately, given to the series of great wars which arose out of the French Revolution, and lasted with two short intervals of peace from 1793 to 1815. England made at first no attempt to interfere in the internal troubles of France, and refused to take part in the first coalition against her. In the spring of 1792 Pitt reduced the navy, remitted taxation, and confidently looked forward to fifteen years of peace. In the autumn of the same year the position of affairs was entirely different. The French had expelled their invaders, and proceeded to annex Savoy, and to conquer Belgium, which they threatened to incorporate with France. The Convention offered the aid of the French arms to all people desirous of liberty, and French ministers intrigued with the disaffected party in England and Ireland. Pitt vigorously protested against the annexation of Belgium and the opening of the Scheldt, called out the militia, and introduced bills to subject aliens in England to strict supervision, and to prevent the export of corn and war materials to France. The French government refused any concession on the two questions of Belgium and the Scheldt, and protested against Pitt's precautionary measures. In the midst of negotiations on the subject, the execution of Louis XVI. took place (Jan. 21, 1793), and the government at once ordered the French minister to leave England. Pitt attempted to continue negotiations in spite of this, but on the first of February the French government declared war. England sent 30,000 men to the Netherlands under the command of the Duke of York. The Austrian victory of Neerwinden (March 18) had forced the French to retreat, and the allied troops spent the summer in besieging the frontier fortresses. In November the Duke of York laid siege to Dunkirk, but was forced to raise it again with the loss of his artillery. An expedition sent to the Norman coast to assist the Vendéans, arrived too late, and another which occupied Toulon in August, was forced to abandon it in December. Next year the allies were still more unfortunate. The French reconquered Belgium, and during the winter the Duke of York was driven out of Holland, and the Prince of Orange obliged to fly to England. Lord Howe's great victory of June 1, the conquest of numerous West Indian islands, and the revolt of Corsica, were a partial compensation for these defeats. In 1795 the coalition broke up altogether. Prussia made the Peace of Basel (April 5), and began thereby a neutrality which lasted for eleven years. Spain made peace on July 22, to be followed a year later by an offensive and defensive alliance with France, and a declaration of war against England (Oct., 1796). The smaller powers mostly followed the example of these two nations, and the burden of the war henceforth rested on England, Austria, and Sardinia. The year 1795 was marked by the failure of two English expeditions, one to Quiberon, the other to the coast of La Vendée. On the other hand, the alliance of Holland with France resulted in the English conquest of the Cape of Good Hope (Sept. 16). The Continental war, the next year, was decisive; Bonaparte's Italian campaign more than counterbalanced the reverses of Moreau and Jourdan, in Germany. In May the King of Sardinia withdrew from the coalition. In March England made an unsuccessful peace overture, which was followed in October by the despatch of Lord Malmesbury to Paris, to negotiate a general peace. England offered to restore all its

colonial conquests, and demanded a similar restoration of the French conquests. Above all it refused to admit the annexation of Belgium to France, and the rupture of the negotiations followed.

The year 1796 ended with an abortive attempt to land a French army in Ireland. The year 1797 brought the danger of invasion nearer still. In April Austria signed the preliminaries of Leoben, which were, in October, converted into the Treaty of Campo Formio. England was left to carry on the war alone, and that in a very unfavourable position. The Funds had sunk to little more than fifty, and in February cash payments had to be suspended, whilst in May and June the mutinies of the fleet made Great Britain for some weeks defenceless. The French government had formed the design of uniting the Spanish and Dutch fleets to their own fleet at Brest, and so sweeping the English fleet from the Channel, and rendering a landing possible. But the two victories of St. Vincent (Feb. 14) and Camperdown (Oct. 16) frustrated this plan; and though Bonaparte made some preparations for an invasion of England, he preferred the less perilous expedition to Egypt (May, 1798). A month after his landing, Nelson, by the victory of the Nile, destroyed his fleet and cut him off from France (Aug. 1). Renewed acts of aggression by the Directory in Switzerland and Italy, Bonaparte's absence, and Nelson's victory, made the formation of a new coalition possible. In 1799 the combined armies of Austria and Russia drove the French out of Italy; but General Massena successfully defeated the Austro-Russian invasion of Switzerland, and General Brune repulsed an Anglo-Russian expedition to Holland. Bonaparte's return to France was followed by the overthrow of the Directory (Nov. 8, 1799), and an immediate resumption of the offensive. In 1800 Austria was attacked both in Italy and Germany, and the victories of Marengo (June 14), and Hohenlinden (Dec. 3), were followed by the Peace of Lunéville (Feb. 9, 1801). England was again left to carry on the war alone, for Russia had quitted the coalition, and made a dispute about the right of search the foundation of a maritime league (Dec., 1800), which renewed the Armed Neutrality (q.v.) of 1780. This league consisted of Denmark, Sweden, and Russia, but it was almost immediately broken up by the battle of Copenhagen (April 2, 1801) and the death of the Emperor of Russia (March 23). Two days before, an English expedition had defeated the French at Alexandria, and the conquest of Egypt, with surrender of 24,000 French soldiers, soon followed. Though Bonaparte still threatened an invasion of England, and collected troops and gunboats at Boulogne, the English supremacy at sea rendered it merely a threat. Both countries were ready to come to terms. The negotiations at Paris, in 1796, had been followed by similar negotiations at Lille in 1797, and the English government had declined to treat in answer to Napoleon's overture in Dec., 1800. But this, the fourth attempt to bring about an understanding, was more fortunate, and the preliminaries of peace were signed in Oct., 1801, while the treaty was finally ratified on March 27, 1802. By the Treaty of Amiens, England surrendered all its conquests except Trinidad and Ceylon. It was agreed that Malta should be restored to the knights of St. John, but as the renewed aggressions of Napoleon gradually made it evident that it would speedily be seized by France, the English government refused to surrender the island. They believed that Napoleon meant to make Malta the stepping-stone for a new attack on Egypt, and Egypt the starting-point for an attack on India. War was declared on May 18, 1803. A French army under Marshal Mortier easily overran Hanover. A great flotilla and army were assembled by Napoleon at Boulogne for the invasion of England, and in December, 1804, the rupture between England and Spain placed an additional navy at his disposal. His plan for effecting a landing was based on the union of the three fleets of Toulon, Rochefort, and Brest, with the Spanish fleet, in order to secure the command of the Channel. Meantime, a third coalition was being formed. In April, 1805, an offensive and defensive alliance between England and Russia took place, and the league was completed by the accession of Austria (August), Sweden (August), and Naples. The naval combination fell through, and the Toulon fleet, which had succeeded in uniting with the Spaniards, was destroyed with them at Trafalgar (Oct. 21, 1805); but the coalition was shattered to pieces by the capitulation of Ulm (Oct. 19), and the defeat of Austerlitz (Dec. 3), followed by the Treaty of Presburg (Dec. 26). In England the Addington ministry, which had commenced the war, had been superseded in May, 1804, by the return of Pitt to power.

Pitt's death (Jan. 23, 1806) led to the formation of a ministry under Fox, which opened negotiations with Napoleon. But Napoleon's Continental policy rendered peace impossible. Just as the Directory had surrounded France with subject republics, so he wished to surround himself with vassal princes. One brother was established in Holland, and another became King of Naples, and the organisation of the Confederation of the Rhine founded his rule in Germany. Russia's declaration of war (Oct. 1, 1804) was answered by the victory of Jena (Oct. 14), and the army of Russia, after the doubtful battle of Eylau (Feb. 8), met with a severe defeat at Friedland (June 14).

The English ministry sent expeditions to Sicily (July, 1806), South America (Feb.—July, 1807), Egypt (March, 1807), and the

Dardanelles (Feb., 1807), but these useless diversions gave no real aid to the common cause. The Peace of Tilsit (July, 1807) put an end to the fourth coalition, and enabled Napoleon to turn the forces of the Continent against England. By the Decrees of Berlin (Nov. 21, 1806) and Milan (Dec. 17, 1807) he prohibited all direct or indirect trade with the British Isles. The secondary states, which still remained neutral or allied with England, were to be forced to adopt the same system, and to place their naval forces at his disposal. With the aid of Russia, Sweden was forced to adhere to the Continental system, and a combined Spanish and French army occupied Portugal (Nov., 1807). Denmark, after an English expedition had obliged it to surrender its fleet (Sept., 1807), allied itself with France. But for the success of Napoleon's schemes, the mere alliance with Spain was not sufficient. In order to make use of the vast resources and great colonies which misgovernment made of little value, he needed the complete control of Spain, and this he sought to secure by placing his brother Joseph on the Spanish throne (June, 1808). With the insurrection which in consequence broke out in Spain, begins a new period in the history of the wars which sprang out of the Revolution. Hitherto they had been the wars of states; henceforth they were to be the wars of nations. The idea of nationality inspired the peoples of Europe, and became the strongest support of its rulers in their resistance to France. Austria, fired by the example of Spain, took up arms again (April, 1809), but it could not rouse Germany to revolt, and after the battles of Aspern (May, 22) and Wagram (July 6) was obliged to sign a ruinous peace at Vienna (Oct. 14, 1809). England seized the opportunity of the Spanish revolt. In the summer of 1808 an English corps expelled the French from Portugal, whilst another advanced to take part in the defence of Spain, but was forced to retreat and re-embark, after winning a battle at Corunna (Jan. 16, 1809). The English government, however, instead of concentrating its strength on the war in Spain, wasted 40,000 men in a useless expedition to Walcheren. But, in spite of inefficient support, Sir Arthur Wellesley was able to recover Portugal (1809), and to maintain himself there, in 1810 and 1811, against repeated attacks. [Peninsular War.] In April, 1812, war began between Napoleon and Russia, and in the same month Lord Wellington captured the border fortress of Badajoz, and assumed the defensive in Spain. The news of his victory at Salamanca (July 22) reached the French head-quarters the day before the battle of Borodino (Sept. 7), and about a month before the French entered Moscow, the English army occupied Madrid (Aug. 12—Sept. 14, 1812). Lord Wellington raised the siege of Burgos on Oct. 18, and on the 19th, Napoleon quitted Moscow. The enthusiasm of the German people forced their sovereigns to take up arms. Russia was joined by Prussia (March 1, 1813), Sweden (March 3), and Austria, and the battle of Leipzig (Oct. 16—18) freed Germany, as that of Vittoria did Spain (June 20).

Whilst Wellington crossed the Bidassoa in September, and established his winter quarters in the south of France, the allied armies began the passage of the Rhine on the last day of 1813. After a campaign which lasted three months, Paris was taken, and Napoleon abdicated (April, 1814). The brother of Louis XVI. was called to the French throne, and France reduced, with some small exceptions, to the limits of 1792. The allied sovereigns, at the Congress of Vienna, were still disputing about the settlement of Europe, when Napoleon seized the opportunity which the discontent of the nation afforded, and re-entered France (March 1, 1815). The four great powers immediately re-formed the coalition against him (March 25), and the battle of Waterloo (June 18) was followed by his second abdication, and his exile to St. Helena. By the second Treaty of Paris (Nov. 20), France was sentenced to pay indemnities and expenses amounting to more than 60 millions, to a further loss of territory, and to a five years' occupation of her border fortresses.

Europe was reorganised by the Treaties of Vienna. The great states issued from the wars of the Revolution more powerful and more compact. The republics of Poland, Venice, and Genoa, the ecclesiastical states and most of the smaller principalities of Germany, had been absorbed by stronger neighbours. But the sovereigns and statesmen who arranged the rewards and compensations due to states, disregarded the claims of peoples. The Revolution had drawn its force and its proselytising power from the general desire for political freedom: the opposition to the Empire had been inspired by the desire for an independent national existence. Neither of these feelings was satisfied by the Vienna settlement, and so it was not permanent.

During the same period, England had grown greater outside Europe. In the West it had acquired a few more sugar islands; in the East it had excluded French influence from India, and greatly extended its own power in that country. It had also acquired the outposts and approaches of India, Ceylon, the Mauritius, the Cape, and Malta. But these accessions of territory had been gained at the cost of crushing taxation, and by the addition of more than 600 millions to the national debt.

Alison, *Hist. of Europe*; Stanhope, *Life of Pitt*; Massey, *Hist. of England*; James, *Naval History*; Napier, *Peninsular War*; *Castlereagh Correspondence*; Stapleton, *Life of Canning*; *Wellington Despatches*; Von Sybel, *Hist of the French Revolution*; Laufrey, *Life of Napoleon*; Seeley, *Life of Stein*.

[C. H. F.]

Frendraught, The Burning of (1638). A reconciliation had just taken place at Strathbogie between the Gordons and their enemies, the Crichtons, who were escorted home by Lord Aboyne, Robert Gordon, and others. Pressed to remain at Frendraught for the night, the Gordons were burnt to death in the tower by accident or (more probably) design.

Frere, Sir Henry Edward Bartle (*b.* 1815, *d.* 1884), entered the Indian Civil Service in 1834. In 1847 he became British Resident at Sattara, and in 1850 Chief Commissioner of Scinde. In 1862 he was appointed Governor of Bombay, and in 1867 he returned to England and was made a member of the Indian Council. In 1872 he was sent to the East Coast of Africa to inquire into the Slave Trade, and the following year signed a treaty with the Sultan of Zanzibar abolishing the traffic. In 1877 he was made Governor of the Cape and High Commissioner for South Africa. Here his policy, especially in declaring war with Cetewayo, earned him the censure of the Home Government, and he was superseded in the High Commissionership, and eventually recalled in 1880. His personal integrity, however, was undoubted.

Frere, John Hookham (*b.* 1769, *d.* 1846), a literary man of some note, was, as the friend of Canning (being his partner in the *Anti-Jacobin*), sent on various embassies and political missions of importance. Besides a mission to Lisbon, he was twice Spanish minister during the critical period of the dealings of Ferdinand VII. and Napoleon. The failure of Sir John Moore was, in public opinion, largely attributable to Frere's advice; and his recall from Spain ended his public life.

Frescobaldi, The, were Florentine merchants who advanced money to Edward I. and Edward II. on the security of the Customs, which they were allowed to collect. They became almost as unpopular as the Jews had been, and one of the Ordinances of 1311 ordered their banishment from the country.

Friars, The, were members of orders founded in the thirteenth century in the Church, for the purpose of preaching among the people. Their example in early times was powerful, but as they gained wealth they tended to sink into indolence. In the end of the twelfth century, the preachers of the Waldensians, and other heretical sects, set forth a new idea of the religious life, as concerned with activity for the good of others. These sects were repressed; but their conceptions were fruitful, and the struggle against them convinced some ardent minds of the need of active preaching amongst the people. Francis of Assisi, in Italy, began, in 1207, to gather round him a society animated by the principle of fervent love, which was to be carried out by entire self-sacrifice. His order rapidly spread, was provisionally sanctioned by Pope Innocent III., in 1209, and was established by Honorius III., in 1223. It was called the "Ordo Fratrum Minorum;" with it was incorporated, under the same rule, a female order of St. Clara, the sister of Francis; and a third order, the Tertiaries, comprised those who, without abandoning their secular life, adopted a rule of penitence.

Contemporary with Francis, a Spaniard, Dominic, a canon of Osma, formed a society for the special purpose of preaching against heretics. In 1216 this order of the Friar Preachers was established by Honorius III., and adopted also the rule of evangelical poverty. Later came the order of Carmelites, so called because they were originally founded in the Holy Land, and dwelt in the seclusion of Mount Carmel. They had their rule of rigorous fasting, silence, and solitude, and were transplanted into Europe in 1238. Finally, the Eremites of St. Augustine, established in 1256, took their rise from the union of many cenobite establishments in Italy. All these orders followed the example of the Franciscans, in having Tertiaries, and in renouncing worldly possessions. They were often distinguished by the colours of their cloaks. The Carmelites were known as the White Friars, the Dominicans as the Black Friars, and the Franciscans as the Grey Friars. The survival of these names in London and many other English towns testifies to the extent of their settlements. The Dominicans and the Franciscans were by far the most important of these orders, and exercised great influence on the social and political development of England. The Dominicans came to England in 1221, the Franciscans in 1224.

The friars, in their early days, did a great work of social reform; and as this work grew under their hands, they felt the need for learning. Consequently the mendicants began to throng to the universities, and it was through the activity of the Franciscans that Oxford became famous throughout Europe. The first Franciscan provincial in England built a school in the Fratry at Oxford, and prevailed on Robert Grosseteste, afterwards Bishop of Lincoln, to lecture there. Grosseteste founded a school, which was carried on by Adam Marsh, or De Marisco, who may be reckoned as the founder of that great school of theology which ruled the thought of Europe till the Revival of Learning. Alexander of Hales, John Duns Scotus, and William of Ockham, made English theology famous; and the Franciscan, Roger Bacon, is the foremost name in physical science throughout the Middle Ages.

The immediate influence of the revival of theology under the friars in England was greatly felt in the constitutional struggles of the reign of Henry III. Bishop Grosseteste

and Adam de Marisco were the chief counsellors of Simon de Montfort. The teaching of the friars gave a religious basis to the theory of the relations between king and people, on which the struggle was founded. They set forth the responsibility of the king to God, his duty to rule for the good of his people, his obligation to listen to the advice of the community, and to govern according to its will. The Latin poem on the battle of Lewes (Wright, *Political Songs*, 72, &c.) sets forth in striking language the political views of the friars. Moreover, these opinions were not confined to the closet. They were spread by the preaching of the friars amongst all classes, especially in the towns. The friars wandered from place to place, gathered a crowd around them in the open air, and in homely language, with rude illustrations, poured forth a discourse in which the condition of current affairs was used as a motive for amendment of life and as a call to repentance. The friars greatly influenced popular opinion, and secured popular support to the cause of the barons against the king. The summons of representatives of towns to Parliament by Simon de Montfort, in 1254, was a recognition of the quickened political life which was largely due to the activity of the friars.

As the importance of the friars increased, their zeal diminished. Their rule of strict poverty was gradually modified, till there arose a schism in the Franciscan order between the more rigid party of the Spiritual Franciscans and the laxer party, which was supported by Pope John XXII. (1317). In the course of the conflict William of Ockham attacked the Pope, and proceeded with keen logic to examine the limitations of the papal headship over the Church. The democratic spirit of the Franciscans was turned even against the Papacy, which it had at first laboured to exalt. Moreover, the friars raised against themselves the hostility of the other monastic orders, who struggled to check their growing importance, and were aided by the secular clergy. This conflict raged chiefly in the universities, where the friars possessed themselves of the professorial chairs. When this battle had been won by the friars, the struggle continued between the Dominicans and Franciscans, till gradually the Dominicans took a sphere of their own apart from the Franciscans. They were left in possession of the Inquisition, and gradually lost the character of a mendicant order. The Franciscans were then left to work amongst the masses, and strove to increase their influence by pious frauds, and by superstitious inducements, that they might lead their penitents to bequeath money for charitable purposes.

The opposition to the mendicants in England was begun by Richard Fitz-Ralph, Bishop of Armagh (1350), who attacked their principle that mendicancy was practised by Christ and the Apostles, and also pointed out the mischief that they did (*Defensorium Curatorum*, in Brown, *Fasciculus Rerum*, ii., 466, &c.). They over-rode the parish priest, invaded his parish, heard confessions, and granted absolution on easy terms. Ecclesiastical discipline was subverted that the mendicants might be enriched. Children were enticed from their homes and induced to join the order. So great was the influence of the mendicants at Oxford, that parents were afraid to send their sons there lest they should be entrapped by them. From this time we find many complaints against the mendicants. They worked for their own interests, and were despised by the more reflecting people. The Prologue of the *Vision of Piers the Plowman* (about 1377) says:—

" I fonde there Freris, alle the foure ordres,
Preched the peple, for profit of hem-selven,
Glosed the gospel, as hem good lyked,
For coveitise of copis, construed it as thei wolde."

The picture of the Friar in the Prologue to Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*, shows with humour the ordinary character of the friar. The friars were attacked by Wyclif in 1381, when he entered upon his breach with the doctrinal system of the Church. At first he had more sympathy with them than with the "possessionati," the monks who held property. He attacked them chiefly because they were the staunchest adherents of the Papacy. The friars in return were the bitterest opponents of the Lollards. During the fifteenth century, the friars ceased to have any special influence or importance.

Brewer, *Monumenta Franciscana*; Grosseteste, *Epistolæ* (ed. Luard); Green, *History of the English People*; Milman, *Latin Christianity*. A full account of the friars is given by Wadding, *Annales Fratrum Minorum*; and Maimachius, *Annales Ordinis Prædicatorum*. [M. C.]

Friend, Sir John (*d.* 1696), was a Jacobite conspirator in the reign of William III. He was given a colonel's commission by James, and enlisted men against the day when the French should appear in Kent (1696), but refused to take any share in the infamous Assassination Plot (q.v.), although he kept the secret. On the discovery of the conspiracy, he was tried, harshly denied the assistance of counsel, and, refusing to betray his confederates to a committee of the House of Commons, was executed on April 3.

Friends of Ireland, The, were a society founded by O'Connell in 1830, to promote the repeal of the Union. It was declared illegal by the Irish government; but, though dissolved, at once took a new shape as the Society of Irish Volunteers. This too was, however, dissolved, in accordance with the Coercion Act of 1833.

Frilings. The name of the middle division of the old German tribes, corresponding in

England with the *ceorls* (q.v.), *i.e.*, the fully free but non-noble.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*

Frisians, The, were a Low German tribe who made settlements on the Firth of Forth, and probably in other parts of northern Britain. Nennius calls the Firth of Forth the Frisian Sea.

Skene, *Celtic Scotland*, vol. i.

Frith, in Anglo-Saxon law, answers to the later phrase, "the king's peace." It was enforced by national officers, and any breach of it was considered a contempt of the king, and punished by a fine. The frith was a personal, not a territorial, peace.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Kemble, *Saxons in England.*

Frith-gild was the name given to certain gilds or clubs established during or before the reign of King Athelstan, for the maintenance of peace, the repression of theft, the tracing of stolen cattle, and the indemnification of the parties robbed, by means of a common fund raised by subscription of the members. These gilds took the place of the old organisation of the family, as is shown by the wergild being in certain cases paid to the gild-brethren instead of, as in earlier times, to the family of the murdered man. The statutes of these gilds are contained in the *Judicia Civitatis Londoniæ* set forth in the reign of Athelstan, under royal authority, by the bishop and reeves of the city. [Gilds; Towns.]

Thorpe, *Ancient Laws*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.* and *Select Charters.*

Frobisher, Sir Martin (*d.* 1594), one of the great navigators of the Elizabethan period, set sail in 1576 with the object of discovering the North-West Passage, whilst in 1578 he endeavoured, though ineffectually, to found a settlement north of Hudson's Bay. Seven years later he accompanied Sir Francis Drake on his voyage to the West Indies, and in 1588 did good service against the Spanish Armada. He was killed in action whilst trying to capture the fort of Crozon, near Brest, on behalf of Henry IV. of France, from the combined Spanish and League armies.

Hakluyt, *Voyages.* Frobisher's own account of his *Three Voyages to find the New Passage* has been edited by the Hakluyt Society.

Froissart, Jean (*b.* 1337, *d.* 1410), was born at Valenciennes, and was most likely the son of a merchant. From his childhood he was destined for the church, but soon distinguished himself by poetry which secured him the patronage of John of Hainault, father-in-law of Edward III. In 1301 he went to England, and was recommended to the favour of Queen Philippa. The queen appointed him clerk of her chapel, and he remained at the English court and in the service of English princes several years. The queen died in 1369, and Froissart returned to Flanders, where he found new protectors in Wenceslas, Duke of Brabant, and Robert of Namur. The Duke of Brabant appointed him curé of Lestines, near Mons. Under the inspiration of Robert of Namur he composed the first book of his *Chronicles.* After the death of Wenceslas, Froissart became the chaplain of Guy de Châtillon, Count of Blois, who also appointed him canon of Chimay. He accompanied his master in many journeys and expeditions, during which he collected material for his *Chronicles.* He made his last visit to England in 1395. The *Chronicles* of Froissart embrace the years 1325 to 1400. They are divided into four books, of which the first and most important stops at 1378; the second finishes at 1385; the third at 1388, and the fourth extends from 1389 to 1400. Of the first book there are three distinct versions, the first written between 1360 and 1380, the second between 1380 and 1383, and the third at some period after the year 1400. The earliest version, written when Froissart was under English influence, is naturally coloured by partiality for the English cause. In the last version written after the death of Richard II., his tone towards England is severe and hostile. Moreover, Froissart bases his narrative in the early version on the earlier *Chronicle of Jean le Bel.* But in the later versions he relies on original sources of information, and expands his record of events. The *Chronicle of Jean le Bel* ends in 1361, so that after this date he is entirely an original chronicler.

Froissart, *Chroniques*, ed. Kervyn de Lettenhove, 20 vols.; the valuable ed. Siméon Luce, 5 vols., published 1869, contains only the period before 1360. Aubertin, *Histoire de la Langue et Littérature Française au Moyen-Age.* The *Chronicles* have been translated into English by Lord Berners, 1525, and by Mr. Johnes in 1805.

[C. H. F.]

Frontinus, Sextus Julius, was sent by Vespasian into Britain in A.D. 75, where he conquered the Silures; he was succeeded by Agricola. He was a writer on military and agricultural subjects.

Froude, James Anthony (*b.* 1818, *d.* 1894), one of the most brilliant but not the most exact of English historians, was educated at Westminster and at Oriel College, Oxford. On Professor Freeman's death in 1892 he succeeded to the Regius Professorship of Modern History at Oxford. His chief historical work is *The History of England from the Fall of Wolsey to the Death of Elizabeth* (1856–70). He also wrote *The English in Ireland in the Eighteenth Century* (1871–74), *The Divorce of Catherine of Aragon* (1891), and *The Spanish Story of the Armada* (1891).

Fuentes D'Onoro, The Battle of (May 5, 1811), was fought during the Peninsular War between the English, under Wellington, and

the French, under Massena. Massena advanced, with 45,000 men, to relieve Almeida, which Wellington was blockading. Though in command of hardly more than 30,000 men, the latter resolved to fight rather than give up the blockade. Operations extended over two days. On the first, the approach of night prevented anything decisive; but next day, Massena, newly reinforced, made his great attack. After a hard-fought day, the French slowly withdrew at evening out of gunshot; but there was no retreat. The capture of Almeida was secured by this check on Massena.

Napier, *Peninsular War*.

Fulford, The Battle of (1066), between the Earls Edwin and Morcar and Harold Hardrada and Tostig, resulted in the defeat of the English, and the acceptance by the men of York of Harold Hardrada as their king. Fulford is on the Ouse, about a mile south of York.

Fuller, Thomas (*b.* 1608, *d.* 1661), was educated at Cambridge. He was appointed a prebendary of Salisbury, and in 1641 lecturer at the Savoy. In the Civil War he was chaplain to Sir Ralph Hopton, and assisted largely in the defence of Basing House against the Parliamentarians, and was afterwards in Exeter during the siege of that city. At the Restoration he was appointed chaplain to the king. Fuller was the author of *The Church History of Britain*, 1655, a *History of the Worthies of England*, 1662, and other works. His historical writings, though of no great authority, have always been popular from the humour and quaint beauty of their style.

Fuller, William, was an informer, who attempted, in 1691, to revive the trade of Titus Oates by pretending a Jacobite conspiracy; but no one listened to him, and he was put in the pillory. He tried the same method in 1701, with even worse success. When the Tories came into power, he was sentenced to be flogged, pilloried, and fined; and being imprisoned in default of payment, died in prison, probably in 1717.

Furruckabad, The Battle of (Nov. 14, 1804), resulted in a victory for the English, under Lord Lake, over Holkar with a great army of 60,000 men. The English casualties amounted to two killed and twenty wounded.

Fyrd was the national militia of the Early English. On every free man, by virtue of his allegiance, military service was imperative. Fyrd-bot was one of the three inseparable burdens on the possession of *ethel* or *boc-land*. In Tacitus' time, the host of the Germans was simply the gathering of the whole nation in arms. It continued the same to a late period. But as the State grew in extent, the difficulty of collecting the whole *fyrd* together became very great, and, practically, this was hardly ever done. The array of the fyrd of each shire was left to the ealdorman, and the fyrd of the shire was the shire-moot in arms. It was more often the fyrd of one or two shires, which had local cohesion, that gained glory by stout fighting, than the larger aggregations of the popular army; for example, Brihtnoth's famous fight with the Danes at Maldon. But the cumbrous nature of the fyrd system led to its gradual supersession, even before the Conquest. The feudal thegnhood, with their retainers, the mercenary *huscarls* of Canute—illustrate the earliest developments of those baronial and stipendiary forces which ultimately were to make the national force obsolete. Yet William I. called out the fyrd more than once, and Rufus branded as *nithings* those who refused to come, and cheated the fyrd out of their moneys for maintenance. At Northallerton, the fyrd of the northern counties repelled the Scottish invasion; and it was the national militia that saved Henry II. from the feudal coalition of 1173. Henry's Assize of Arms entirely recognised the principle. Under Henry III. and Edward I., the fyrd was revived, and made useful by the Statutes of Winchester, and the system of Watch and Ward. The growth of the art of war made such expedients obsolete in their turn; but the militia of modern times, with its quasi-compulsory service, and until recently the *posse comitatus*, which, in theory, could be convoked by the sheriff, continue the principle at the root of the fyrd down to our own day.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Kemble, *Saxons in England*; Hallam, *Const. Hist.* [T. F. T.]

Fyrdwite was the penalty for neglecting to serve in the fyrd (q.v.).

G

Ga, the old English form of the High Dutch *gau*, occurs, though rarely, in early constitutional history. Like gau, it must correspond to the *pagus*. Some have contrasted the natural ga with the artificial shire or division. The southern counties of England are of the ga type—of very ancient origin, and built on national or tribal distinctions. The Mercian shires appear mere administrative "departments" of later date.

Gaderi, The, were an ancient British tribe inhabiting the western part of Northumberland, the part of Cumberland north of the Irthing, the western part of Roxburghshire, the county of Selkirk with Tweeddale, a great part of Mid-Lothian, and nearly all West-Lothian.

Gael, the English form of Gaidhel, is used in two senses. (1) As the name of the great branch of the Celtic stock, including Highlanders, Irish, Manx, and, probably, the old race that wrote the Oghams. (2) More

specially it is confined to the Scotch Highlanders. Mr. Rhŷs suggests that the term Gael shall be used only in the restricted sense, while the archaic form Goidel, by which every tribe of this stock has known itself as far back as we can trace, be used for the wider term. [Celts; Picts; Scots; Britons.]

Rhŷs, *Celtic Britain.*

Gafol-land (Gafol=tribute) was folkland (q.v.), let out to rent.

Gage, Sir John, was appointed one of the Council to assist the executors of Henry VIII., 1547, during the minority of Edward VI., and became in the next reign a valued supporter of Queen Mary, for whom he did good service during Wyatt's rebellion. During the imprisonment of the Princess Elizabeth in the Tower, 1555, Gage acted as her gaoler.

Gage, General Thomas (*b.* 1721, *d.* 1787), was the second son of Viscount Gage. In 1774 he was appointed Governor of Massachusetts in the room of Hutchinson. He did his best in this difficult position to prevent an actual outbreak of hostilities, and instituted a conciliatory policy. His hand was forced, despite his efforts to maintain peace. The delegates at Philadelphia set his authority at defiance, and, when Gage recalled the writs for the assembling of the representatives, met in spite of him, and enrolled the "minute men." Still Gage refused to resort to coercion, though he fortified Boston Neck and thus commanded the town. In April, 1775, he sent a body of troops to destroy some stores collected at Concord. The colonists opposed the troops, and the first blood was shed at Lexington. The people at once flocked to arms in numbers, which terrified Gage into inactivity; but in May reinforcements arrived under Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton, and Gage at once issued a proclamation offering a general pardon, and declaring martial law to prevail. This, however, failed to attain its object; and on the 7th June Gage took decisive action in the battle of Bunker Hill. The victory was not followed up, and on Washington's arrival the British were blockaded in Boston. In October Gage resigned his command to Sir William Howe, and returned to England. He was very much blamed by the government for not taking active measures earlier.

Bancroft, *Hist. of America;* Stanhope, *Hist. of England;* Cunningham, *Eminent Englishmen.*

Gagging Acts. A name popularly assigned to the measures of reactionary periods interfering with freedom of speech, or writing, or public meetings. Such were the Acts of 1795 against seditious meetings, and one of the Six Acts of 1819 against public assemblies and cheap political pamphlets. The name has also been applied to a long string of Irish measures of coercion.

Gaika (*d.* 1829), a Kaffir chief, was regarded by the British government as the ruler of Kaffirland; and it was through interference on his behalf by the Governor of Cape Colony, that the Kaffir War of 1818 was brought on. In 1822, a treacherous attempt made by the colonists to seize this chief almost led to another war.

Gaimar, Geoffrey (*fl. circa* 1150), wrote in French a poetical *Chronicle of England* from the arrival of Cerdic to the death of Rufus. There is an edition of Gaimar published by the Caxton Society, and the early portion will be found in the *Monumenta Historica Britannica.*

Gainas, The, were an Anglian tribe occupying the northern part of Lincolnshire. From them the name of Gainsborough is derived.

Galgacus, a Caledonian chief, offered a desperate resistance to Agricola on his famous expedition into the north of modern Scotland (81).

Tacitus, *Agricola.*

Galloway, the same word as Galway, *i.e.*, land of the Gael, is (1) in its widest sense equivalent to the south-western district of Scotland, but (2) is more generally used in a narrower sense to include the small Goidelic settlement, isolated among the Brythons of Strathclyde, or Cumbria, that included the modern shires of Wigton and Kirkcudbright and part of Dumfries. A range of hills and moors cut Galloway off on the north and partly on the east, while the sea formed its boundary on the south and west. Some have regarded the presence of this intrusive Goidelic colony as the result of an invasion from Ireland, similar to that which conquered Dalriada (Argyleshire), but the general theory is that it was a survival of the earlier branch of the Celts, forced westward by the invading Brythons. In Roman times the Novantæ held this region. They are, probably, the same as the later "Picts of Galloway," though what was their precise connection with the Picts proper it is hard to define. With all Cumbria, Galloway became, in the seventh century, dependent on the Angles of Northumbria; but long after Strathclyde had regained its freedom, it remained, at least nominally, subject to the decaying state. In Bede's time, Ninian's old bishopric of Whithern (Candida Casa), was still an English see, till a long break in the line of bishops, after 796, marks the revival of the native race. Thus Galloway preserved its separate identity against English, Cumbrian, and Scot, and in the twelfth century was still "terra Pictorum," and its inhabitants formed a separate division in the Scottish army at the Battle of the Standard, distinct even from the "Cumbrenses." Their restless vigour was equally shown in their constant resistance to the encroachments of the

Norman barons, which English and Scottish kings equally favoured. On the whole Galloway leant on England to avoid the nearer danger from Scotland. The revived see of Whithern depended on York till the fourteenth century, and Fergus, Prince of Galloway, sought in vain by a marriage connection with Henry I., to avoid his country's subjection to Malcolm Canmore. In 1174 the captivity of William the Lion led to the revolt of Uchtred MacFergus. Again, in 1185, the rising of another son of Fergus, Gilbert, was suppressed, and Henry IV., tired of the double dealing of the Gallwegians, handed them over to Scotland. Yet Alan of Galloway acts as an English baron; his name appears in Magna Charta, and his daughters married Norman nobles. This last step completed the subjection of the state. On Alan's death his sons-in-law divided the land, and with the help of Alexander II. put down the last native rising. The acquisition of the throne by Baliol, grandson of Alan, through his mother Devorguilla, perhaps, facilitated its absorption. Yet, even in Buchanan's time, a part of Galloway used its Celtic speech, though it must very soon after have become extinct.

Skene, *Celtic Scotland*, vol. i.; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, ch. i., § 153. [T. F. T.]

Gallowglass. A name given to Irish mercenary soldiers. They served on foot, had defensive armour, and carried huge axes.

Galway, Henri de Massue, Earl of (*b.* 1648, *d.* 1720), originally bore the title of the Marquis de Ruvigny. A French Protestant general, he was sent over by Louis XIV. to intrigue with the Opposition leaders, Buckingham, Russell, and Holles (1678). On the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, he followed his father into England. Soon after the accession of William III., he was placed in command of a regiment of Huguenot cavalry, raised by the energy of his father, who died in 1689. He served in Ireland, and, after the departure of William, became major-general. During the siege of Limerick, he was chosen to hold a conference with Sarsfield. For his services he was created Baron Portarlington, and a property given him from the forfeited Irish lands. In 1693 he took part in the abortive expedition from St. Helen's, commanded by Meinhart Schomberg. He was taken prisoner at the battle of Landen (1693), but his captors allowed him to escape. He was sent to Piedmont as English envoy, but could not prevent the Duke of Savoy from deserting the coalition (1696). He was created Earl of Galway in 1697. After the outbreak of the Succession War, he was sent to Portugal as second in command, on the recall of Schomberg (1704). He met with many reverses, and on his return, the Tories, urged on by the angry Peterborough, instituted a severe examination into the conduct of the war. His reply was complete, and his conduct was defended by the Duke of Marlborough. But the Commons passed a resolution that he had acted contrary to the honour of the Imperial crown by allowing the Portuguese regiments to take precedence of the English. The rest of his life was spent in retirement. "It would seem," says Mr. Wyon, "that Galway, although destitute of any great natural abilities for war, was as consummate a general as study and experience, joined with a conscientious sense of responsibility for the safety of his men, can make." Yet he was always on the losing side.

Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Mahon, *War of Succession in Spain*; Wyon, *Reign of Queen Anne.*

Galway Election, The, 1872, was carried by the influence of the priests, and more especially the Archbishop of Tuam, and Captain Nolan was elected. On a petition being lodged against him, and the seat being claimed for Captain Trench, Mr. Justice Keogh went down to try the case, and declared Captain Nolan to have forfeited the seat by reason of intimidation of the voters by the priests, on whose conduct the judge reflected in very strong language. Mr. Butt brought the matter before the House of Commons, but Keogh was absolved by an overwhelming majority.

Gam, Sir David (*d.* 1415), a Welsh chieftain, was one of the opponents of Owen Glyndwr, whom in 1402 he attempted to assassinate, but the plot being discovered he was imprisoned, and not released till 1412. In 1415 he raised a body of troops to assist Henry V. in his French expedition, and fought most valiantly in the battle of Agincourt, where he was mortally wounded, and received the honour of knighthood as he was expiring on the field.

Gambia, on the west coast of Africa, was visited very early by the Portuguese for the purpose of obtaining slaves, and formed a settlement until 1588. In 1620 an English factory was established there. For many years there was an intermittent contest between England and France for possession of the Gambia, which was confirmed to England by the Treaty of Paris, 1815. Since that date much of the surrounding territory has been acquired by purchase by the British government, and settlements have been formed with the object of stamping out the slave-trade, and of establishing commercial relations of a legitimate nature. In 1842 the government of Gambia was separated from that of Sierra Leone, and vested in a governor, aided by executive and legislative councils; in 1866 it was, however, again made subordinate to the Governor of the West African Settlements. In 1888 it once more became a separate colony. The climate is very unhealthy.

R. W. Martin, *British Colonies.*

Gambier, James, Baron (*b.* 1766, *d.* 1833), was a distinguished admiral. In 1807 he commanded the fleet sent against Copenhagen, and was in reward created a baron. From 1808 to 1811 he commanded the Channel Fleet, during which a court-martial acquitted him of any culpable share in the disaster of Aix roads.

Game Laws. The earliest game laws were passed in the same period as the laws concerning vagrancy, and were due to the same causes. The first of these, that of 1389, after reciting that artificers and labourers keep dogs and go hunting on holy days in the parks and warrens of lords and others, enacted that no person not possessing land worth 40s. a year should keep a dog for hunting or use ferrets or nets to take game, under pain of a year's imprisonment. In 1494 any person taking pheasants or partridges without leave upon another's land was made liable to a penalty of £10, equivalent to £150 of present money. But this statute can never have been enforced, for an Act of 1581 imposed a fine of 20s. for every pheasant and 10s. for every partridge taken in the night. In 1604 all shooting at game with gun or cross-bow was absolutely forbidden (apparently as unsportsmanlike) under a penalty of 20s. for each bird or hare, or imprisonment for three months in default; but persons qualified by birth or estate were allowed to course, and also to net pheasants and partridges. Five years later the property qualification was raised; hawking was forbidden during July and August, and pheasants and partridges were to be taken only between Michaelmas and Christmas—"take" being probably soon construed to include shooting. In 1670 owners were allowed to appoint gamekeepers; no persons save freeholders of £100 a year, 99 years leaseholders of £150, or heirs-apparent of a squire and others of higher degree, were to possess guns, bows, or sporting dogs, and gamekeepers were given the right of search. All these Acts were repealed in 1832, and the only earlier statute still in force is that of 1828. This Act for the first time made poaching by *night* a crime, instead of an offence followed merely by fine. Taking, or trespassing by night with intent to take, game or rabbits was to be punished with imprisonment and hard labour not exceeding three months for the first offence; not exceeding six months for the second; and transportation for seven years or hard labour not exceeding two years for the third. Resistance with any weapon could be punished with transportation up to seven years; and if a party of three or more, of whom one is armed, are found trespassing by night for the purpose of taking game, each of them may be sentenced to transportation not exceeding fourteen years. The Act of 1832 abolished all qualifications for sporting, and also the earlier prohibition of the sale of game, and imposed new penalties for poaching by *day*, viz., a fine of £2 for trespassing in pursuit of game, and of £5 for resistance or refusal to give names. Thus, then, before 1832 the right to kill game was the privilege of a class, and after 1832 became an incident of ownership or possession as might be arranged between landlord and tenant. By the Ground Game Act of 1880 the occupier was given the right to kill hares and rabbits concurrently with the landlord, and was forbidden to contract himself out of this right. A close time for the sale of hares, to check their diminution, had consequently to be established in 1892. [Forests.]

Gamelin, Bishop of St. Andrews, was Chancellor of Scotland at the beginning of the reign of Alexander III. (1249); of this office he was deprived by the intrigues of Henry III. The English party subjected him to so much persecution that he sought redress at Rome, where the Pope espoused his cause, and ordered the excommunication of Alan Durward and other regents.

Gardiner, Stephen (*b.* 1483, *d.* 1555), Bishop of Winchester, was a celebrated prelate and statesman. He was born at Bury St. Edmunds about 1483, and was educated at Trinity Hall, Cambridge, where he became Doctor of Laws in 1521. In 1525 he was elected to the mastership of his college, and he became Chancellor of the University in 1540. To a man like Gardiner academical distinctions were far from being all-sufficing. He took a secretaryship in the family of the Duke of Norfolk, and shortly afterwards in the household of Cardinal Wolsey. In this latter employment he speedily obtained the confidence of the king, as well as of his more immediate master, a success which was soon followed by his admission into the Royal Council. In 1528 he was sent with Bishop Fox on an embassy to the Pope, to negotiate the question as to the king's divorce from Catherine of Aragon, and his first preferment in the Church, that of the archdeaconry of Norfolk, was the reward for his tact and energy. On Wolsey's disgrace Gardiner was attached entirely to the king's service as Secretary of State, and having succeeded, with the assistance of Bishop Fox, in persuading the University of Cambridge to pronounce formally against marriage with a brother's widow, in 1531, he was appointed to the archdeaconry of Leicester, and shortly after to the bishopric of Winchester. His book, *De Vera Obedientia*, upheld the royal supremacy. For the rest of Henry's reign Gardiner was among the foremost of the conservative party in the Council. Powerful during the reactionary years 1539—47, he lost ground just before Henry's death, and the king withdrew his name from his will, of which he had previously been appointed one of the executors. With the exception of a

few months in the early part of the year 1548, Gardiner was a state prisoner throughout the whole of the reign of Edward VI. Several attempts were made to induce him to subscribe to terms of reconciliation with the party then in power, but all to no purpose, and in the spring of 1552 he was formally deprived of his see for disobedience and contempt of the king's authority. With the accession of Queen Mary, in 1553, Gardiner's fortunes improved. He once again exercised his episcopal functions in performing the obsequies of the late king, and on August 23, 1553, he was made Lord Chancellor. Throughout the whole of Mary's reign Gardiner acted as her chief adviser in all civil matters, and his influence in the affairs of the Church was second only to that of Cardinal Pole.

Gardiner's watchfulness enabled Mary to be beforehand with the risings that took place early in 1554, and Wyatt's revolt, being thus pushed into action prematurely, was suppressed with comparative ease, in spite of its formidable character. In his subsequent dealings with the presumed sympathisers of Wyatt, however, Gardiner's merciless rigour alienated from him the support of the more moderate members of Mary's Council, and the feeling of coldness towards him, thus originated, changed at once to one of indignation and active hostility when he proposed that the Princess Elizabeth should be also sacrificed for her sister's more perfect security. Much has been written for and against Gardiner in the matter of his treatment of the Reformers. It is, however, beyond question that the cruel measures of Mary's reign against the Protestant party were very largely of his devising. Gardiner died after a short illness, which seized him soon after opening Parliament, on October 21, 1555, and which terminated in his death, on November 12 following, at Whitehall. An Anglican under Henry, Gardiner became a Papist under Mary, after Edward's reign had demonstrated the futility of Henry's position. In *De Vera Obedientia* he had attacked the Papal supremacy, in his *Palinodia Dicti Libri* he set forth his change of opinion upon the matter.

Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; *Biographia Britannica*; Strype, *Annals*; Burnet, *Hist. of the Reformation.*

Gargrave, Sir Thomas, Speaker of the first Parliament of Elizabeth, "with the Privy Council and thirty members of the House of Commons," was deputed to recommend the queen to seek a husband. In 1570 he acted as crown prosecutor to the Council of York during the trial of those who had taken part in the Northern Rebellion. Sir Thomas, who was a member of the Council of the North, had been knighted by Warwick during the Scotch War of 1547.

Garnet, Henry (*b.* 1555, *d.* 1606), became, in 1575, a Jesuit, and, in 1586, provincial of the order in England. He was executed, in 1606, for complicity in the Gunpowder Plot.

Garter, The Order of the, was founded by Edward III., in or about the year 1349. It is the highest order of English knighthood, and consists of not more than twenty-five knights, excepting members of the royal family and illustrious foreigners, who are not counted. The installations of the order are held in St. George's Chapel, Windsor, where the banners of the several knights are suspended. The badge of the order is a gold medallion, representing St. George and the Dragon, which is worn suspended by a blue ribbon. The garter is of dark-blue velvet, and is worn on the left leg below the knee.

Gascoigne, Sir William (*d.* 1419?), was appointed one of the king's serjeants, in 1397, and, in 1400, was made Chief Justice of the King's Bench. In 1405 he refused, according to some authority, to pronounce sentence of death on Archbishop Scrope; and his independence was still further shown, according to popular tradition, by his committal of the Prince of Wales to prison for striking him upon the Bench. Whether these stories be true or not, it is certain that one of Henry V.'s first acts was to remove Gascoigne from the chief justiceship. This dismissal might be otherwise accounted for, as Gascoigne was an old man, long in office, and a country gentleman of large property.

Gascony, The Duchy of, corresponded, roughly speaking, with the Roman province of Novem Populania. On the fall of the Empire it became part of the great West Gothic kingdom stretching from the Loire to the Straits of Gibraltar, but seems to have become more or less independent on the death of Clovis (511), though he and his sons overthrew the rival Teutonic powers in Gaul. Towards the end of this century the Basque tribes swarmed down from the Pyrenean slopes (587). These invaders, the Wascons or Vascons, have given the district its present name, and appear to have settled northwards of the Garonne. In 602 they recognised themselves as being tributary to the Frankish kings, and received a duke of their own, Genialis. About the year 636 Dagobert conquered them once more, though his successors found them always setting up their own dukes, whose sway reached from the Garonne to the Pyrenees. Charles the Great gave them a new ruler in the person of Lupus or Loup, but despite this they seem to have been his assailants in the famous battle of Roncesvalles. A few years later Gascony was restored to the son of Lupus. It was not till 872 that, according to M. Guizot, the duchy of Gascony became hereditary. Some hundred and fifty

years later (*circa* 1036), the title of Duke of Gascony passed over to the Dukes of Aquitaine, and from this time its history must be read in connection with the last-mentioned country. Soon after the marriage of Eleanor, daughter of William X., Duke of Aquitaine, to Prince Henry (1152), it became part of the English possessions in France. After the loss of Normandy, Anjou, Maine, and Touraine, it still remained an English dependency, but daily became less firmly attached to the English crown. Moreover, it was divided against itself, its great nobles as a rule adhering to French, and its great cities to English, interests. By the Peace of Bretigny (1360), it was handed over to Edward together with Aquitaine, without any reservation of homage to the French king; and Edward in return for this renounced his claims on the crown of France. A century later (1453) it was finally reunited to the French kingdom.

Gascoyne, General, The Motion of (1831). On April 12, after Lord J. Russell had stated the modifications which ministers proposed to introduce into the Reform Bill, General Gascoyne moved that "the total number of members returned to Parliament for England and Wales ought not to be diminished." This motion was carried by 299 to 291, though it was quite evident that it was merely intended to embarrass the ministry.

Gaspee Schooner, The, commanded by Lieutenant Duddington, made itself conspicuous by its activity against smuggling. It had more than once attacked the *Newport*, a Providence packet. So on one occasion when it was driven accidentally ashore, the citizens of Providence captured, plundered, and burnt it (1773).

Gates, Sir John (*d.* Aug. 22, 1553), one of the strongest partisans of Northumberland, was condemned and executed for his share in the conspiracy to place Lady Jane Grey on the throne. His fellow conspirator, Sir Thomas Palmer, suffered execution at the same time.

Gauden, John (*b.* 1605, *d.* 1662), was in early life of Puritan tendencies, and sat in the Westminster Assembly, but was expelled from that body. His zeal for Charles I. led to his publishing *Eikon Basilike*, a work of which he is generally reputed to be, at any rate very largely, the author. At the Restoration he was made Bishop of Exeter, and, in 1662, he was translated to Worcester. He was much disgusted at the richer see of Winchester being refused him. Clarendon describes him as covetous, shifty, and self-seeking.

Gaunt, Elizabeth (*d.* 1685), was burned to death in London for assisting Burton, one of the Rye House conspirators, to escape after the defeat of Monmouth at Sedgemoor.

Gaunt, John of. [Lancaster, John, Duke of.]

Gavelkind (A.-S. *Gafol*) has been defined by Mr. Elton as "the tenure of socage according to the customs of Kent, and not merely a peculiar mode of descent known upon freehold and copyhold alike in several counties." Before the Conquest, the tenants on another man's land held their estates for payment of rent which was generally discharged by labour and in kind rather than by money. Lawyers are pretty generally agreed that the Kentish estates held by this tenure represent the socage tenure which before the Conquest was common to the country at large, but has only in this single county succeeded in holding its own against the changes introduced by the growth of the feudal system. The chief customs incidental to gavelkind are: that, on the death of a landowner, his landed property is to be divided amongst all his sons, and does not pass in entirety to the eldest-born; that a tenant can alienate his land at the age of fifteen; and that lands do not escheat on attainder for felony, &c. All lands lying in Kent are reckoned to be held by this tenure unless it can be proved otherwise, and it is said that during the reign of Henry VI. there were not more than thirty or forty estates that did not come under this heading.

Elton, *Tenures in Kent.* [T. A. A.]

Gaveston, Piers (*d.* 1312), was the son of a Gascon knight who had been a servant of Edward I. Piers was selected by the king as the comrade of Prince Edward, and speedily acquired a great influence over the weak mind of the young prince. The king, seeing the danger of this, had banished Gaveston, in February, 1307, and on his death-bed commanded his son never to recall him. But Edward II. was no sooner king than Gaveston returned, and was made Earl of Cornwall. He at once became the chief man in the kingdom, was appointed Custos of the Realm during the king's absence, and many valuable possessions and wardships were heaped upon him. He was an accomplished knight, of great bravery and ambition, but insolent and avaricious, and his head was completely turned by the favours lavished upon him. He indulged in coarse satire against the nobles, and surrounded himself with a train of retainers, many of whom were notorious robbers and homicides. In May, 1308, Edward was compelled to banish him; but his exile was converted into a new dignity by his being made viceroy of Ireland. In this capacity he showed some courage and skill, but the king could not live without him, and he returned to England, in 1309. Banished again in 1311, he was recalled in January, 1312, when the barons determined to destroy him. He was besieged in Scarborough Castle, and surrendered on promise

of his life. But he was seized by the Earl of Warwick, and, on June 19, 1312, beheaded on Blacklow Hill.

Pauli, *Englische Geschichte;* Stubbs, *Const. Hist.;* Pearson, *Hist. of Eng.*

Gazette, The London, is said to be the oldest English newspaper, and the official channel of all public announcements. A Gazette was first published in 1642, but the first of the existing series was issued at Oxford, Nov. 7, 1665, whither the court had gone to escape the Great Plague. On Feb. 5, 1666, the London series began. Until after the Revolution, its meagre two pages, published twice a week, formed the only newspaper.

Macaulay, *Hist. of England.*

Geddes, Jenny, was a woman who is said to have thrown a stool at the head of the Bishop of Edinburgh, on the occasion of the riot in St. Giles's Church, when Laud's Liturgy was first read in Scotland, Easter, 1637.

Geddington, The Council of (1188), was the assembly which enacted the Saladin Tithe, the first tax on movables.

Geese, The Wild, was the name given to young Irishmen who were recruited for the Irish Brigade in the French service, largely from Kerry. In 1721, as many as 20,000 are said to have left the country. In 1730 and 1741, French officers were allowed to recruit in Ireland by the government. The time when the Wild Geese were most numerous, however, was the Spanish War (1739—1748).

Gelt, The Battle of the (or Chelt), was fought in North Cumberland, Feb., 1570, between the royal troops under Lord Hunsdon, and the rebels and borderers under Leonard Dacre. In spite of the desperate bravery of the insurgents, they were completely defeated.

General Warrants, for the apprehension of all persons suspected without naming any one in particular, were frequently issued for offences against the government by the Star Chamber and under the Stuarts, as well as during the first half of the eighteenth century. In the case of Wilkes and No. 45 of the *North Briton*, a general warrant was issued by Lord Halifax, under which forty-nine persons were arrested. Wilkes, on the ground that the warrant was illegal, brought an action against the Under Secretary of State and obtained £1,000 damages. In 1765 general warrants were pronounced illegal by Lord Mansfield and the judges of the King's Bench, on the ground that no degree of antiquity can give sanction to a usage bad in itself, and that "general warrants are no warrants at all because they name no one." This opinion was confirmed by the House of Commons in 1766.

Geneva Convention, The, settled a serious disagreement between Great Britain and the United States of America. During the civil war between the Northern and Southern States of America, a ship called No. 290 was built at Liverpool to act as a privateer in the service of the Southern States. Before she was completed her destination and purpose were made known to the English government, but owing to difficulties in the law and the illness of a law-officer of the crown, the orders given to arrest her did not arrive at Liverpool until after she had left that port on the pretence of a trial trip. She left the Mersey on July 29, 1862; proceeded to the island of Terceira; took in equipment and armament; and began to act against the Northern shipping, assuming the name of *Alabama*. On June 19, 1864, the *Alabama* was sunk off Cherbourg, in an engagement with the Federal war steamer *Kearsage*. After the conclusion of the war, claims for compensation for the damage done by the *Alabama* and other cruisers were made against the British government. After many attempts at settlement had failed, it was arranged, in February, 1871, that a joint commission should meet at Washington to settle the *Alabama* claims and other outstanding differences between the United States and Great Britain. On May 8 the high joint commissioners signed the Treaty of Washington, which established a board of arbitration for considering the *Alabama* and similar claims, "which are to be recognised as national, and are to be settled on the principle of responsibility for depredations where the government had not exercised the utmost possible diligence and caution to prevent the fitting-out of privateers." After the signature of the treaty a question arose between the two governments as to what classes of claims should be submitted for arbitration. The British government was willing to compensate all private individuals for any loss they might have suffered by the action of the cruisers. The American government demanded, in addition to this, the costs of pursuing the privateers, the losses incurred by higher premiums for insurance, and by the prolongation of the war. After a correspondence, the Americans declared that they could not withdraw from the case which they had submitted, and they left the responsibility of abrogating the treaty to England. The tribunal of arbitration met at Geneva in December, 1871. It consisted of Sir Alexander Cockburn, who was nominated by England, Mr. C. F. Adams, by America, Count F. Sclopis, by Italy, M. Jacob Staempfli, by Switzerland, and the Viscount d'Itajuba, by Brazil. Lord Tenterden and Mr. Bancroft Davis were appointed the agents respectively of England and America. The case and counter-case were presented on April 15, 1872, and

the final decision was given on September 14 of the same year. In the meantime the tribunal had determined that the indirect claims did not constitute a valid ground for compensation, and should not come within the purview of the tribunal. This decision was accepted by the American government. The tribunal of arbitration found unanimously that Great Britain was liable for the acts committed by the *Alabama*, "having failed by omission to fulfil the duties prescribed by the first and third of the rules established by the sixth article of the Treaty of Washington." With regard to the *Oreto*, afterwards called the *Florida*, all but Sir Alexander Cockburn found that Great Britain was liable for the acts committed by that vessel. Three of the arbitrators found against Great Britain in the case of the *Shenandoah*, on account of the negligence shown by the authorities at Melbourne in permitting the clandestine enlistment of men within that port. With regard to the tenders, the tribunal unanimously found "that such tenders or auxiliary vessels being properly regarded as accessories, must necessarily follow the lot of their principals, and be submitted to the same decision which applies to them respectively." With regard to the other vessels mentioned in the claims, the tribunal decided that partly Great Britain was not responsible, and that partly they were excluded from consideration for want of evidence. They rejected the claims for expenditure incurred in the pursuit and capture of the cruisers, and they fixed the sum to be paid by Great Britain at 15,500,000 dollars in gold, amounting to £3,229,166 13s. 4d. sterling. [O. B.]

Geoffrey, Archbishop of York (*b.* 1158? *d.* 1213), was a reputed son of Henry II. by the Fair Rosamond. In 1173 the king procured his election to the bishopric of Lincoln, and in 1191 he was made Archbishop of York. In 1174 he aided his father against his rebellious brothers, and seems to have been appointed Chancellor about this time, an office he continued to hold till his father's death. He distinguished himself greatly in the war against France (1187—89), and was the only one of Henry II.'s children who was present at his death-bed. During Richard I.'s absence from England, he quarrelled with Longchamp (q.v.), and the violent conduct of the latter on this occasion was one of the causes of his dismissal from office. His opposition to John's oppressive taxation caused his banishment in 1207, and he remained in exile till his death. "The affectionate duty which he showed to his father," says Mr. Foss, "must incline us to a favourable interpretation of his conduct in the two succeeding reigns, and induce us to attribute his misfortunes to the irritability of Richard and the overbearing tyranny of John, each of whom his independence of character and his strict sense of justice would, though in a different manner, excite. . . He must ever hold in history the character of a valiant soldier, an able commander, a wise counsellor, and an excellent son."

Geoffrey of Anjou (*b.* 1114, *d.* 1151), the father of Henry II., was the son of Fulk V. of Anjou. On the death of the Emperor Henry V., Henry I. determined to marry his daughter Maud to Geoffrey, the heir of Anjou. The match was, from one point of view, a wise one, as it put an end to the series of wars between Normandy and Anjou which had raged for so long, but the Angevin match was unpopular with the Norman nobles and prevented Maud's being recognised as queen. During the civil wars between Stephen and the Empress Maud, Geoffrey was principally occupied with endeavouring to enforce her claims to Normandy.

Geoffrey of Britanny (*b.* 1158, *d.* 1186), a son of Henry II. and Eleanor, was married when a child to Constance, daughter and heiress of Conan, Duke of Britanny. In 1173 he joined his elder brother Henry in rebellion against his father, and put himself forward as the champion of Breton independence. The conspiracy was defeated, and Henry forgave his sons. In 1180 Geoffrey placed himself at the head of the Poitevins who were in rebellion against Richard; defeated in this attempt he retired to the court of Philip Augustus, where he spent the remainder of his life. He met with his death in a tournament at Paris, where he was accidentally thrown from his horse and trampled to death. By his marriage with Constance he had two children, Arthur and Eleanor.

Lyttelton, *Henry II.*

Geoffrey of Monmouth (*d. circa* 1154) was a writer of the twelfth century, of whose personal history scarcely anything is known. Like Giraldus Cambrensis, he sprang from the Norman settlers in Wales. He was Archdeacon of Monmouth, and was taken under the protection of Robert, Earl of Gloucester and Lord of Glamorgan, to whom he dedicated his *Historia Britonum*. He was consecrated Bishop of St. Asaph in 1152, and died about 1154. Of the origin of his famous *History* (first published in 1128) Geoffrey asserts "that his friend Walter, Archdeacon of Oxford, brought with him into England from Britanny an ancient book in the Breton tongue, containing the history of this country from the arrival of Brutus the Trojan to the year 689." Geoffrey's work was soon translated into French, English, and Welsh, and gradually became the great fountain-head of romance, out of which the poets of successive generations have drawn a flood of fiction, that has left an indelible impress upon our subsequent literature. This work has been edited by Dr. Giles, and a trans-

lation is to be found in Bohn's Antiquarian Library.

Geoffrey of Nantes, Earl of Martel (*d.* 1158), was the son of Geoffrey of Anjou and the Empress Maud. On the accession of his brother, Henry II., to the English throne, he claimed the county of Anjou, but he was compelled to submit to Henry in 1156, and to relinquish his claims on the promise of receiving an annual pension.

George of Denmark, Prince (*b.* 1653, *d.* 1708), was the second son of Frederick III. of Denmark and Sophia of Lüneburg. On July 28, 1683, he married Princess Anne, daughter of James II. It was hinted to him that the claim of his wife and himself to the throne might be preferred by James to that of William and Mary if they became converts to Catholicism; and George seems to have been attracted by the idea. The marriage was perhaps intended as a blind to the English Protestants. When William of Orange landed in England, George deserted James at Andover. As man after man joined the invader, Prince George uttered his usual exclamation, "Est-il possible?" "What," said the king, when he heard that his son-in-law, influenced by Lord Churchill, had followed their example, "is 'Est-il possible' gone too? After all, a good trooper would have been a greater loss." Soon after the accession of William III., he was created Duke of Cumberland. He offered to accompany William to Ireland, but the offer was declined. When Queen Anne ascended the throne, he at once accepted the position of "his wife's subject." He was created Lord High Admiral, but a commission was appointed to perform his duties. His request to be placed in command of the Dutch army was disregarded in favour of Marlborough. In 1702 he was compelled to vote for the Bill against Occasional Conformity, although himself a notorious example of it. In 1707 an attack was directed against the naval administration. The object of censure, was, however, not so much the Prince as Admiral Churchill, the brother of Marlborough. Towards the end of his life the Tories used him as an instrument to push their interests with the queen. As he lay on his death-bed, the Whigs, in order to procure the admission of Somers to office, threatened again to assault the management of the navy. George was an exceedingly incompetent man. "I have tried him drunk," said Charles II., "and I have tried him sober, and there is nothing in him." He was a good husband, and Anne was much attached to him.

Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Burnet, *Hist. of His Own Time*; Stanhope, *Reign of Queen Anne*; Wyon, *Reign of Queen Anne*.

George I. (*b.* May 28, 1660, *s.* August 1, 1714, *d.* June 10, 1727) was the first sovereign of the present Hanoverian dynasty. Prince George Louis was the son of Ernest Augustus of Hanover, and Sophia, daughter of Frederick V., Elector Palatine, and granddaughter of James I. of England. During his father's lifetime he served in the Imperial army against the Turks, at the siege of Vienna, and on the Danube, in Italy, and on the Rhine. In 1681 he visited England, and in the following year his marriage with his cousin, Sophia Dorothea of Zell, united the two branches of the house of Lüneburg. The unfortunate princess was divorced and imprisoned, in 1694, in the castle of Ahlden, for the remainder of her life, for an intrigue with Count Königsmark. George succeeded his father as Elector of Hanover in 1698. He led some auxiliaries to the aid of Frederick III. of Denmark (1700). In 1701 he joined the grand alliance against France. In 1707, at Marlborough's request, he was appointed commander of the Imperial forces. He was, however, much offended at the suggestion that he should divide his forces with Prince Eugene. When at length he took the field, he failed to reduce the towns of Franche Comté. Shortly afterwards he became reconciled to Marlborough. In 1710 he resigned his command. He drew up a memorial to the queen, protesting against the terms of the Peace of Utrecht. After the Tories gained the upper hand, he was in constant communication with the Whig Opposition, but does not seem to have taken any serious steps towards securing the succession. He opposed sending a writ to his son, the Electoral prince, as Duke of Cambridge; and answered the queen's angry letter in submissive terms. In May, 1714, he joined in the Treaty of Rastadt. On the death of the queen, he was proclaimed King of England, but did not arrive in this country until late in September, and was not crowned until Oct. 31. He at once nominated an entirely Whig ministry. His accession was on the whole popular, although riots broke out in several of the large towns. The following year witnessed the outbreak of the Jacobite rebellion. The government at once took vigorous measures for its suppression by suspending the Habeas Corpus Act, summoning troops from Hanover, and arresting the more active Jacobites. Ormond's attempts to land on the English coast were a failure. The insurrection in Scotland for a brief period assumed a formidable aspect. The English revolters were utterly defeated at Preston, and shortly before, Mar had suffered a reverse at Sheriffmuir. The arrival of the Pretender failed to restore confidence to the Jacobite troops, and, with his flight, the insurrection may be said to have terminated. The chief events of the next year were the punishment of the rebels, and the passing of the Septennial Act. Immediately afterwards George, much against the wish of his ministers, insisted on going to Hanover, accompanied by Stanhope. He was

with difficulty induced to allow his eldest son to act as "Guardian of the Realm and Lieutenant" in his absence. Negotiations for the Triple Alliance were at once set on foot. George insisted on an English fleet being sent to the Baltic in order to oppose the designs of Charles XII. of Sweden against Bremen and Verden, and was anxious to declare war against Russia. Shortly afterwards Townshend, who had discountenanced George's European policy, was dismissed from office, and was followed by Walpole. In June, 1717, the Triple Alliance between England, France, and Holland was concluded. For a brief period England was seriously menaced by the schemes of Charles XII. and Alberoni, in conjunction with the malcontents in France, in favour of a Stuart restoration. These were thwarted by the death of Charles in the next year. Alberoni aimed at the destruction of the Treaty of Utrecht, and directed his efforts against the Austrians in Italy. Admiral Byng was therefore sent to the Mediterranean, and Austria joining the Triple Alliance, which thereupon became a Quadruple Alliance, the Spanish fleet was destroyed off Cape Passaro, and Alberoni fell. An abortive expedition, fitted out in favour of the Pretender, to the Highlands, was one of his last efforts. Sweden and Denmark were compelled to desist from hostilities, and, in 1720, Stanhope had secured the peace of Europe. Meanwhile, at home, the impeachment of Oxford was a complete failure. The Schism Act was repealed; but the Peerage Bill, a Whig measure, was rejected through the influence of Walpole, now leader of the Opposition (Dec., 1719). The year 1720 witnessed the terrible downfall of the South Sea Scheme. The directors were punished; Sunderland was forced to resign, and the death of Stanhope left Walpole without a rival. For a brief period the hopes of the Jacobites revived; but information of Bishop Atterbury's plot was given to the English government by the French minister, Dubois. The Habeas Corpus Act was suspended for a year, sums were granted for an increase of the army, a tax of £100,000 was collected from the Non-jurors, and Atterbury was forced to leave the kingdom. Soon afterwards Walpole's jealousy caused a quarrel to break out between himself and Carteret; the latter withdrew to the Lord-Lieutenancy of Ireland (1724). Then the country was wildly excited by the government patent granted to Wood, giving him power to coin farthings and halfpence to the amount of £108,000. Walpole was obliged to withdraw the obnoxious patent. Great excitement was also caused in Scotland by the malt-tax being changed into a charge of threepence upon every barrel of ale. The remainder of the reign offers little interest in home affairs. Abroad, Walpole was thwarted by the intrigues of the Spanish minister, Baron Ripperda. The latter wished to upset the arrangements of the Congress of Cambrai, for the maintenance of the Quadruple Alliance, and to revive the old connection between Spain and Austria. Accordingly, in August, 1725, the Treaty of Vienna was concluded between Austria and Spain, with a secret treaty arranging marriages between the two houses, the restoration of the Stuarts, and the surrender of Gibraltar and Minorca. The Jacobites were very active in these intrigues with the Spanish court. In opposition to these designs the Treaty of Hanover was signed by England, France, and Prussia. Ripperda fell, but his policy was still continued. There was great excitement in England, and a squadron was despatched to blockade Porto Bello. Austria, influenced by the policy of Prussia, determined to withdraw from her unpleasant position, and preliminaries of peace were signed at Paris (May, 1727). At home, the Opposition was vehement in its attacks on Walpole, and urged the full restoration of Bolingbroke. Their intrigues were cut short by the death of George at Osnabrück, on June 9, on his way back from Hanover. Mr. Thackeray's lively sketch of George I.'s character is perhaps a better estimate than that of some more pretentious writers. "George was not a lofty monarch certainly; he was not a patron of the fine arts, but he was not a hypocrite, he was not revengeful, he was not extravagant. Though a despot in Hanover, he was a moderate ruler in England. His aim was to leave it to itself as much as possible, and to live out of it as much as he could. His heart was in Hanover. . . . He was more than fifty years of age when he came amongst us; we took him because he served our turn; we laughed at his uncouth German ways, and sneered at him. He took our loyalty for what it was worth; laid hands on what money he could; kept us assuredly from Popery and wooden shoes. Cynical and selfish as he was, he was better than a king out of St. Germains, with the French king's orders in his pocket, and a swarm of Jesuits in his train."

Stanhope, *Hist. of England*; Lecky, *Hist. of England*; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*; *The Stuart Papers*; Coxe, *Walpole*; Boyer, *Political State of Great Britain*.

[F. S. P.]

George II. (*b.* Oct. 30, 1683, *s.* June 11, 1727, *d.* Oct. 25, 1760), was the son of George Louis, Elector of Hanover, afterwards George I. of England, and the unfortunate Sophia of Zell. In 1706 he became a peer of England, with the title of Duke of Cambridge. He had married Caroline of Anspach. In spite of his laxity of morals, he was much attached to his wife, and strongly influenced by her. He greatly distinguished himself at the battle of Oudenarde (1708). Towards the end of 1713, the Whig leaders proposed that his writ as Duke of Cambridge should be asked for in order that he might be present to thwart the designs of the ministry in favour of the Pretender.

Anne was greatly offended, and although the writ was issued, the measure was given up. In 1714 he accompanied his father to England, and became Prince of Wales. In 1716 the smouldering quarrel between the king and his son broke out into flame. The prince insulted the Duke of Newcastle, who was present as proxy for the king at the christening of the prince's eldest son. George was expelled from St. James's, and his children taken under charge of the king. He became popular with the nation, and openly raised the standard of opposition to the court and ministry. It was impossible, however, to ignore his claims to the regency during his father's absence from England. In 1719 Stanhope and Sunderland introduced the Peerage Bill as a blow at his power when he should ascend the throne. But the measure was thrown out by a large majority in the Commons. A formal reconciliation was effected by Walpole between the prince and the king in 1720. In June, 1727, on the death of his father, George ascended the English throne. His reign may be roughly divided into two parts: (1) the peace period to the fall of Walpole in 1742, and (2) the war period to the death of the king in 1760. For a little while it seemed as if Walpole had fallen. Sir Spencer Compton was directed to form a ministry; but Walpole explained his views on foreign policy to the king: he was supported by the influence of the queen, and wisely offered to increase the Civil List. Accordingly, Walpole continued Prime Minister, opposed by the Whig malcontents whom his love of power had caused to desert him, and supported by a bought majority. The difficulties with Spain were settled in Nov., 1729, by the Treaty of Seville, a defensive alliance between England, Spain, France, and eventually Holland. English trade with South America was thus restored, and the Asiento confirmed to the South Sea Company. The Emperor, finding himself deserted, joined with England, Holland, and Spain, in the second Treaty of Vienna (March, 1731), which practically confirmed the Treaty of Seville. In this year, Walpole, by compelling Townshend, as leader of the Upper House, to reject the Pension Bill, caused him to retire from the ministry. For two years Walpole devoted himself to reforms at home. In 1733 his excise on salt was followed up by a proposal for a tax on wine and tobacco, and a system of warehousing to prevent frauds on the Customs. Such was the unpopularity of the measure that the minister was compelled to withdraw it. Walpole kept aloof from the war which broke out in the following year between the Empire, and France and Spain. Through the mediation of France and England, the Definitive Peace of Vienna was eventually signed in the year 1738. The elections of 1735 were stubbornly contested, but Walpole retained his majority. Bolingbroke retired to France, and the Prince of Wales assumed the leadership of the Opposition. In 1736 Edinburgh was agitated by the Porteous riots. In 1737 a public quarrel broke out between George and his son on the subject of the prince's jointure. The ministry was victorious, but the Opposition rallied round the prince at Norfolk House. Shortly afterwards the death of the queen deprived George of a faithful wife, and Walpole of a true friend. The latter retained, however, his influence over George. The Opposition attacked his peace policy, the story of "Jenkins's ear" was brought up against him, and the king was eager for war with Spain. Failing to carry their motion against Walpole's convention with that country, the Opposition seceded from the House. Walpole was, however, forced to declare war (October, 1739), rather than resign, and at once the Jacobite hopes revived. The expeditions to Spain were not successful. In 1742 the elections gave the government but a small majority, and, being defeated on the Chippenham Election Petition, Walpole resigned. A new ministry, in which several of Walpole's supporters had places, was formed under Wilmington, formerly Sir Spencer Compton. On the death of Wilmington, in the following year, Henry Pelham defeated Lord Bath, the rival candidate for the Premiership. Europe was now menaced by the question of the Austrian Succession (q.v.). Subsidies were promptly voted to Maria Theresa, and an army of 30,000 English and Hanoverians sent to the Low Countries. The English fleet forced the Neapolitan king to assume neutrality. The battle of Dettingen (June 27, 1743), the last in which an English king took part, and in which George distinguished himself, resulted in a defeat of the French, after ineffectual negotiations for peace. England joined Holland, Austria, Saxony, and Sardinia in the Treaty of Worms, Sept., 1743, for the maintenance of the Pragmatic Sanction. A counter-league, known as that of Frankfort, with France at its head, was soon formed. The French now prepared an expedition under Marshal Saxe to invade England, and restore the Stuarts, but a violent storm prevented the transports from sailing. There was now a change of ministry; Carteret being driven from office, and the Pelham administration established on a "broad bottom." The system of German subsidies was largely carried on. The campaign in the Netherlands of 1745 terminated in the defeat of Fontenoy. The same year was rendered memorable in English annals by the invasion of Prince Charles Edward. [JACOBITES.] He defeated Cope at Prestonpans in September, and marched as far as Derby, to the great alarm of the government. He then retreated into Scotland, and won the battle of Falkirk near by

Stirling, but his army was cut to pieces at Culloden, in April, 1746, and he escaped with difficulty to the Continent. In the midst of this crisis the Pelhams, failing to procure the admission of Pitt to office, had resigned; but, on Grenville's failing to form a ministry, they returned to power, having gained their point. Abroad, the Duke of Cumberland's campaign in the Netherlands was not successful. At length the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (q.v.) brought the struggle to a close, the terms being a mutual restoration of conquests (1748). Pelham thereupon introduced an important financial measure, proposing to reduce the interest on the national debt to three per cent. This was followed up by the Reform of the Calendar in 1751, and two years later by Hardwicke's Marriage Act. A Bill for the Naturalisation of Jews was carried, but popular sentiment necessitated its repeal. The Wesleyans became numerous, and exercised a reviving influence on religion. In 1754, on the death of Pelham, the incompetent Newcastle assumed the government. "Now I shall have no more peace," said George II. A new war was breaking out with France in India and America, and the Seven Years' War was on the verge of beginning. In 1756 war began. Minorca was captured by the French owing to the weak conduct of Admiral Byng, and Newcastle, deserted by Fox, was obliged to resign. Pitt failed to form a durable ministry, until, by a coalition with Newcastle, the ministry was constituted which so gloriously carried on the war. Vigorous measures were at once set on foot on the Continent. Austria, France, and Russia fought against England and Prussia. The traditional policy of England was truly upset. [Seven Years' War.] A long series of expeditions kept up the fame of the British arms. The attack on Rochefort was unsuccessful, nor was the enterprise against Louisbourg, in America, attended with better results. Finally, the Duke of Cumberland, beaten at Hastenbeck, and surrounded by the French at Kloster-Seven, was compelled to capitulate. In India, however, Clive had gained the great victory of Plassey. In 1758, Ferdinand of Brunswick was appointed commander in the place of Cumberland. After his victory at Crefeld, a large body of troops was sent to assist him. The expeditions against Cherbourg and St. Malo were productive of little result. In America the English took Louisbourg, Fort Duquesne, and Ticonderoga. The year 1759 was one of the most glorious in our history. In January, Goree, in Africa, was captured; in June, Guadaloupe. In August Ferdinand of Brunswick gained a great victory at Minden, and saved Hanover; in September Admiral Boscawen defeated the French off Lagos; in October, Wolfe beat them at Quebec; in November, Hawke defeated Conflans off Quiberon. In India the siege of Madras was raised, and Coote took Wandewash. The great victories of Frederick, in the following year, may be said to have concluded the war. At the moment of prosperity, George died suddenly on October 25, 1760. Lord Stanhope's estimate of his character is that "he had scarcely one kingly quality, except personal courage and justice. Avarice, the most unprincely of all passions, sat unshrined in the inmost recesses of his bosom . . . . Business he understood, and transacted with pleasure. Like his father, he was far too Hanoverian in his politics, nor wholly free from the influence of his mistresses. But his reign of thirty-one years deserves this praise, that it never once invaded the rights of the nation, nor harshly enforced the prerogatives of the crown; that its last period was illumined by the glories of Wolfe and of Chatham; and that it left the dynasty secure, the constitution unimpaired, and the people prosperous."

Stanhope, *Hist. of England*; Lecky, *Hist. of England*; Macaulay, *Essays*; Hervey, *Memoirs of the Reign of George II.*; Dodington, *Diary*; Horace Walpole, *Memoirs*; Waldegrave, *Memoirs*; Southey, *Life of Wesley*. [S. J. L.]

George III. (*b.* June 4, 1738, *s.* Oct. 25, 1760, *d.* Jan. 20, 1820) was the son of Frederick, Prince of Wales, and the grandson of George II. His father died in 1751, leaving him to the care of his clever mother, a princess of Saxe-Gotha, and of Lord Bute, by whom he was brought up in the Anti-Whig principles set forth in Bolingbroke's *Idea of a Patriot King*. After a love affair with Lady Sarah Lennox, which was nipped in the bud, George married, in 1761, the Princess Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz. Immediately upon his accession, the king set himself to break the power of the Whig houses. By the aid of the "king's friends," Pitt was driven from power (1761), and his policy reversed by the Peace of Paris (1763). The incompetence of Lord Bute, however, postponed the triumph of Toryism, and George was forced to submit to the obnoxious administrations of George Grenville (1763), and of Rockingham (1766). At length Pitt, now Earl of Chatham, who had broken with the Whigs, consented to come to the king's rescue, but a nervous disorder soon forced him to retire, and the administration was continued by the Duke of Grafton, the king all the while steadily pursuing his policy of breaking up party ties, and so making supreme the influence of the crown. The persecution of Wilkes was made a personal question; but the king was as yet popular, and the unconstitutional conduct of the government excited little indignation outside London and Middlesex. At last, in 1770, ten years after his accession, George found himself in a position to appoint Lord North Prime Minister, and for twelve years personal government obtained in England, the Premier being nothing more than a passive instrument

in the hands of his sovereign. They were years of disaster and disgrace. At home the royal influence was used unscrupulously to further particular measures and to browbeat the Opposition, appointments in the army were tampered with, and the business in Parliament controlled. Abroad, the policy of coercing the American colonies, continued in accordance with the express wish of the king, was at first extremely popular in England, nor did opinions begin to change until the declaration of war had been followed by Burgoyne's surrender at Saratoga, and by the intervention of France in the struggle (1778). Then North wished to resign in favour of Lord Chatham, but George declined to "possess the crown under shackles;" and by the death of the great statesman in the following year, he was left free to carry on the "king's war," in spite of the misgivings of the Prime Minister, and the numerous resignations of his colleagues. The storm was, however, gathering to a head; disaster followed disaster in America; at home the sullen discontent of the masses found expression in the dangerous Gordon Riots; there was a strong demand for economical reform; Mr. Dunning moved his famous resolutions against the increasing influence of the crown. George attempted to stave off the inevitable by negotiating through Lord Thurlow with the Opposition, but he was checkmated by the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown, and North resigned in March, 1782. Once more the king was placed under the hateful thraldom of the Whigs. During Rockingham's brief second ministry, he was forced to consent to the acknowledgment of American independence, and though he found Lord Shelburne more pliable, the powerful coalition of Fox and North, formed in 1783, came into office with the express determination to break the royal authority. George resolved to appeal to the country against the government. By a most unconstitutional use of his personal influence in the House of Lords, he procured the rejection of Fox's East India Bill, ministers were dismissed, and after Pitt, the new Prime Minister, had roused the enthusiasm of the nation by his gallant struggle against the majority in the Commons, Parliament was dissolved in 1784, and the elections resulted in the complete victory of the crown over the Whig oligarchy. For the second time in the reign the king had been able to override the House of Commons, and he again found himself in possession of a long lease of power checked only by the fact that his minister was not a mere servant like Lord North. A period of considerable material progress followed, during which Pitt's excellent administration gained for the crown much popularity, unchecked by the king's well-known dislike to parliamentary reform. It was, however, a time of much misery to the king, who was distressed by the irregularities of his sons, and who in 1789 became afflicted with that mental aberration of which symptoms had appeared soon after his accession. At first he was made considerably worse by the incapacity of the court doctors, but under the skilful treatment of Dr. Willis he rapidly recovered, and on April 23 personally attended the Thanksgiving Service at St. Paul's. His popularity, which was partly due no doubt to the distrust with which the heir apparent was regarded, was at its height when the outburst of the French Revolution frightened even the greater part of the Whig malcontents, as well as the mercantile and propertied classes, into lending their support to the throne. It was with the approval of the upper classes that the king and his minister entered upon that course of repression of opinion which tended, more than anything else, to make the lower orders espouse the new gospel of democracy. It is unnecessary to describe in detail Pitt's splendid efforts to keep together the European coalition, which opposed such a wavering front to the determined progress of the French arms. The burdens imposed upon the nation, added to the sufferings produced by bad harvests and depression of trade, rapidly made the war very unpopular, and with it the king, who was assaulted by the mob when he went to open Parliament for the autumn session of 1795. Nevertheless, the struggle continued, though Napoleon had appeared, and though the victories won by English seamen could not atone for the defeats experienced by Continental generals. In 1800 a lunatic named Hatfield made an unsuccessful attempt to shoot the king. Once more England's weakness was Ireland's opportunity, and Pitt wished to stave off rebellion by emancipating the Catholics. The king refused to agree to such a measure, alleging that it would be a violation of the coronation oath, and finding the minister determined, he was forced to accept his resignation (March, 1801). The shock to George was so great that it brought on a fresh attack of insanity, from which however, he soon recovered. Pitt's successor was Addington, who was a second North in point of subservience; he was enabled to conclude the short-lived Peace of Amiens in March, 1802, but few believed it to be real, least of all the king. War was again declared in May, 1803, and it was while he was urging forward with the utmost zeal the preparations that were being made to resist the French invader, that the king became once more a prey to madness. He rallied to discover that both the people and Parliament were weary of the incapacity of Addington, and clamouring for the return of Pitt to power. Negotiations were opened; Pitt wished to form a ministry on a broad basis, but the king declined to admit Fox, whom he personally disliked, and a government was at length created of a completely Tory colour.

It carried on the struggle against Napoleon with indifferent success until 1806, when Pitt died, the news of the victory of Trafalgar being insufficient to rescue him from the dejection caused by the defeat of Austerlitz. Again the king was forced to have recourse to the Opposition, and, sorely against his will, was compelled to accept Fox and Grenville as leaders of a wide "Ministry of All the Talents."

Grenville, weakened by the death of Fox, attempted to bring forward the Catholic claims again, in the form of a small measure for the relief of officers in the army and navy. It was about to become law, when the king, alarmed by the resignation of Lord Sidmouth (Addington), and encouraged by the promise of the Duke of Portland to form a government suitable to his wishes, called upon the ministers to drop the bill. They obeyed, but at the same time drew up a minute reserving their right to revive the question. This George desired them to withdraw, and to give him a written engagement that they would never offer him any advice upon the subject of Catholic concession. With great propriety they declined to give any such pledge; they were promptly dismissed and replaced by a ministry nominally led by the Duke of Portland, and really by Mr. Spencer Perceval. A dissolution resulted once more in the national ratification of the sovereign's unconstitutional action (1807). This was the king's final triumph. The ministry, of which Spencer Perceval became the head in 1809, was supported by too large a majority to be overthrown by any amount of blundering in its dealings with America, and gained some credit from the accidental discovery of the talents of Wellington in Spain. In 1811 the reign came, to all intents and purposes, to an end. The health of George III., which had been gravely affected by the failure of the Duke of York in the Walcheren expedition, broke down after the death of the Princess Amelia, and he became hopelessly insane. For nine more years he lingered on mad, blind, and melancholy, but the glories of the Peninsular War and of Waterloo, as well as the social misery that followed the downfall of Napoleon, have little to do with a king who, if in full mental vigour, would certainly have identified himself with the praise, and would not have shrunk from his share of the blame.

It is impossible to give an exhaustive list of the authorities for this important reign. The general histories are those of Lord Stanhope (to 1783), of Mr. Lecky, of Massey (1745—1802), and of Harriet Martineau (from 1800). For constitutional history, see May's *Const. Hist.* There are many good biographies of great statesmen, *e.g.*, *Pitt*, by Lord Stanhope, Tomline, and Lord Rosebery; *Chatham*, by Thackeray; *Shelburne*, by Lord E. Fitzmaurice; *Fox*, by Earl Russell; *The Early Hist. of Fox*, by Mr. G. O. Trevelyan; *Perceval*, by Mr. Spencer Walpole; *Burke*, by Mr. John Morley; *Canning*, by Bell and Stapleton. Of memoirs, correspondence, &c., the most important are those of *Horace Walpole* and *Rockingham*; the *Grenville Papers*; the *Auckland Correspondence*; Buckingham's *Memoirs of the Court and Cabinets of George III.*; Jesse, *Memoirs of the Life and Reign of George III.*; Malmesbury's *Correspondence*; the Cornwallis *Correspondence*; *Correspondence between the King and North* (pub. 1867). See also the *Letters of Junius*; Burke, *Works*; Brougham, *Historical Sketch*; *The Annual Register*; Cobbett's *Parliamentary Hist.*

[L. C. S.]

George IV. (*b.* Aug. 12, 1762; *s.* Jan. 29, 1820; *d.* Jan. 26, 1830) was born upon the forty-seventh anniversary of the accession of the house of Brunswick. The education which his parents gave him was of so strict and dull a kind that it would have caused any boy of spirit to revolt. The coldness and tedium of his father's court developed quickly the worst side of the prince's character. At twenty he fell desperately in love with a Mrs. Fitz-Herbert, whom he privately married, a marriage void by reason of the Royal Marriage Act; if it had not been, it would have cost George the throne, as Mrs. Fitz-Herbert was a Roman Catholic. On his attaining twenty-one his father had settled on him £50,000 a year; the revenues of the Duchy of Cornwall amounted to £12,000; and Parliament voted him £30,000 to start with, and the same amount to pay off his debts. Within a year his debts amounted to £160,000. The king added £10,000 to his allowance, which only served to encourage his reckless extravagance. In the hope that it might come into power and so help him, he allied himself closely with the Whig party, which his father hated. In 1795 Parliament undertook to discharge his debts, which amounted to £650,000, on his marriage with Princess Caroline of Brunswick, whom George III. had selected as an eligible wife for his son. The prince was drunk when he married her, and before nine months passed by, had openly separated from her, to return to his old habits of vice and profligacy. In 1811 he found himself compelled to accept the regency on terms which he did his best to have modified. But his conduct had disgusted his best friends, the Whigs, who now began to see him in his true colours. Finding that nothing was to be got from them, he deserted them in a moment, accepted the regency on the terms proposed, and retained Perceval as Prime Minister. His heartless conduct to his daughter, the Princess Charlotte, increased his unpopularity. In 1817 the feeling of the people made itself felt by publicly insulting the Regent on his way back from opening Parliament. On coming to the throne (1820) George attempted to divorce his queen, but the case had to be abandoned, and she died in 1821. Without his father's virtues George IV. had as narrow-minded a horror of change as the old king himself. Fortunately for the country he had not the moral strength,

or even the obstinate courage, which had enabled George III. always to gain his point. In deference to the king's conscientious scruples Pitt had consented to waive the Catholic question. The notion of conscientious scruples influencing George IV. was nothing short of ludicrous. He, too, however, refused to submit, whereupon Peel and the Duke of Wellington offered their resignations. They were accepted, but before the next day the king had reflected that it was impossible for him to form another ministry, and that his father's old threat of retiring to Hanover would be only too gladly received by the nation: he surrendered and wrote to them a note begging them to remain in office, and allowing them to have their own way. Little more than a year after this event he died.

Lord Malmesbury, *Memoirs*; G. Rose, *Diary*; *The Londonderry Correspondence*; Fitzgerald's *Life of George IV.*; Lord Colchester, *Diary*; Duke of Buckingham, *Mem. of the Court of the Regency*; Stapleton, *George Canning and his Times*; Jesse, *Mem. of George III.*; Eldon's *Life*; Peel's *Memoirs*; Yonge, *Life of Lord Liverpool*; Walpole's *England from 1815*; Alison, *Hist. of Europe*.

[W. R. S.]

George V., King (*b.* June 3, 1865), second son of His late Majesty King Edward VII. By the death of his elder brother, Prince Albert Victor, Duke of Clarence (Jan. 14, 1892), he came into the direct line of succession. He was early intended for the Navy, and was educated in consonance with this objective. In 1878 he began his naval career, serving on the *Britannia*. Two years later he laid the foundation to his right to be considered the most travelled monarch of the world, by starting on a cruise in the *Bacchante*, during which he was made midshipman. The itinerary of this cruise was comprehensive, including South Africa, Australia, the West Indies, China, and Japan. Before returning, a tour was made through the Holy Land. His interest in naval technique was intense and practical, and he learned every detail of his profession. His steps of promotion were: Sub-lieutenant, 1884; Lieutenant, 1885; Commander, 1891; Captain, 1893; Vice-Admiral, 1903; Admiral, 1907. He married, on July 6, 1893, Princess Victoria Mary (*b.* May 26, 1867), only daughter of the Duke and Duchess of Teck. His Majesty has issue five sons and one daughter: Their Royal Highnesses Prince Edward Albert, born on June 23, 1894, heir to the Throne; Prince Albert Frederick, born 1895; Princess Victoria Alexandra, born in 1897; Prince Henry, born 1900; Prince George, born in 1902; and Prince John, born in 1905.

On the accession of Edward VII. to the throne in 1901, George had to relinquish active service, and on March 15, 1902, started on an Imperial tour through the overseas Dominions of the Crown. He was accompanied by the Duchess of York, and on H.M.S. *Ophir* visited Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, and Canada. Returning in November of the same year he was created Prince of Wales. His notable "Wake Up, John Bull!" speech was delivered in the Guildhall at this time. Another momentous tour was undertaken in 1905–6 to the Empire of India, when the principal cities were visited. In addition to these especially notable journeys, His Majesty has toured in Ireland (1897 and 1899), and has visited Egypt (1888), Russia (1894), Berlin (1902), Vienna (1904), Canada (1908), Germany (1908), making, it is computed, a travelled aggregate of 150,000 miles. Princes Edward and Albert, his eldest and second sons respectively, are being trained for the Navy. On the demise of the Crown by the death of Edward VII., on May 6, 1910, he succeeded to the Crown, and was proclaimed King three days later.

Georgia. [Colonies, American.]

Gerberoi, The Battle of (1080), was fought between William the Conqueror and his eldest son Robert, who, aided by the French king, sought to establish himself as Duke of Normandy. The action was a slight one, and Robert having unhorsed and wounded his father, expressed penitence for his rebellion, and a reconciliation was effected.

Germanstown, The Battle of (Oct. 4, 1777), fought between Washington and Lord Howe at Germanstown, on the Schuylkill River, north of Philadelphia. The English held Germanstown to protect Philadelphia, which they had recently occupied. Washington attacked them with great success at the outset, but becoming panic-stricken they fled, leaving the English in possession of the town.

Germanus, St. (*d.* 448), Bishop of Auxerre. Said to have visited Britain (429 A.D.) to combat Pelagianism. He converted to Christianity those British tribes which still remained heathen. Encouraged by him the Britons won a bloodless victory over the combined Picts and Saxons known as the Alleluia Victory (q.v.). The dedication of several churches in Wales and Cornwall to him attests the memory of his visit.

Bede, *Hist. Eccles.*, i., ch. xx.; Constantius, *S. Germani Vita*.

Gertruydenberg, The Conference at (1710), was an unsuccessful attempt to bring the War of the Spanish Succession to a close. The seat of the negotiations, which were begun on the side of France, was moved from the Hague to Gertruydenberg, a village at the mouth of the Waal. The Dutch demanded that the terms of the previous year, viz., the resignation of the whole of the Spanish succession and the restoration of Newfoundland to England, should be enforced with the terrible condition that

Louis should assist in ejecting his grandson from Spain. This the French king declined, although he offered a monthly subsidy towards defraying the expenses of the allies. Although this point was waived, the opposition of Austria and Savoy to these terms of peace necessitated the continuation of the war. [SPANISH SUCCESSION, WAR OF THE.]

Stanhope, *Reign of Queen Anne*; Wyon, *Reign of Queen Anne*.

Gervase of Canterbury was a monk of Christ Church, who wrote a Chronicle of the Kings of England, 1122—1200, and a history of the Archbishops of Canterbury down to Hubert Walter (1205). Gervase is a laborious and trustworthy writer.

Gervase of Tilbury, an historian of the thirteenth century, whose career as a wandering scholar is very interesting, was for some time in the service of Otto IV., and was made Marshal of the Kingdom of Arles by him. Bale gives a long catalogue of his writings, but the only one published and of importance is *De Otiis Imperialibus*.

Gesith (companion) was the old English word for the Latin *comes*. Tacitus gives us a description of the primitive *comitatus* of the old German king. The *comites* were his personal dependents, fighting his battles, living in his house, and wholly occupied in his service. The position was coveted by the most noble youth of Germany. As the *comitatus* reappears in England, the increased dignity of the king has immeasurably increased the distance between him and his companions in arms. He now gives dignity and importance to his followers. The gesith becomes the thegn; the companion the servant. The royal gesiths are strongly marked out from the gesiths of the ealdorman or bishop, who are merely his retainers or wards. Ultimately large grants of folkland reward the services of the faithful thegn. [THEGN.] A new nobility of service ultimately develops from the *comitatus*. Extinct on the Continent, the *comitatus* becomes in England a chief source of feudalism. The *huscarls* of Canute reproduce the earlier gesiths of the heptarchic kings. The *gesithcundman* was a man in the rank of a gesith, and ennobled by his service.

Glossary to Schmid's *Gesetze*; Tacitus, *Germania*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Kemble, *Saxons in England*.

Gesta Stephani is the work of an unknown author, and embraces the period from 1135 to 1180. It is evidently the work of a contemporary, and is very interesting for the picture it affords of the anarchy of Stephen's reign.

Ghilzais, THE, are inhabitants of the province lying to the north-east of Candahar. They are a fine muscular race, expert in the use of the musket, sword, and knife, and characterised by an intense ferocity of disposition, the result of centuries of rapine and petty warfare. They have been the most resolute opponents of every invader, and have never submitted to the rulers of Cabul or Candahar, but have continued with perfect impunity their hereditary profession of levying black-mail on all who traverse their mountains.

Malleson, *Afghanistan*.

Ghuzni, THE SIEGE OF (Jan. 21, 1839). This great fortress was strong by nature and by art, surrounded by a wall sixty or seventy feet high and a wet ditch. During the English invasion of Afghanistan it was garrisoned by 3,000 men commanded by Hyder Khan, the son of Dost Mahomed. The English battering train had been left behind, and it was impossible to break the walls with the few six- and nine-pounders which had accompanied them. A nephew of Dost Mahomed, however, for a large bribe, turned traitor and gave an accurate description of the condition and character of the defences. It was determined to blow up the gate, and then rush into the fortress. Nine hundred pounds of powder, packed in bags, were conveyed under cover of darkness to the gate and successfully exploded. The massive gate was shivered, and masses of masonry flew in all directions. Colonel Dennie of the 13th Light Infantry rushed in with the storming party over the debris, and drove back the enemy who were hastily assembling behind the breach, and a mortal struggle ensued which lasted some hours. At dawn of day, however, the British ensign floated over the citadel of Ghuzni, which was thus won with a loss of 180 killed and wounded, of whom eighteen were officers. [AFGHAN WARS.]

Ann. Reg.; Kaye, *Affghan War*.

Gibbet Rutts was a camp of the Irish rebels in 1798, on the Curragh or racecourse near that place. Sir James Duff advanced on it from Limerick, and the garrison offered to surrender, but by some accident a gun was discharged, and the troops, fearing treachery, charged with the bayonet, and killed 350 of the rebels (May 26, 1798).

Gibraltar, a promontory at the entrance to the Mediterranean, is situated in the Spanish province of Andalusia. The natural strength of the position—it is, in fact, the key of the Mediterranean—attracted attention at a very early date. From 712 to the beginning of the fourteenth century it was in the hands of the Saracens, by whom it was again retaken from the Spaniards, in 1333. In 1410 the rock was taken by the Moorish King of Granada, and in 1462 fell into the hands of the Spaniards, by whom it was formally annexed, 1502. In 1704 a combined English and Dutch fleet, under Sir George Rooke, compelled the governor, the

Marquis de Salines, to surrender, and Gibraltar has ever since remained in the possession of the English, sustaining a well-conducted siege in 1705. In 1713 it was formally ceded to Great Britain by the Treaty of Utrecht. Many attempts have been made by the Spaniards to recover so important a position. In 1718 Stanhope was almost induced to surrender what he regarded as of little value and an insuperable obstacle to peace with Spain. In 1720 a projected attack, under the Marquis of Leda, came to nothing, and in 1727 the Count de la Torres and 20,000 men also failed to take the rock. In 1757 Pitt was willing to surrender the rock if the Spaniards would help in the recapture of Minorca from the French; but they persevered in neutrality, and in 1761 joined the Family Compact largely in consequence of the desire to win it back. The most famous siege of Gibraltar was one lasting from 1779 to 1783, by a combined force of Spaniards and French, which was successfully withstood by the English under General Elliot, afterwards Lord Heathfield; a siege almost unparalleled in the annals of ancient or modern warfare. The possession of Gibraltar gives England a commanding attitude at the Atlantic entrance of the Mediterranean. The administration is in the hands of a military governor. As a "free port" Gibraltar is the seat of extensive smuggling.

Martin, *British Colonies*; Drinkwater, *Siege of Gibraltar*; Prescott, *Ferdinand and Isabella*; Stanhope, *Reign of Queen Anne*.

Giffard, William (*d.* 1129), was Chancellor under William I., William II., and Henry I., and held the office no less than five times. Giffard was consecrated Bishop of Winchester in 1107. He introduced the Cistercians into England, and was in many ways a great benefactor to the Church.

Gifford, Gilbert (*d.* 1590), a Jesuit, during the reign of Elizabeth, was induced to turn traitor to his friends by Walsingham's bribes The treasonable correspondence of the Queen of Scots passed through his hands for delivery, and copies were taken by him, and sent at once to Walsingham. By this means the details of every Catholic plot was made known to the ministers almost as soon as conceived.

Gilbert, Sir Humphrey (*b.* 1539, *d.* 1583), a half-brother of Sir Walter Raleigh and nephew of Catherine Ashley, by whom he was introduced to the notice of Queen Elizabeth, first distinguished himself as a soldier in the expedition to Havre, 1563, and, subsequently, was made Governor of Munster. In 1578, having obtained from Elizabeth a patent empowering him to take possession of any unappropriated lands he might discover, he sailed to North America, but returned without accomplishing anything. In 1583 he again set out on a voyage of discovery, and took possession of Newfoundland, but whilst on his return was lost with all his crew.

Hakluyt; *Lives of Raleigh*; Wood, *Athenæ Oxonienses*, ed. Bliss.

Gildas (*b.* 516? *d.* 570?) is said to have been born in the year of the battle of Mount Badon, and to have become an ecclesiastic. In 550 he retired to Armorica, but is said to have returned to Britain, and to have spent the latter years of his life at Glastonbury. He wrote a work entitled *De Excidio Britanniæ*, which is our sole contemporary authority for the Saxon conquest of Britain. Gildas has been published by the English Historical Society, and in the *Monumenta Historica Britannica*. A translation of his work will be found in Bohn's *Antiquarian Library*.

Gilds (probably from Anglo-Saxon *gildan*, to pay). Associations of various kinds, for mutual assistance, were of considerable antiquity in England. Among the Anglo-Saxons three kinds of gilds may be distinguished—religious and social gilds, "frithgilds," and merchant gilds. Of the first of these, two well-known examples are the gilds of Abbotsbury and of Exeter, of which the statutes, dating from the earlier part of the eleventh century, prescribe contributions towards feasts and for religious purposes, and direct provision to be made for the burial of members. The thegns' gild at Cambridge, of the same period, did more than provide for mutual help of this sort; it exacted recompense from thieves who robbed its members, and paid wergild for a brother who slew a man righteously. Such regulations imply that a certain authority was recognised in the gild officers, and the gild itself may therefore be looked upon as a rudimentary town corporation. In the laws of Ini mention is made of the *gegildan*, to whom the wergild of a stranger was to be paid; and those of Alfred fix the share to be paid or received by the *gegildan* of a man who is without relatives. The *Judicia Civitatis Londoniæ* of the time of Athelstan, describes itself as "ordained and confirmed by the bishops and reeves of London among our *frithgegildas* (brethren of a peace gild), as well eorlish as ceorlish," to supplement the decrees of recent Witenagemots. It provides for common banquets, and the singing of funeral psalms. But its chief object is the enforcement of mutual defence; payment is made towards a common insurance and police fund; directions are given for the pursuit of thieves and the exaction of compensation; and the members are arranged in bodies of tens and hundreds under headmen. While social and religious gilds existed to the close of the Middle Ages, there is no mention of frithgilds after the Conquest.

The merchant gild (*gilda mercatoria, ceapmanne gilde*), or Hansa, probably arose in several towns in the early part of the eleventh

century. As seen soon after the Conquest, it owns property, contains all the traders of the town, and regulates its trade. [Towns.]

It is difficult to determine the relation between the merchant gild and the trade or craft gilds which first became prominent in the reign of Henry II. These gradually obtained royal sanction, and during the fourteenth century gained complete control of industry. In most cases the merchant gild was entirely merged in the corporation; while the trade gilds became completely self-governing, and imposed on their members minute regulations as to trade processes and personal morality. It was an industry of small shops and of general equality; for each master employed only two or three workmen (who earned at least half as much as he did, and might fairly hope to become masters in their turn), together with an apprentice or so. But with the beginning of the fifteenth century it became in some crafts very difficult to rise to the position of master, and there are traces of the formation of separate yeomen's—*i.e.* journeymen's—gilds. During the seventeenth century the small-shop system gave way to the domestic system, and that in the eighteenth to the factory system; and early in the nineteenth century the last remnants of the gild restrictions were abolished by statute. [Trades' Unions.]

It is to be added that the Act of Edward VI. confiscating all the gild endowments (except those of the London gilds or Companies), on the pretence that they were applied to superstitious uses, was one of the chief causes of the pauperism which made the Poor Law of Elizabeth necessary.

Toulmin Smith's *English Guilds* (Early Eng. Text Soc., 1870), Brentano's *Introduction* to which on *The History and Development of Gilds*, is the foundation of almost all that has been written on the subject in England subsequently. Many of his conclusions have been disputed by Ochenkowski, *England's Wirthschaftsliche Entwickrlung im Ausgange des Mittelalters*, 1879, and Gross, *Gilda Mercatoria* (Göttingen, 1883). For the earliest English gilds, see Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, i. xi.; Waitz, *Deutsche-Verfassungs Geschichte*, i. 461 seq.; Kemble, *Saxons*, bk. i., ch. ix.; Schmid, *Gesetze der Angelsachsen*, Glossar, s.v. *Gegilda*. For the craft gilds, Stubbs, *Const. Hist.* iii., xxi.; Cunningham, *Growth of Eng. Industry*, bk., iii., ch. ii.; and for their final disappearance, Held, *Zwei Bucher zur Soc. Gesch. Englands.* [See also Gross, *Gild Merchant.*] [W. J. A.]

Gin Act, The (1736), was proposed by Sir Joseph Jekyll, in order to check drunkenness. He advocated a prohibitive duty of 20s. on every gallon sold by retail, and £50 yearly for a licence to every retailer. The measure was disliked by Walpole, who inserted a clause that £70,000 should be granted to the king to compensate him for the consequent diminution of the Civil List. The Act was repealed in 1743; and a new Bill was passed, by which "a small duty per gallon was laid on spirits at the still head, and the price of licences reduced to 20s."

Ginkell. [Athlone.]

Gipsies in England. The gipsies first appeared in England in 1514, and in Scotland rather earlier. In 1531 an Act banished them from England, and in 1541 from Scotland, under pain of death. Henry VIII., as a milder measure, shipped some gipsies to Norway. A statute of 1562 made even intercourse with gipsies felony; and, in 1592, five men were hung at Durham "for being Egyptians." Not till 1783 was the Act of 1592 repealed. In Scotland, there are cases of executions of gipsies, for no other crime than their origin, in 1611 and 1636.

Encyclopædia Britannica, art. "Gipsies."

Giraldus Cambrensis (*b.*1147, *d.*1220) was the literary name of Gerald de Barry, the most famous writer and literary adventurer of his age. Closely connected with the Norman families who had conquered South Wales, the nephew of the conquerors of Ireland, and the granddaughter of Nesta, the "Helen of Wales," Giraldus was born at his father's castle of Manorbier, near Tenby. He was destined for the Church, and was educated at St. David's under the eye of his uncle the bishop. In 1172 Giraldus became Archdeacon of Brecon. He plunged with ardour into a long series of quarrels with his flock; he reformed the irregular payment of tithes; informed against the married clergy, and in 1176 persuaded the chapter of St. David's to make him his uncle's successor to that see. The disfavour of Henry II. annulled the election, and Gerald in disgust went back to his studies at Paris; but for the rest of his life to become Bishop of St. David's was the steady object of his ambition, though his efforts to obtain that end were uniformly fruitless. Appointed administrator of the see by the archbishop in 1184, he was sent to Ireland as chaplain to John, son of Henry II., and, after rejecting Irish bishoprics, and writing his *Topography of Ireland*, returned in 1188 to accompany and chronicle Archbishop Baldwin's crusading itinerary of Wales. He kept about the court till 1192, was again elected to St. David's, and defeated after five years of litigation in 1203, and spent the remainder of his life in the retirement of mortified ambition. As the historian of the *Conquest of Ireland*, and the compiler of the *Itinerary of Wales*, he has given us a more vivid idea of these countries than any other mediæval writer.

The works of Giraldus Cambrensis are printed in the Rolls Series (7 vols.), with introductions by J. S. Brewer. There are lives of Gerald in Jones and Freeman's *History of St. David's*; in vol. i. of Brewer's edition of his works; and by Sir R. C. Hoare, who has translated the *Itinerarium Cambriæ*. [T. F. T.]

Girig (*d.* 896), the son of Dungal, was associated with Eocha, son of Run, in the government of the Pictish kingdom (878–889), and afterwards with Donald, till 896.

He is the hero of many stories, mostly dubious. He is said to have freed his country from the Danes, to have over-run Lothian, and to have subjugated Ireland; while, in consideration of certain privileges conferred on the monks of St. Andrews, he has been called "the Liberator of the Scottish Church."

Skene, *Celtic Scotland.*

Gisors, The Treaty of (1113), between Henry I. and Louis VI. of France, by which Louis resigned his claims of overlordship over Britanny, Belesme, and Maine, and practically gave up William Clito.

Gladstone, William Ewart (*b.* 1809, *d.* 1898), son of Sir J. Gladstone, a Liverpool merchant, was born in that city, and educated at Eton, and Christ Church, Oxford, where he took a double first and a senior studentship. He entered Parliament in 1832 as member for Newark, in the Tory and High Church interest. He soon distinguished himself as an orator. In 1835 Peel made him a Junior Lord of the Treasury. In 1841 he became Vice-President of the Board of Trade and Master of the Mint, an office which he afterwards exchanged for the Colonial Secretaryship. Peel's revised tariff of 1842 was mainly his work. Rejected by Newark for his adhesion to Free Trade, he was returned for Oxford University in 1847. Peel's ministry soon fell, and Mr. Gladstone, like all the other Peelites, atoned for his fidelity to his leader by exclusion from office for several years. They (the Peelites) could hold office neither under Whigs nor Tories. He utilised his leisure in literary activity and in the study of the Italian question, writing, in 1851, his famous letter to Lord Aberdeen on the Naples prisons. In 1852 the hybrid ministry of Lord Aberdeen came into power, and Mr. Gladstone was made Chancellor of the Exchequer. Driven into resignation by Mr. Roebuck's motion, and the disasters of the Crimean War, he strongly opposed the Divorce Bill of 1857, accepted from Lord Derby, in 1858, the post of Lord High Commissioner to the Ionian Islands, and favoured their eventual union with Greece, which was effected in 1864. In 1859 he was again Chancellor of the Exchequer under Lord Palmerston. A series of famous budgets established his reputation as a financier. His now avowed Liberalism led to his rejection at Oxford in 1865, and he was returned for South-west Lancashire. The death of Lord Palmerston was the beginning of more stirring times. Mr. Gladstone now became leader of the House of Commons, and introduced the Reform Bill of 1866, which led to the defeat of the government; but the Irish Church agitation soon brought them back into office. In December, 1868, he became Premier of the ministry which disestablished the Irish Church, passed the first Land Act, reformed the army, and abolished religious tests in the Universities. Resigning in 1874, he was returned for Leeds, and was out of office until 1880. Withdrawing for a time from the leadership of his party, he displayed great literary activity in many directions. He was brought back to politics by the Bulgarian atrocity agitation of 1876, and carried Midlothian in 1879–80. His second administration was largely occupied with Irish affairs. But in 1884 he passed his Franchise Bill, in the next year the Redistribution Bill. In 1885 the Government were defeated upon their Inland Revenue Bill, and resigned. In 1886 Mr. Gladstone returned to power and brought in a Bill for creating a separate Irish Parliament and Executive. The result of this was the fall of the Government, and a large secession from the Liberal party. His fourth administration, formed in 1892, passed a Home Rule Bill through the Commons. In 1895 he withdrew from public life, and was succeeded as Premier by Lord Rosebery. He was buried in Westminster Abbey; and his Life has been written by Mr. John Morley.

Glamorgan Treaty, The. Charles I., in 1644, unable to turn the Cessation to the advantage he had expected, and Ormonde being unwilling to grant more to the Catholics, sent Lord Herbert, son of the Marquis of Worcester, to Ireland, creating him at the same time Earl of Glamorgan. He was entrusted with a commission sealed with the king's private signet, dated March 12th, 1644, at Oxford, authorising him to grant all the Catholics might demand, if they would send over 10,000 men to his aid. Glamorgan arrived at Kilkenny in 1645, and concluded a public and a secret treaty with the Catholics. By the first the demands that a Catholic deputation had made at Oxford in 1644 were granted. These were: the abolition of the Catholic disabilities of Poynings' Law, a general amnesty, and a period of limitation for all inquiries into the titles of land. The secret treaty granted to the Catholics the public exercise of their religion in all churches not actually in possession of the State Church; in return, 10,000 men under Glamorgan were to join the king in England, and two-thirds of the church revenues were to be set aside to provide for their pay. This secret treaty was discovered among the papers of the Catholic Archbishop of Tuam, on his repulse from before Sligo. After this discovery, January 29, 1646, the king sent a message to the two Houses, denying that Glamorgan had any such powers; he wrote to Ormonde in the same strain. There can be no doubt, however, that Glamorgan only fulfilled the king's instructions.

Glanvill, Ranulf de, a famous judge,

statesman, and administrator of Henry II.'s reign. In 1174 he did more than anyone else to save the north from the revolt of feudal barons and the Scottish invasion. He succeeded Richard de Lucy as Justiciar in 1180, and continued in office till Henry's death. Richard I. displaced him from office and kept him in prison until he had paid the enormous fine of £15,000. This was the end of his career. As an author, Glanvill's treatise *De Legibus et Consuetudinibus Angliæ* seems to have been composed about 1181. It is of great importance as the earliest treatise on English law, and throws much light on many reforms of Henry II., of which otherwise we should know very little. It has been printed more than once, and critical extracts are to be found in Stubbs's *Select Charters*.

Glasgow owes its origin to the establishment of a church by Kentigern, the apostle of Strathclyde in the sixth century, which became the seat of a bishopric. The town which grew up round the see was in the domain of the bishop. In 1450 Bishop Turnbull founded the university. In 1491 the see was made an archbishopric. Alone of the Scotch cathedrals the church survived the Reformation. In 1638 a famous General Assembly at Glasgow accepted the Covenant. The Treaty of Union first gave Glasgow importance as a port, by opening to Scotland the colonial trade. Since then the city has rapidly increased. It rivalled Bristol in the tobacco trade, and, when that was diverted by the American War of Independence, Glasgow industry took new channels. At last Glasgow became the great manufacturing centre of Scotland, while the improvement of the Clyde (chiefly since 1844) made it the first port.

Glassites, The, were members of a Scotch sectarian body, that originated about 1730, when its leader, John Glass, was driven from his parish by the General Assembly for a heresy on the kingdom of Christ. Glass taught the "voluntary principle" for the first time in Scotland, and his system of church government was practically congregational. Robert Sandeman, one of Glass's followers, gave another name to the sect and distinguished it by his doctrine of faith as "bare belief of the bare truth." The public worship of this small sect is of a peculiar character.

Glastonbury Abbey is perhaps the only religious foundation in England which has kept up its existence from Roman times. Dismissing the fable of its foundation by Joseph of Arimathæa, we have sufficient evidence that it existed long before Ina's conquest of that region brought it under English sway; it was famed as the burying-place of Arthur, and was much frequented by Irish pilgrims as the tomb of St. Patrick. After Ina's second foundation, Dunstan's famous reformation and introduction of the Benedictine rule is the next great event in the history of the abbey. The church was rebuilt by Dunstan, Herlewin, and Henry II. At the end of the twelfth century there was a long struggle between the Bishop of Bath and the monks, who eventually succeeded in securing the independence of their abbey. It became very rich. Its last abbot, Whiting, was hung by Henry VIII. on the top of Glastonbury Tor.

William of Malmesbury, *De Antiquitatibus Glastonensis Ecclesiæ*, gives the legend of its origin. *Proceedings of Somerset Archæological Society*: Warner, *History of Glastonbury*.

Glencairn, Alexander Cunningham, Earl of, taken prisoner at Solway Moss, was one of the "Assured Lords," but, with the others, he threw over Henry VIII. in 1544. He joined the Protestant alliance against Queen Mary for a time, but was shortly afterwards received back into the royal favour. In 1567 he was named one of the Council of Regency.

Glencairn, William Cunningham, Earl of, received, in 1653, a commission from Charles II. to raise troops in his cause in Scotland. After having collected a force of Highlanders, Glencairn was replaced by General Middleton, who, however, shortly afterwards quitted Scotland, giving place to the original leader.

Glencoe, The Massacre of (Feb. 13, 1692), has left a dark stain on the reign of William III. The civil war continued to smoulder in the Highlands for several years after the death of Dundee. The management of affairs in Scotland was at this time in the hands of the Dalrymples, and Viscount Stair, their head, was President of the Court of Session, while the younger, the Master of Stair, was Secretary for Scotland. A proclamation was issued promising pardon to all who before Dec. 31, 1691, should swear to live peaceably under the existing government. MacIan of Glencoe, who dwelt at the mouth of a ravine near the south shore of Lochleven, deemed it a point of honour to take the oath as late as possible. On the appointed day he went to Fort William, but, finding no magistrate there, he had to go to Inverary, which he did not reach until Jan. 6th. This delay gave his enemies, the Campbells, a pretext for destroying him. Argyle and Breadalbane plotted with the Master of Stair. William was not informed that MacIan had taken the oath at all. An order was laid before him for the commander-in-chief, in which were the words, "It will be proper for the vindication of public justice to extirpate that set of thieves." The excuse usually advanced for William, that he signed the order without reading it, is probably true, but it is at best a lame one. The order was remorse-

lessly executed. A band of soldiers was sent to the glen, where they were hospitably received by the Macdonalds. At last, on a given day, the passes having been stopped by previous arrangement, the soldiers fell upon their entertainers. A failure in the plan led to the escape of many. But the houses were destroyed, the cattle stolen, thirty-eight men killed on the spot, and others perished of want or cold on the mountains.

Macaulay, *Hist. of England.*

Glendower, Owen, or Glyndwr; more accurately, Glyndyfrdwy; called in his own time Owain ap Gruffydd (*b.* 1359?, *d.* 1416?), was reputed a descendant of Llewelyn, the last native prince of Wales. He inherited considerable estates in Merioneth, and, coming to London, entered one of the Inns of Court, and subsequently became squire to Richard II., by whom he was knighted in 1387. In 1399 he was captured with the king at Flint Castle, but permitted to retire to his own estates. Lord Grey of Ruthin, one of the lords marchers, secured some of his lands, and Owen's appeal to the Parliament was disregarded, and Lord Grey received grants of other possessions belonging to him. In 1400 Owen took up arms, and, assuming the title of Prince of Wales, burnt the town of Ruthin, and, bursting into the marches, destroyed Oswestry and captured several forts. The Welsh, whose agrarian grievances were serious, repaired to him in thousands, and the strong Edwardian castles of Conway, Ruthin, and Hawarden soon fell into his hands. He repulsed three formidable armies led against him by Henry IV. in person, and in 1402 was crowned at Machynlleth. Among the prisoners taken by him was Sir Edmund Mortimer, uncle of the young Earl of March, which led him to enter into a treaty with the Mortimers and Percies having for its object the overthrow of Henry. This alliance was dissolved by the battle of Shrewsbury, but Glendower continued the contest; and official record remains of many acts that prove the reality of his power in Wales. He displaced the Bishop of Bangor, and appointed a partisan of his own; and the Bishop of St. Asaph was his ambassador to the French king, with whom he made a treaty in 1404. Receiving aid from France and Scotland, he captured many English towns and castles, and at one time penetrated with his forces as far as Worcester. In perpetual inroads he harried all the marches in a most merciless way. Twice Henry had some success against him, but was unable to effect his subjugation; and several years after, when about to embark on his expedition against France, he endeavoured to enter into an arrangement with him, offering him free pardon twice. But Owen never submitted, and died in 1415, still maintaining his independence. His objects were the political and ecclesiastical independence of Wales, and the revival of learning by the creation of two national universities. In personal character and disinterestedness of aim he contrasts sharply with his contemporaries.

Brougham, *House of Lancaster;* Williams, *Hist. of Wales.*

Glenelg, Charles Grant, Lord (*b.* 1778, *d.* 1866), was the eldest son of Mr. Charles Grant, for many years M.P. for Inverness-shire. He was educated at Magdalen College, Cambridge, and entered Parliament as member for Montrose, 1807. He represented Montrose from 1807 to 1818, and Inverness-shire from that date till 1835. From 1819 to 1822 he was Chief Secretary for Ireland; from 1823 to 1827 Vice-President, and from 1827 to 1828 President, of the Board of Trade. From 1830 to 1834 he was President of the Board of Control, and from 1834 to 1839 Secretary to the Colonies. But the Canadian Rebellion of 1838 was fatal to his reputation. He approved of Lord Durham's famous ordinance, the gist of which was that those of the rebels who had acknowledged their guilt and submitted to the Queen's pleasure were to be sent off to Bermuda, but under constraint, and punished with death if they returned. The ordinance was disallowed; Lord Durham was recalled, and Lord Glenelg retired from public life. He was the last of the Canningites.

Glenfruin, The Battle of (1604), was fought in Dumbartonshire, and resulted in a defeat of the Earl of Argyle and the king's forces by the Macgregors and other clans.

Glenlivet, The Battle of (October 4, 1594), was fought near Aberdeen, between the forces of James VI., commanded by the Earl of Argyle, and the rebellious Earls of Huntly and Errol. The rebels were inferior in numbers, but were well armed and well led, and completely defeated Argyle's troops, losing only one man of note, Gordon of Auchendoun, one of the subscribers of the Spanish Blanks. (q.v.).

Glen Malure, The Battle of (1580), was fought in the Wicklow Mountains. Lord Grey de Wilton here suffered a severe repulse from the Irish septs. Sir Peter Carew, a distinguished officer, was among the slain.

Glenmarreston, The Battle of (Mureston Water, flowing from the Pentland Hills), was fought in 638. Donald Brec, King of Dalriada, was defeated by the Angles.

Gloucester was an old Roman station, deriving its name from the British camp, Caer Gloui. It quickly became a town of the English, for Bede speaks of it as a noble city. In 679 a monastery was founded here, reduced in 1022 by Bishop Wulfstan to the Benedictine rule. It was a frequent seat of Courts and Gemots. In 1541 it was erected into a bishopric by Henry VIII.; and as such was united in 1836 with the see of Bristol, but disunited again in 1897.

Gloucester, Peerage of. Robert, a natural son of Henry I., was created Earl of Gloucester, 1109, on his marriage with Mabel, daughter and heiress of Robert Fitz-Hamon, lord of Gloucester. His son William, who died 1183, transmitted the title to his three daughters: first, through the youngest, Hawise (or Isabel), to her successive husbands, John, afterwards King of England, and Geoffrey Mandeville, Earl of Essex; then to the issue of her eldest sister, Mabel, who married the Count of Evreux; and finally to the second sister, Amicia, who married Gilbert de Clare, Earl of Hereford. Three generations of the De Clares were Earls of Gloucester, until the widow of the last, Johanna, daughter of Edward I., communicated the honour, during her lifetime, to her second husband, Ralph de Monthermer. On his death, in 1307, the earldom descended to her son, Gilbert de Clare, killed at Bannockburn, whose second sister, Margaret, married Hugh of Audley, created Earl of Gloucester in 1337. At the latter's death, ten years later, the title was presumed to be extinct: it was, however, revived in 1397, in favour of Thomas, Lord Despencer, son of the eldest sister of the before-named Margaret. Thomas was, however degraded in 1399, when his honours became forfeit. In the meanwhile, 1385, a dukedom of Gloucester had been created for Thomas of Woodstock, sixth son of Edward III., who was succeeded by his son Humphrey. The latter died childless in 1399. Afterwards three several princes of the blood were created dukes by this title, none of whom left issue; namely (1) Humphrey, son of Henry IV., murdered in 1446; (2) Richard, brother of Edward IV., and afterwards king, and (3) Henry, youngest son of Charles I. There was a plan in 1717—18 of reviving the dukedom in favour of George I.'s grandson, Frederick, afterwards Prince of Wales; but this never took effect. Frederick's younger son, William Henry, however, was created Duke of Gloucester and Edinburgh, in 1764, and the peerage lasted until the death, without issue, of this prince's son, William Frederick, in 1834.

Nicolas, *Historic Peerage*; Clark, *The Land of Morgan* in *Archæological Journal*.

Gloucester, Robert, Earl of (*d.* 1147), natural son of Henry I., was the great supporter of the claims of his half-sister Matilda against Stephen. He married the heiress of Fitz-Hamon, and so added the lordship of Glamorgan to the earldom of Gloucester.

Gloucester, Gilbert de Clare, Earl of (*b.* 1243), son of Earl Richard, threw himself into the party of Leicester, after his father's death in 1262, but soon held aloof; and though fighting with Montfort at Lewes, quarrelled with the king in the course of 1265, joined Prince Edward, and won the battle of Evesham. He kept on good terms with Edward, whose daughter Johanna he married in 1290. His ordinary capacity, however, rendered him unfit for the great position he aspired to occupy.

Gloucester, Richard de Clare, Earl of (*d.* 1262), the leader of the baronial party under Henry III., acted at first in conjunction with, but afterwards in opposition to, Simon de Montfort. Like the more aristocratic party of the baronage, he neither understood nor sympathised with Montfort's far-reaching aims, and never quite forgave his foreign origin.

Gloucester, Gilbert de Clare, Earl of (*d.* 1314), son of Earl Gilbert and Johanna, the daughter of Edward I. He took the side of Gaveston, his brother-in-law, was one of the Lords Ordainers, being elected by co-optation from the royalist side, and endeavoured more than once to prevent civil war. He was slain at Bannockburn. He was the last of his line, and his estates fell to his three sisters, whose husbands' rivalries take up a great place in the history of Edward II.'s reign.

Gloucester, Thomas of Woodstock, Duke of (*b.* 1355, *d.* 1397), was the youngest son of Edward III. He served in the French wars, and on his return to England in 1381 took a leading part in the affairs of state. The unpopularity of John of Gaunt, caused by his abandoning the traditional policy of the house of Lancaster in favour of a court policy, and his subsequent absence from England during his fruitless expeditions to Spain, made Gloucester the natural leader of the constitutional opposition. His chief aim seems to have been his own aggrandisement, though the misgovernment and extravagance of the king gave him sufficient excuse for interfering. The heavy taxation demanded for the expenses of the French war gave Gloucester the opportunity he desired, and in 1386 he threatened the king with deposition unless he consented to the impeachment of his chief minister, De la Pole, and the appointment of a commission of regency. Richard consented for the time, but attempted, directly Parliament was dissolved, to raise a force and assert his independence. But Gloucester was superior in strength, and the king's friends were either executed or obliged to seek safety in flight. Gloucester was the leading spirit in the Merciless Parliament, and practically ruled the kingdom till 1389, when Richard declared himself of age to manage his own affairs, and assumed the government himself. By John of Gaunt's influence a reconciliation was effected between Gloucester and the king, and matters went on smoothly enough—though Gloucester held somewhat aloof from the court—till 1397, when Richard suspected, it is impossible to say whether justly or not, that Gloucester was plotting

against him. The duke was arrested and imprisoned at Calais, where he died, being probably murdered by the king's orders. It is said that before his death he confessed that he had been conspiring against the king.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Wallon, *Richard II.*; Pauli, *Englische Geschichte.*

Gloucester, Humphrey, Duke of (*b.* 1391, *d.* 1447), was the fourth son of Henry IV. He was created Duke of Gloucester in 1414, and took part in the French wars of Henry V.'s reign, being wounded in the battle of Agincourt. On his death-bed Henry appointed him regent of England during his son's minority, but Parliament refused to allow this, and a council of regency was appointed with Bedford as Protector, and in his absence from England, Gloucester. By his reckless folly in marrying Jacqueline of Hainault, and prosecuting her claims in Hainault and Zealand, Gloucester did much to alienate the Duke of Burgundy from the English, while his attempts to gain a foreign principality for himself were fruitless. In 1425, Gloucester's quarrel with Beaufort commenced, which continued with temporary reconciliation during the whole of his lifetime. The bright spot in Gloucester's character was his affection for his brother Bedford, who was frequently able to restrain his folly and recklessness. After Bedford's death, his opposition to Beaufort became more and more violent, Gloucester representing the war party, popular in Parliament and the nation, while Beaufort was the leader of the peace party, which was strongly represented in the Council. It was the old struggle of the court and constitutional parties in another form. The trial and conviction of Eleanor Cobham, his second wife, was a great blow to Gloucester's influence, and this was still further injured when, in 1442, Henry VI. came of age, and the protectorate was at an end. Suffolk supplanted Gloucester as the chief adviser of the crown, and in 1447 Gloucester was accused of treason. The merits of the case it is impossible to decide upon; it is not improbable that Gloucester may have entertained the idea of making himself king, but on this point there is no evidence. At all events, Gloucester was suddenly arrested on Feb. 18, 1447, at Bury St. Edmund's, and placed under arrest, and five days after was found dead in his bed. It is impossible to decide on the cause of his death; it may have arisen from chagrin, or have been the work of some person who hoped thereby to ingratiate himself with the court party, or it may (as popular legend asserted), have been caused by the orders of the Duke of Suffolk. It is certain that there is nothing to connect it with Cardinal Beaufort, and there is a strong reason for believing that it arose from natural causes. As a patron of learning, and a benefactor to the University of Oxford, Gloucester deserves high praise, but his public and private career alike are stained with grievous errors, and his influence on English politics was only mischievous. Still, he was popular with the literary men for his patronage of learning, and with the people for his advocacy of a spirited foreign policy. From these causes he was known as the "good Duke Humphrey."

Stubbs, *Const. History*; Brougham, *House of Lancaster.*

Gloucester, Henry, Duke of (*b.* 1639, *d.* 1660), was the youngest son of Charles I. and Queen Henrietta Maria. From the place of his birth he is often known as Henry of Oatlands. Charles, just before his execution, had an interview with his young son, in which he made him promise not to accept the crown from Parliament to the detriment of his elder brothers. After his father's death he remained in the charge of Parliament till 1652, when he was permitted to join his mother in France, Cromwell being anxious to get rid of one whom many were anxious to proclaim king. The queen exhausted all entreaties and threats to induce him to become a Romanist, but he remained staunch to his religion; and in 1654 left her and joined Charles at Cologne. In 1658 he fought in the Spanish army, and distinguished himself in the battle of Dunkirk. On the Restoration he returned to England, but died of small-pox very shortly afterwards.

Gloucester, William, Duke of (*b.* July 24, 1689, *d.* July 30, 1700), was the son of Prince George of Denmark and Princess (afterwards Queen) Anne. He was informally created duke soon after his birth. The untimely death of the young prince—a boy of great promise—was received with sorrow by the nation. It necessitated the passing of the Act of Settlement.

Gloucester, Eleanor Bohun, Duchess of (*d.* 1399), was the daughter and co-heiress of Humphrey, Earl of Northampton, Hereford, and Essex. She was married to Thomas of Woodstock, Duke of Gloucester, after whose death, in 1397, she retired to the abbey of Barking.

Gloucester, Robert of, is known as the writer of a Chronicle in English verse more interesting from a literary than an historical point of view. It extends from the earliest times to the year 1270, and is mostly a compilation from well-known sources, though it contains original notices here and there. It was printed by Hearne.

Glynne, John (*b.* 1603, *d.* 1666), eldest son of Sir William Glynne, of Carnarvonshire, was educated at Westminster School and at Oxford, attained great reputation as a lawyer, and represented Westminster in the Long Parliament. He was a strong Presbyterian, took a prominent part in the attack on the bishops, helped to draw up the

charge against Laud, and to conduct the trial of Strafford In June, 1647, he was one of the members whose punishment was demanded by the army, and was expelled from Parliament till the summer of 1648, when he was restored, only to be expelled again by Pride's Purge. He sat in both of Cromwell's Parliaments, presided at Penruddocke's trial (1655), and supported the offer of the crown to the Protector. In July, 1655, he became Chief Justice, and held the post till the fall of Richard Cromwell, when he resigned. He assisted in promoting the Restoration, and on the return of Charles II. was made king's serjeant and knighted. He was employed in the prosecution of the regicides, and took part in Vane's trial. Public opinion condemned him as a renegade, and rejoiced in an accident which befell him on the day of the coronation. "Serjeant Glynne's horse," says Pepys, "fell upon him yesterday, and is like to kill him, which people do please themselves to see how just God is to punish the rogue at such a time as this." He died on Nov. 15, 1666, continuing to practice his profession till his death.

Foss, *Judges.*

Godfrey, Sir Edmundbury (*d.* 1678), was a London magistrate, before whom Titus Oates made a deposition concerning the Popish Plot. Some three weeks after this deposition was made, Godfrey was found dead in a ditch near Primrose Hill, with his own sword run through his body, a livid crease round his neck, and his pockets unrifled. It was at once assumed that he had been murdered by Roman Catholics, and Lord Macaulay considers it most probable that he was really murdered by some hot-headed Romanist. Three of the queen's servants were tried for the murder, and executed. The Popish Plot agitation really began in the excitement which Godfrey's murder caused.

Godfrey (Guthred) **MacWilliam** (*d.* 1212), was the son of Donald Bane MacWilliam, and, like his father, attempted, in 1211, to wrest the Scottish crown from William the Lion. The royal troops under the Earls of Athole and Fife achieved various successes, but the rebellion was not crushed until Godfrey was betrayed into the hands of the Earl of Buchan and beheaded at Kincardine (1212).

Godolphin, Sydney, Lord, afterwards Earl (*b.* 1645, *d.* 1712), was educated as a page at Whitehall. He held various offices at the Court of Charles II., including that of Groom of the Bedchamber, and sat in Parliament for Helston. In 1678 he was sent as envoy to Holland, and on his return was sworn of the Privy Council. In 1679 he was placed on the Treasury Commission. In 1680 he supported the Exclusion Bill, and persuaded Charles to dismiss the Duke of York to Scotland before Parliament met. He became Secretary of State in 1684, and in the same year, on the resignation of Rochester, he took his place on the Commission of the Treasury. On the accession of James, he was removed from the Treasury, and made Chamberlain to the queen. In his official capacity he did not scruple to conform to Roman Catholic observances. In 1687, on the fall of the Hydes, he was again placed on the Treasury Commission. He was sent as a commissioner to treat with William. On the accession of William and Mary, the Treasury business was placed in his hands. In 1690 he resigned, but was recalled as First Commissioner against the will of Carmarthen. He had a large share of William's confidence, but, influenced by Marlborough, he intrigued with the Jacobites, especially with Middleton, James's Secretary of State. He was implicated in the confession of Sir John Fenwick; but William, with great magnanimity, ignored the charges brought against him. But the Whigs resolved to drive him from office, and were successful. In 1700 he was recalled to the king's councils; but in the fall of his party, in the last year of William's reign, he was again dismissed. On the accession of Anne he was made Lord Treasurer, through the influence of Marlborough, whose daughter had married Godolphin's eldest son. In 1708, Godolphin, seeing that his attempt at a composite ministry was a failure, determined to join the Whigs. He was compelled to dismiss Harley and the moderate Tories. For the rest of his administration Godolphin was under the rule of the Whig Junto. In 1710, Godolphin agreed to Sunderland's advice, and impeached Sacheverell. The popular outcry proved that the queen and the Tories might venture to upset the ministry. Without consulting him, Shrewsbury was made Lord Chamberlain. Godolphin swallowed the insult; but the dismissal of Sunderland was shortly followed by his own. During the tumult that followed Sacheverell's trial, both he and Marlborough intrigued with the Jacobite court at St. Germains. His character is thus described by Macaulay:—"He was laborious, clear-headed, and profoundly versed in the details of finance. Every government, therefore, found him a useful servant; and there was nothing in his opinions or in his character which could prevent him from serving any government."

Ranke, *Hist. of England*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Stanhope, *Reign of Queen Anne*, and *Hist. of England*; Coxe, *Marlborough.*

Godwin (Godwine), Earl (*b. circa* 990, *d.* 1053), was, according to the most probable account, the son of Wulfnoth, the South Saxon who was outlawed in 1009. Of his early life nothing certain is known, but in 1018 we find him created an earl by Canute, and shortly after marrying the king's niece Gytha. In 1020 he was made Earl of the West Saxons, probably as a reward for his

services in the northern wars of Canute. On the death of that king he espoused the cause of Hardicanute, and on the latter obtaining Wessex Godwin became one of the chief advisers of Emma, who acted as regent. It was at this time that Alfred the son of Ethelred came to England, and was murdered by Harold. It seems impossible in the face of the evidence of contemporary writers to doubt that Godwin betrayed the young Ethelring to Harold, though the accusation of complicity in Alfred's death, which was brought against Godwin in 1040, resulted in the acquittal of the earl, and Godwin continued in power. On the death of Hardicanute in 1042 Godwin was foremost in procuring the election of Edward the Confessor to the throne, and during the early part of the reign of that prince he exercised the chief power in the kingdom. His daughter was married to the king, and his sons promoted to earldoms. During this period (1043—1051) we find Godwin leading the national English party, and strenuously opposing that introduction of foreigners which was the great weakness of Edward's reign. But the Normans were too strong for him; "the appointment of Robert of Jumièges to the archbishopric of Canterbury marks the decline of Godwin's power; the foreign influence was now at its height, and the English earl was to feel the strength of it." The refusal of Godwin to punish the burgesses of Dover for the riot occasioned by the insolence of the followers of Eustace of Boulogne led to the outlawry of Godwin and his family (1051). The next year the tide turned; the feeling of the nation showed itself in favour of Godwin. He came back from his shelter in Flanders at the head of a fleet. In most parts of England he was welcomed; he sailed up the Thames to London; the army gathered by the king refused to fight against him; and he and his family were restored to all their offices and possessions. The next year Godwin was smitten with a fit at the king's table, and died April 15, 1053. Mr. Freeman regards Godwin as the representative of all English feeling, as the leader of every national movement, and as enjoying in consequence an extreme popularity. But he was also a wise and wary statesman, able to practise the baser as well as the nobler arts of statesmanship. His vast wealth suggests a covetous disposition. He promoted his sons without much care for their deserts. But as a strong man and a vigorous ruler he was of the type of which England had at that time the greatest need.

Freeman, *Norman Conquest.*

Goffe (or **Gough**), WILLIAM, was son-in-law to Colonel Whalley, and consequently connected with Cromwell, to whom he was strongly attached. He fought in the Parliamentary army, was one of the members of the High Court of Justice, and signed the warrant for Charles I.'s execution. He accompanied Cromwell to Scotland in 1651, assisted in Pride's Purge, and in clearing out the Barbones Parliament. He was one of the major-generals appointed in 1656, and one of the members of Cromwell's House of Lords. He was one of the few officers in favour of Cromwell's assuming the title of king, and attached himself subsequently to Richard Cromwell. On the Restoration he fled with Whalley to America, where he remained during the rest of his life.

Golab Singh, originally a running footman, attracted the attention of Runjeet Singh and rose to favour. He was given the territory of Juminoo, lying between Lahore and Cashmere. As a Rajpoot, he was detested by the Sikhs. On the death of Runjeet Singh, 1839, he aimed at becoming supreme in Cashmere, and even engaged in a war with Thibet. At the end of the first Sikh war the principality of Cashmere was sold to him by the English (1840). A formidable opposition was organised against him, which was with difficulty suppressed by Major Henry Lawrence. "The arrangement," says Mr. Cunningham, "was a dexterous one, if reference be had only to the policy of reducing the power of the Sikhs; but the transaction seems hardly worthy of the British name and greatness."

Cunningham, *Hist. of Sikhs.*

Gold Coast Colony. [WEST AFRICAN COLONIES AND SETTLEMENTS.]

Goodman, CARDELL, was a Jacobite adventurer in the reign of William III. He had been an actor, a paramour of the Duchess of Cleveland, two of whose children he had attempted to poison, and a forger of bank notes. In 1695 he was confined to gaol for raising a Jacobite riot in London, in conjunction with Porter. He was one of the conspirators in the Assassination Plot, and as his evidence could procure the conviction of Sir John Fenwick, efforts were made to get him out of the country. An adventurer named O'Brien met him in a tavern in Drury Lane, and persuaded him to go abroad by offering him an annuity of £500. This he accepted, and arrived safely at St. Germains.

Good Parliament, THE (1376), gained its title from the beneficent measures it passed and its bold attitude in reforming abuses. Edward III., old before his time, was entirely under the influence of a worthless woman, Alice Perrers, through whose means John of Gaunt contrived to appropriate to himself the whole of the royal authority, and to appoint his own creatures to all the great offices of state. The Parliament which met in 1376, after an interval of three years, determined to do away with this state of things, and in this resolution they were strongly supported by the

Black Prince. Peter de la Mare was chosen Speaker, and he at once demanded that the national accounts should be audited, and that trustworthy counsellors and ministers should be appointed. The Commons next proceeded to accuse certain persons—of whom the chief were Lord Latimer and Richard Lyons—of malversation and fraud, and they were condemned to imprisonment and forfeiture. This is the first instance of impeachment. Alice Perrers was next attacked, and it was ordered that henceforward no woman should interfere in the administration of justice, on pain of forfeiture. The Black Prince having died in the meantime, the Parliament demanded that his son Richard should be brought before them, that they might see the heir to the throne. This, which was intended to checkmate John of Gaunt, who was supposed to be aspiring to the throne, was forthwith done. The Commons also proposed that an administrative council should be appointed, some of whom were always to be in attendance on the king; this, with certain modifications, was agreed to. But besides these acts, they presented to the king no less than a hundred and forty petitions on various subjects, of which the most important were that Parliaments might be held annually; that the knights of the shire should be freely elected, not merely nominated by the sheriff; the sheriffs should be elected, and not appointed at the Exchequer; the law courts should be reformed; the abuse of Papal provisions, &c., should be removed. The work of the Good Parliament could be carried out only under the leadership of some powerful personage, such as the Black Prince. Now that he was dead, the power passed once more into the hands of John of Gaunt, who immediately undid the work of the Parliament. Not one of the petitions became a statute. Alice Perrers regained her place and influence at court, Lyons and other offenders were pardoned, Peter de la Mare was sent to prison, and the new members of the Council were dismissed. But though the work of the Good Parliament was for the time rendered nugatory, the year 1376 forms, nevertheless, an important epoch in the history of Parliament. The responsibility of ministers, the rights of impeachment and of inquiry into grievances and abuses, were established, and were destined to receive extension and confirmation in the next reign.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Longman, *Edward III.*

Goodrich, Thomas, Lord Chancellor of England (*d.* 1554), made Bishop of Ely by Henry VIII., was a staunch supporter of the Reformation. In December, 1551, he succeeded Sir Richard Rich as Lord Chancellor, and in that capacity was induced, after much solicitation, to set the Great Seal to the patent altering the succession in favour of Lady Jane Grey. He continued to support Northumberland until he saw that the cause was lost, when he at once resigned his office and retired to his diocese, where, says Lord Campbell, "partly from his sacred character and partly from his real insignificance, he was not molested."

Campbell, *Lives of the Chancellors*; Foss, *Judges of England.*

Goorkha War (1814 — 1816). The Goorkhas had encroached continually on the British frontier, and at last laid claim to two districts, Bootwul and Sheoraj, which they had seized, though they had been ceded to Lord Wellesley in the year 1801 by the Nabob. Lord Minto remonstrated with them, and on their refusal to retire, Lord Hastings, his successor, ordered their expulsion. Money was obtained from the Vizier, and four armies were prepared, comprising 30,000 men, with 60 guns. The Goorkhas were divided into three; one-third, under Umur Singh, guarded the fortresses on the Sutlej; two thousand were distributed between the Jumna and Kalee; the rest protected the capital. The English at first met with nothing but disaster. Kalunga was taken with great loss, and the Dhoon valley occupied, but the fortress of Jyetuk stopped the advance of the division altogether. The divisions of Generals Wood and Marley failed entirely, the one to capture Jeetgurh, the other to reach the capital. These disasters were somewhat retrieved by the brilliant success of General Ochterlony, who was entrusted with the difficult task of dislodging Umur Singh from the forts on the Upper Sutlej. After an extremely arduous campaign he succeeded in confining Umur Singh to the fortress of Malown, and in finally compelling him to make terms, which included the surrender of the fortress of Malown and all conquests west of the Kalee. This was facilitated by the operations of Colonels Gardner and Nicolls, who, with a body of irregular horse and 2,000 regulars, had cleared the province of Kumaon, and captured its capital, Almorah, thus isolating Umur Singh from Nepaul and Khatmandu. The discomfiture of their ablest general and loss of their most valuable conquests, induced the Nepaulese government to sue for peace. The conditions proposed by Lord Hastings were that they should resign all claims on the hill rajahs west of the Kalee, cede the Terrai, restore the territory of Sikkim, and receive a British Resident. The treaty was agreed to on December 2, 1816, but the influence of Umur Singh and the other chiefs induced the Goorkha government to break it, and it required another campaign under Sir David Ochterlony, and a complete rout at Mukwanpore, before peace was finally concluded, March 2, 1816.

Malcolm, *Polit. Hist. of India*; Wilson, *Hist. of India*; Thornton, *British Empire in India.*

Gordon, Chas. Geo. (*b.* 28th Jan., 1833, *d.* 26th Jan., 1885), received his commission in the Royal Engineers in 1852, and saw service in the Crimea. In 1862, as commander of the Ever-Victorious Army, he suppressed the formidable Tai-ping rebellion in China. In 1874 he was appointed governor of the tribes in the Soudan by the Khedive of Egypt, and signalised his two years of office by putting down the slave trade, an object to which he again addressed himself when, in 1877, he became Governor-General of the Soudan and the Equatorial Provinces. In 1882 he was appointed commander-in-chief of the Cape forces; and in 1884 was sent to Khartoum to bring away from the Soudan several garrisons that were hemmed in by the followers of the Mahdi. He was, however, himself shot in the city of Khartoum, and the *avant couriers* of the relief expedition arrived only to find that the city had fallen, and that its heroic defender was slain (Feb. 26, 1885). His saintliness and fearlessness and strange influence over men make him one of the most striking figures in modern history.

Gordon, The Family of. The origin of this great Scottish house is extremely obscure. The first prominent bearer of the name was Sir Adam Gordon, Justiciar of Lothian under Edward I. (1305). His adhesion to Bruce gave him estates in the north that transferred the chief seat of the house from the Merse to Deeside and the Spey valley. The direct male line died out in 1402; but from his female and illegitimate descendants a large circle of Gordons sprang up. His grandson was made Earl of Huntly (1445), a peerage which, elevated to a marquisate in 1599, and a dukedom (of Gordon) in 1684, became extinct in 1836. But the title of Marquis of Huntly passed to another branch of the family, who had acquired the title of Viscount Melgund and Aboyne in the year 1627, and Earl of Aboyne in 1660. Other peerages in the family were—the earldom of Sutherland (1512), the barony of Lochinvar and viscounty of Kenmure (1633)—in abeyance since 1847—and the earldom of Aberdeen (1682), belonging to a collateral branch traceable from the fifteenth century.

Gordon, *Genealogical Hist. of the House of Gordon.*

Gordon, Lady Catherine, was a daughter of the Earl of Huntly, and, on her mother's side, a cousin of James IV., by whom she was married to Perkin Warbeck. Taken prisoner by Henry VII., with her husband, she became an attendant to his queen, and afterwards married Sir M. Cradock.

Gordon, Sir John (*d.* 1562), was the fourth son of the fourth Earl of Huntly. He was one of the numerous suitors of Mary Queen of Scots, whose favour, however, he lost on the occasion of a brawl in the streets of Edinburgh. He was beheaded at Aberdeen for treason in 1562.

Gordon Riots, The (June, 1780), were the most formidable popular rising of the eighteenth century. In 1778 a bill, brought in by Sir George Savile and Dunning, for the relaxation of some of the harsher penal laws against Catholics, passed almost unanimously through both Houses. Protestant associations were formed in Scotland; a leader was found in Lord George Gordon, a son of the Duke of Gordon, a silly young man of twenty-eight years of age; and the agitation spread to England. On June 2nd, 1780, a body of 50,000 persons met in St. George's Fields to petition for the repeal of the Catholic Relief Act. The mob forced their way into the lobby of the House, and, continually encouraged by Lord George Gordon, prevented the conduct of business. The House adjourned till Tuesday the 6th. The mob dispersed; but only to begin their work of destruction by demolishing the chapels of the Sardinian and Bavarian ministers. In the evening of the next day the mob renewed their ravages in Moorfields. On Sunday, the 4th, they proceeded to worse extremities. The next day the mob attacked the house of Sir George Savile, which was carried and pillaged. The alarm spread. Burke had to leave his own house and take refuge with General Burgoyne; and Lord George Gordon himself saw that the riots were proceeding too violently, and disavowed his old friends. On the 6th the Houses met after their adjournment. A motion was passed that the petitions should be considered "as soon as the tumults subside which are now subsisting." On the very same evening, one detachment of the rioters broke open Newgate and released the prisoners; others were meanwhile releasing, in the same violent way, the malefactors at Clerkenwell. Towards midnight the rioters burnt Lord Mansfield's house in Bloomsbury Square, with its priceless library, the occupants barely escaping. The magistrates did not venture to read the Riot Act; and the Guards would not act until this formality had been gone through. On the 7th the king called a Council, and showed, as usual, that where courage was required he would not be wanting. The cabinet wavered on the right of the troops to interfere until the Riot Act had been read; but the Attorney-General, Wedderburn, disposed of this difficulty, and the king insisted on prompt action. A proclamation was issued, warning all householders to close their houses and keep within doors; and orders were given to the military to act without waiting for directions from the civil magistrates. Soldiers everywhere drove the rioters before them; but in some cases it was necessary to resort to the use of musketry. The returns sent in show that 200 persons were shot dead, while 250 more were lying wounded in the hospitals, and still more were no doubt carried away and concealed by their friends. On Thursday morning the plunder and conflagrations were completely at an end. One

hundred and thirty-five of the rioters were arrested; twenty-one were executed. Lord George Gordon subsequently became a convert to Judaism, and died in Newgate in 1793, having been convicted for libel in 1787.

Stanhope, *Hist.*, vii., c. 61; *Ann. Reg.*, 1780, pp. 190, *et seq.*; Burke, *Epistolary Correspondence*, ii. 350, *et seq.*; *Plain and Succinct Narrative of William Vincent*, 1780. [W. R. S.]

Gorges, Sir Ferdinando, was one of the supporters of Essex in his rebellion of 1601. He saved his life by releasing the ministers whom the earl had taken prisoner, and by appearing as a witness at the trial. He died in 1647.

Goring, George, Lord, afterwards Earl of Norwich, a Royalist partisan who betrayed the Army Plot to Pym, but who got command of Portsmouth, which he held valiantly for Charles I. Afterwards he commanded the Royalist army in the south-west, and attempted to capture Taunton. He joined the second Civil War, and on the capture of Colchester was tried and found guilty by resolution of the House of Commons, but saved from execution by the casting vote of the Speaker.

Gorsipred, or compaternity, is a widespread custom amongst the Irish. The extremely strong feelings of attachment arising from it were among the most powerful agents in completely denationalising the Norman invaders. The Statute of Kilkenny, 1367, made it high treason to enter into this relation of godfather with natives, but exemptions were very often granted.

Davis, *Discovery*; Froude, *English in Ireland.*

Gorst, The Right Hon. Sir John Eldon (*b.* 1835), after a distinguished career at Cambridge was for a time (1861-63) Civil Commissioner of Waikato, New Zealand. Called to the Bar at the Inner Temple in 1865, he took silk in 1875, and in 1885 was appointed Solicitor-General. In 1886 he became Under-Secretary for India, and in 1890 was sworn of the Privy Council. He was Financial Secretary to the Treasury in 1891–92; in 1895 he accepted the Vice-Presidency of the Council, which post he vacated in 1902 on retiring from the Board of Education.

Goschen, George Joachim, first Viscount (*b.* 1831, *d.* 1907), was educated at Rugby and Oriel College, Oxford. Elected one of the members for the City of London in 1863, he became Vice-President of the Board of Trade in 1865, and in 1866 entered the Cabinet as Chancellor of the Duchy. In 1868 he was appointed President of the Board of Trade, and in 1871 First Lord of the Admiralty. In 1880–81, as Ambassador-Extraordinary to the Porte, he effected the settlement of the Greek and Montenegrin frontier questions. His tenure of the office of Chancellor of the Exchequer (1887–92) was signalised by a measure for the conversion of the National Debt. From 1895–1900 he was First Lord of the Admiralty. In 1900 he retired, being raised to the peerage as Lord Goschen of Hawkhurst, in Kent.

Gough, Hugh, Viscount (*b.* 1779, *d.* 1869), entered the army, and distinguished himself on many occasions during the Peninsular War. In 1837 he commanded the English army in the Chinese War, and achieved the capture of Canton. For his services he was created a baronet. In 1843 he was appointed commander-in-chief in India. He commanded during the first Sikh War, and for his services was created Baron Gough. He also commanded during the second Sikh War, and his crowning victory of Guzerat was rewarded with a viscounty.

Goulburn, Henry (*b.* 1784, *d.* 1856), was elected member for Horsham in 1807; in 1810 he was made Under-Secretary of State for the Home Department. At the general election of 1812 he was elected for St. Germans. From 1812–21 he was appointed Under-Secretary of State for the Colonies. He accepted the post of Chief Secretary for Ireland in 1821, and held that office until 1828, when he became Chancellor of the Exchequer. He went out of office in 1830, was elected member for Oxford University in 1831, and in December, 1834, was appointed Home Secretary. In 1839 he was proposed as Speaker of the House of Commons, but the Whigs carried Mr. Shaw Lefevre. In 1841 he was again Chancellor of Exchequer. He retired with Sir R. Peel in 1846, and from that time took no very active part in politics.

Gowrie, William, Earl of (Lord Ruthven), *d.* 1584, was the leader in the Raid of Ruthven, for which act of violence he obtained an indemnity, 1582. On the defeat of his party, 1583, he was induced by false promises of pardon to write a letter to the king confessing his guilt. On this evidence he was executed at Stirling, May, 1584.

Gowrie, The Earl of, the son of the preceding, joined with his brother in the Gowrie Conspiracy, 1600, to kidnap King James VI.; in the struggle which ensued he was killed by Sir Thomas Erskine, a retainer of the king. He was Provost of Perth, and very popular with the citizens, who threatened to make the "king's green coat pay for their provost."

Gowrie Conspiracy, The (1600), is a name given to a somewhat mysterious affair which happened during the reign of James VI. of Scotland. On August 5, 1600, while the king was hunting in Falkland Park in Fifeshire he was met by Alexander Ruthven (brother of the Earl of Gowrie) who invited him to Gowrie House near Perth, saying that he had caught a Jesuit with a large sum of money in his possession. James being in

need of money accepted the invitation, and after dinner went with Alexander Ruthven alone. to interrogate the captive. Instead of a prisoner, however, he found an armed retainer of the earl, named Henderson; Ruthven at once told the king he was a prisoner, reminding him of his father's (Lord Gowrie) execution in 1584. James, however, managed to raise an alarm in spite of Ruthven's efforts to stab him, and his attendants hastened to his assistance. Sir John Ramsay, his page, forced his way up a stair to the turret where the struggle was going on, and stabbed Ruthven twice; the conspirator, and his brother, Lord Gowrie, being subsequently despatched by Sir Thomas Erskine and Sir Hugh Herries. The king had considerable difficulty in escaping from Gowrie House, as the citizens of Perth, with whom Gowrie was very popular, wished to put him to death. It was said at the time by the king's enemies that the whole affair had been arranged by James, who wished to get rid of the Ruthvens, but subsequent evidence proved that there had been a conspiracy between Lord Gowrie, his brother and Robert Logan, to seize or kill the king. It is said that Elizabeth was privy to the scheme.

Burton, *History of Scotland.*

Grace, The Act of (May 20, 1690), was issued by William III., and as such was received with peculiar marks of respect, and read only once in the Lords and once in the Commons. It excepted from its operations the survivors of the High Court of Justice which had sat on Charles I., and his two nameless executioners. "With these exceptions, all political offences committed before the day on which the royal signature was affixed to the Act, were covered in general oblivion." This Act was opposed by the more violent Whigs because, they said, it had completely refuted his declaration; but it is, as Macaulay remarks, "one of his noblest and purest titles to renown."

Statutes of the Realm; Burnet, *Hist. of His Own Time*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*

Graces, The. In 1628, the government of Ireland being greatly embarrassed by James I.'s prodigality, an arrangement was concluded, by which, in return for the Voluntary Aids, Lord Falkland, as Lord Deputy, granted, in the king's name, some fifty-one "graces" or concessions. The most important were: (1) Recusants to be allowed to practice in courts of law, and to sue for livery of their lands in the Court of Wards, on taking the oath of allegiance only; (2) the claims of the crown to land to be limited by a prescription of sixty years; (3) inhabitants of Connaught to be permitted to make a new enrolment of their title-deeds; (4) a Parliament to be held at once to confirm these "graces." A Parliament was indeed held, but being called by Lord Falkland in defiance of Poynings' Law, its acts were considered null and void by the English Council. In 1634 Strafford, Falkland's successor, promised, if Parliament voted a subsidy in its first session, to hold a second one for considering the "graces." He broke his promise and declared that the most important could not be conceded. When the system of "Thorough" broke down in England, a deputation went over to England and got all its requests granted by Charles I., 1641, but of course the Parliament was not bound thereby.

Strafford Papers; Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng.*, *1603—1642.*

Grafton, Augustus Henry, 3rd Duke of (*b.* 1735, *d.* 1811), son of the second duke, after being educated at Westminster and Peterhouse, Cambridge, succeeded his father at the age of 22. He attached himself to the Whigs, and was one of the three peers who, for their independence in censuring Bute's peace with France in 1763, were dismissed from their lord-lieutenancies. When the Marquis of Rockingham came into office in 1765, the duke was appointed one of the Secretaries of State, but resigned in the following May, having become a disciple of Pitt. When the ministry resigned a few months later, the duke was appointed First Lord of the Treasury, while Pitt nominally received for himself the Privy Seal only, but was in fact Prime Minister. The duke did, however, become really Premier, when Chatham fell ill and retired from active business; and so he continued until January, 1770, when he retired and made way for Lord North, after being outvoted in his own cabinet. On the retirement of Lord Weymouth, and the death of Lord Halifax, the duke "was induced to accept the Privy Seal, but, with a kind of proud humility, refused a seat in the cabinet of Lord North;" but in October, 1775, as he could not convince his colleagues of the need of conciliating America, he resigned. He then joined his old leader, Lord Chatham, in his protests against the policy of the government in America. The duke remained in opposition during the remainder of Lord North's tenure of office. He was appointed Privy Seal when Lord Rockingham took office in 1782. On the succession of Shelburne to the premiership, he did not resign, but distrusted the new Premier. Soon after this he retired from politics to the quiet enjoyment of field sports, which had always occupied most of his thoughts. Eventually he became a Unitarian and wrote in favour of revising the Liturgy. He is best known to posterity from the striking though exaggerated picture drawn of him by the powerful pen of "Junius," whose chief victim he was. A man of promise and ability, endowed with fortune and high position, upright and disinterested in his public conduct, the Duke of Grafton was yet a failure. He was wanting in application, and was both vacillating and obstinate. The

conspicuous manner, too, in which he paraded his personal immorality gave offence even to his lax age.

Grafton, *Memoirs*; *Chatham Correspondence*; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; Jesse, *Mem. of Geo. III.*; Junius, *Letters*; the Duke's autobiography and correspondence, ed. by Sir W. Anson.

Graham, Sir James Robert George (*b* 1792, *d.* 1861), son of Sir James Graham, of Netherby, entered Parliament in 1818 for Hull. In 1824 he succeeded to the baronetcy, and being returned in 1826 for Carlisle, soon became prominent on the Whig side. On the formation of Earl Grey's ministry, he was made First Lord of the Admiralty. In 1834 he retired from Lord Grey's cabinet owing to the dissensions in it about the Irish Church question, and with a small party of friends formed an intermediate party known by the sportive title of the "Derby Dilly" (q.v.). In 1841 he accepted office under Sir Robert Peel, as Home Secretary. He was exposed to an attack of extraordinary bitterness in consequence of his ordering the correspondence of Mazzini to be opened at the Post Office (1844). The way in which he dealt with the question of the Scotch Church, and at the crisis of the Disruption, produced a most exasperated feeling against him in Scotland. He supported Peel during the crisis produced by the repeal of the Corn Laws; and in 1852 he was appointed, by Lord Aberdeen, First Lord of the Admiralty. Sir James incurred in this more unpopularity than in any former tenure of office. He underrated both the charges and responsibilities of the war. Sir Charles Napier's failure in the Baltic and quarrel with the Admiralty damaged Graham's reputation, and he resigned.

Graham, John of Claverhouse, Viscount Dundee (*d.* 1689), was the captain in a troop of horse employed in coercing the Covenanters and Cameronians in the latter part of Charles II.'s reign, and that of his successor. His cruelty made him specially hateful to the rebels. He was defeated by the Cameronians at Drumclog (June, 1679), but subsequently had a large share in Monmouth's victory over them at Bothwell Bridge, a few days later. In 1688 he was made a peer. Claverhouse was at the head of the opposition to William III.'s accession in Scotland, and after vainly trying to interrupt the work of the Convention of Estates, he retired to the Highlands and raised a body of troops there for King James. On June 17, 1689, he defeated Mackay at the pass of Killiecrankie, but was himself killed in the battle.

Graham, Sir Robert, was the uncle of Malise Graham, Earl of Strathern, and the chief conspirator against James I. On Feb. 20, 1436–7, he led a band of 300 men to the abbey of Black Friars, at Perth, where the king was residing, and slew him with his own hand. The indignation aroused by this crime was so great, that all the conspirators were speedily brought to justice, Sir Robert Graham being tortured to death at Stirling.

Grammont, Philibert, Comte de (*b.* 1621, *d.* 1707), a French noble, was for a long time one of the most brilliant and characteristic members of the court of Charles II., and his memoirs, which have been written by his brother-in-law, Anthony Hamilton, give a lively picture of the licence allowed by that monarch amongst his courtiers. [Hamilton].

Granby, John Manners, Marquis of *b.* 1721, *d.* 1770), British general, was the eldest son of the third Duke of Rutland. In 1759 he went to Germany as second in command to Lord George Sackville. After the battle of Minden, for his conduct in which he was thanked, he was made commander-in-chief, and greatly distinguished himself.

Grand Alliance, The, was the name given to the alliance between England, Holland, and the Empire, concluded at the Hague, Sept. 7, 1701. The treaty declared the desirability of compensating the Emperor for the loss of Spain, and of providing for the security of England and Holland. As, however, William could not at the moment be sure of energetic support in England, he pledged himself, in case the overtures of the allies were rejected by France, only to attempt to conquer Milan for Austria, and the barrier fortresses for Holland. The alliance was afterwards joined by Prussia, Jan. 20, 1702; by Portugal, May, 16, 1703; and by Savoy, Oct. 25, 1703; and its object became the conquest of all the Spanish Empire, and especially of Spain itself. [Partition Treaties; Spanish Succession, War of.]

Grantham, The Fight of (March, 1643), was the result of an invasion of Lincolnshire by a Royalist force under Charles Cavendish. They took Grantham, a garrison of the Association, with 300 prisoners, arms and ammunition.

Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion.*

Granville, George Leveson Gower, Earl (*b.* 1815, *d.* 1891), was first elected M.P. in 1836. In 1840 he became Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs. He acted on Liberal principles, and was a consistent supporter of Free Trade. In 1846 he succeeded to the peerage. In 1848 he was appointed Vice-President of the Board of Trade; in 1851 obtained a seat in the cabinet, and in December of that year succeeded Lord Palmerston as Foreign Secretary, retiring with the Russell ministry in 1852. He was appointed President of the Council in 1853, and in 1855 undertook the leadership of the House of Lords. He was re-appointed President of the Council in 1859 in Lord Palmerston's second ministry. In December, 1868, he accepted office under Mr. Gladstone as Colonial Secretary, and re-

tained that position till July, 1870, when he succeeded the Earl of Clarendon as Secretary for Foreign Affairs, which position he occupied till 1874. He became Foreign Secretary again on the accession of the Liberal party to power in 1880, and Colonial Secretary in 1886.

Granville, John Carteret, Earl (1690–1763), eldest son of George, Lord Carteret, early distinguished himself in the House of Lords by his defence of Whig doctrines and the Revolution settlement. In 1719 he was sent as ambassador to Sweden. In 1721 he was made Secretary of State, and in 1724 Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, which office he filled with great success. In 1730 he returned and became one of the most formidable opponents of Walpole. On the fall of that minister he became Secretary of State (Feb., 1742). He, however, resigned office in 1744 (Nov. 23). He unsuccessfully attempted to form a ministry in company with Lord Bath in 1746. He succeeded to the earldom of Granville in 1744, and was appointed President of the Council in 1751. Granville was a man of brilliant genius, and an accomplished scholar; but he was somewhat deficient in steadiness of purpose and judgment.

Grattan, Henry (*b.* 1746, *d.* 1820), was born in Dublin, and educated at Trinity College. In 1772 he was called to the Irish bar; but practice did not flow in, and, in 1775, he was raised to a more congenial sphere by his return to Parliament for Charlemont. He at once joined the Opposition, and acquired almost unprecedented popularity by drawing up the Irish Declaration of Rights. He was the leading orator of the party whose success secured the repeal of Poynings' Act and the legislative independence of Ireland. In 1785 it was proposed that "the Irish legislature should from time to time adopt all such Acts of the British Parliament as related to commerce." The popularity of Flood for a time had almost eclipsed Grattan's, but his successful opposition to this measure quite restored him to extreme popularity. In 1790 he was elected to represent the city of Dublin. During the unhappy period between 1790 and 1800, Grattan urged the government to adopt a conciliatory policy, and he was strongly in favour of granting the claims of the Catholics. On the question of the Union, he held consistently to his old wish to see Ireland independent, and consequently did his utmost to prevent the passing of that measure. It was of no avail; and, in 1805, he was returned to the British Parliament as M.P. for Malton, and he afterwards represented his old constituents of Dublin. His oratory was as brilliant as ever, but his views had become more moderate; and he did not escape the suspicion of having abandoned his old patriotism under the influence of flattery from high quarters. The suspicion was groundless. His old ideal of an independent Ireland had been swept away by the Union, in spite of his strenuous resistance; but the policy which held the next place in his heart—Catholic Emancipation—seems to have become a more and more engrossing passion, and he never ceased during the time when he sat in the English Parliament to advocate that measure. On June 4, 1820, he died in London. "Mr. Grattan's," said Sir James Mackintosh, in proposing a public funeral, "was a case without alloy; the purity of his life was the brightness of his glory. He was as eminent in his observance of all the duties of private life as he was heroic in the discharge of his public ones."

Grattan's *Life*, by his son; Plowden, *History of Ireland*; Froude, *English in Ireland*; Cunningham, *Eminent Englishmen*; May, *Const. Hist.*

Gravelines, The Battle of (1558), resulted in a victory for Count Egmont and the Imperial forces over the French. The English navy, under Lord Clinton, had some share in it, and thus wiped out in some degree the disgrace of the loss of Calais.

Graves, Thomas, Lord (*b.* 1725, *d.* 1802), served successively as Governor of Newfoundland and rear-admiral in command of the American station (1780). He brought De Grasse to a partial engagement in September, 1781. In the naval engagement off Ushant (June 1, 1794) he was second in command to Lord Howe, and was rewarded with an Irish peerage and a pension.

Allen, *Naval Battles*; James, *Naval Hist.*

Gray, Patrick (the Master of Gray), was educated in France, whence he returned to Scotland (1581), and speedily became a favourite of James VI. He was sent on a mission to Elizabeth, to whom he is said to have revealed many of the secrets of Mary Queen of Scots; and while at the English court concerted measures for the ruin of Arran, which he accomplished on his return to Scotland (1585). In the following year he was sent, in company with Sir Robert Melville, to intercede for Queen Mary, whose cause, however, he is not likely to have aided by the private intimation which he is said to have given to Elizabeth that James was, in reality, in no way averse to his mother's execution.

Gray, or **Grey,** John de (*d.* 1214), was one of King John's ministers. In 1200 the king gave him the bishopric of Norwich, and in 1205 John caused him to be elected Archbishop of Canterbury. But the Pope refused to confirm the election, and appointed Stephen Langton in his stead. In 1210 he was appointed Lord Deputy of Ireland, an office which he held till 1213. In 1214 he was sent to Rome on an embassy to the Pope, and while returning to England died at Poictiers.

Gray, or **Grey,** Walter de (*d.* 1255), was the nephew of John de Grey. He

was Chancellor from 1205 to 1213, in which latter year, while on a mission to Flanders, he was superseded by Peter des Roches, but reinstated in 1214. During John's struggle with the barons, he supported the king, who rewarded him with the archbishopric of York. He devoted himself to the administration of his see, and we only meet with him once more, in 1242, when he was appointed regent during Henry III.'s absence in France.

Great Britain, a name originally applied to the whole island of Britain, to distinguish it from Britannia Minor, or Britanny, and often used in poetry or exalted prose, but never for official purposes until after the accession of James I. The Lords of the Congregation, in 1559, had suggested the union of the two kingdoms under this name, and now James was to realise their aspiration. James's assumption of the title of King of Great Britain meant that he claimed, like the Old-English monarchs, to be lord of the whole island, and not merely king of both halves separately. Much opposition was made to this title in Parliament, and the judges declared it illegal. But in 1604 James definitely styled himself King of Great Britain on his coins. [UNITED KINGDOM.]

Spedding, *Life of Bacon.*

Great Charter. [MAGNA CARTA.]

Great Rebellion. [REBELLION.]

Greece, RELATIONS WITH. The Greek insurrection began in 1821, and, after a long struggle, it seemed impossible for the insurgents to win their independence. A wave of Hellenic enthusiasm ran through England. Volunteers from all parts of England joined the Greek cause. In 1824 Byron perished at Missolonghi. In 1826 Lord Cochrane was made admiral, and Sir Richard Church general, of the Greek forces; but in 1827 the Turks reconquered Athens despite their efforts. Canning had reclaimed England from the policy of the Holy Alliance, and the battle of Navarino, though brought about by accident, was not necessarily opposed to his policy. But the Wellington ministry repudiated the action, and left it to the Russian invasion of 1829 to practically win Greek independence. As one of the protecting powers England found Greece a king and continued to watch over its interests, but forced on it, in 1832, the narrow boundaries into which, until recently, it was confined. The Pacifico and Finlay affairs for a time led to strained relations; yet, in 1862 Prince Alfred was elected king on the expulsion of Otto, but the self-denying bond of the protecting Powers made it impossible for him to assume the throne, and England recommended Prince William of Holstein, who became George I. In 1863 England handed over the Ionian Islands to the Hellenic kingdom; and more recently has secured the extension of its boundary at the expense of Turkey. [For earlier dealings see TURKEY, RELATIONS WITH.]

Finlay, *Hist. of Greece*; Gervinus, *Geschichte des Neunzehnten Jahrhunderts*; L. Sargeant, *New Greece.*

[T. F. T.]

Green, JOHN RICHARD (*b.* 1837, *d.* 1883), was educated at Jesus College, Oxford. Besides various papers, he wrote *A Short History of the English People*, which was afterwards republished and enlarged as *A History of the English People*; *The Making of England*; *The Conquest of England*, etc.

Green, SIR HENRY (*d.* 1399), was one of Richard II.'s ministers in the latter years of his reign. He seems to have been extremely unpopular on account of his extortion of money by illegal means, and on the landing of Bolingbroke was put to death.

Green Cloth, THE BOARD OF. A Board attached to the royal household, presided over by the Lord Steward. It had power to punish offenders within the precincts of the palace, and issued the warrants which were necessary before a servant of the household could be arrested for debt.

Greenwich was the seat of a royal palace much occupied by the Tudor princes, and pulled down after the Restoration. The site was assigned by William III. for the great hospital for retired seamen he there founded. Since 1869 the building has been devoted to the Royal Naval College.

Greenwood, JOHN (*d.* 1593), a prominent Barrowist, was tried on a charge of promulgating seditious and schismatical opinions, and executed in 1593.

Gregg, WILLIAM (*d.* 1708), was clerk in the office of Harley, Queen Anne's Secretary of State. He was first employed by that minister as a spy. In the course of the years 1707 and 1708 he was engaged in a treasonable correspondence with M. de Chamillart, the French Secretary of State. He slipped his letters into those of Marshal Tallard, whose correspondence passed through Harley's office. One of these packets was opened on suspicion in Holland. Gregg was tried, pleaded guilty, and was sentenced to death. The House of Lords, bitterly opposed to Harley, entered on a searching investigation of the case, with the object of establishing the minister's complicity. Gregg was told that if he would make a full confession, he might hope for the intercession of the House. He refused and was hanged.

Grenada, one of the Windward Islands, was discovered by Columbus in 1478, but colonised in 1650 by the French Governor of Martinique; and, in 1674, on the collapse of the French West India Company, lapsed to

the French crown. The French retained it until the Treaty of Paris (1763), when it was made over to England. In 1779 Grenada was retaken by the French, but was restored by the Treaty of Versailles (1783). In 1795 there was a negro insurrection, caused mainly by the intrigues of the French planters, the effects of which retarded for many years the progress of the island. The government is vested in a governor (who also exercises jurisdiction over the rest of the Windward Islands) and a legislative council. Each town has an elective Board for local affairs. The chief exports are sugar, cocoa, and cotton.

R. M. Martin, *British Colonies*; B. Edwards, *West Indies*.

Grenville, Sir Bevil (*b.* 1596, *d.* 1643), a grandson of Sir Richard Grenville, a gallant officer who joined the Royalist army in 1642, defeated the Parliamentary forces at Stratton, and was slain at the battle of Lansdown (July 5, 1643). Clarendon says that the Royalist successes in Cornwall were almost entirely due to his energy; and speaks warmly of his bright courage and gentle disposition.

Clarendon, *Hist of the Rebellion*.

Grenville, George (*b.* 1712, *d.* 1770), was the son of Richard Grenville, of Wotton, by Hester, Countess Temple. In 1741 he was elected M.P. for Buckingham, which town he continued to represent until his death. In 1744 he was appointed a Junior Lord of the Admiralty, in Henry Pelham's government. In 1747 he was promoted to the same office in the Treasury; and on Newcastle becoming Prime Minister in 1754 he became Treasurer of the Navy. In 1762, when Lord Bute became First Lord of the Treasury, Grenville was made Secretary of State in his place, and leader of the House of Commons. On Bute's resignation in the following April, Grenville became at once Prime Minister and Chancellor of the Exchequer, on the nomination of Bute, who expected to find him a very willing tool; but he soon discovered his mistake. Grenville, who feared the king as little as he did the people, complained bitterly of Bute's secret influence, and at once became odious to the king in consequence. The death of Lord Egremont, Secretary of State, in August, gave George an excuse for changing his ministry; and he accordingly, through Bute's means, opened negotiations with Pitt. These, however, failed; and he was again obliged to fall back upon Grenville, who strengthened his position by enlisting the Bedford faction on his side. But the new accession of strength did not save the ministry. The issue of general warrants, and the struggle with Wilkes, cost the ministry £100,000, and lost them any share of popularity they ever possessed. This measure was soon followed by the Stamp Act. In July, 1765, the king, seeing his way to form a new ministry, summarily dismissed Grenville and the Duke of Bedford. In 1769 Grenville became reconciled to his brother-in-law, Lord Chatham, and took an eager part in the debates on the expulsion of Wilkes. In 1770 he carried his Bill on Controverted Elections, by which he transferred the trial of election petitions from the House at large to a Select Committee of the House. [Elections.] For some time past his health had been declining, and in the autumn of 1770—only a few months after passing his Election Bill—he died. "He took public business," Burke said of him in the House of Commons, "not as a duty he was to fulfil, but as a pleasure he was to enjoy; he seemed to have no delight out of the House, except in such things as some way related to the things that were to be done in it. If he was ambitious, I will say this for him, his ambition was of a noble and generous strain."

Jesse, *Mem. of the Reign of George III.*; Walpole, *Mem. of the Reign of George III.*; Albemarle, *Rockingham and his Contemporaries*; Macaulay, second Essay on *Chatham*; Grenville, *Correspondence*; Massey, *Hist.*; Stanhope, *Hist.*

[W. R. S.]

Grenville, Sir Richard (*b.* 1540, *d.* 1591), one of the renowned sailors of Queen Elizabeth's reign, was sent out to the West Indies, 1585, to inflict what damage he could on Spanish commerce. In 1587 he was a member of the Council of War, which was charged with the duty of making preparations to withstand the attack of the Armada; and did good service for his country against the Spaniards. In 1591 he took part in an expedition under Lord Thomas Howard, which sailed for the Azores to intercept the Spanish treasure ships on their return from South America; the design of the English was discovered by Spain, and fifty-three ships of war were sent out as a convoy; a furious engagement took place, in which Sir Richard, after performing prodigies of valour, was killed; his memory being subsequently defended from any blame for the failure of the expedition by his friend Sir Walter Raleigh: "From the greatness of his spirit," says Raleigh, "he utterly refused to turn from the enemy, protesting he would rather die than be guilty of such dishonour to himself, his country, and her Majesty's ship."

Tytler, *Life of Raleigh*.

Grenville, William Wyndham, Lord (*b.* 1759, *d.* 1834), third son of George Grenville, was educated at Eton and Christ Church. In 1782 he was elected M.P. for Buckingham, and in the following year accompanied his brother, Earl Temple, to Ireland, as private secretary. In Dec., 1784, he succeeded Burke as Paymaster-General, and began to give his cousin Pitt most valuable assistance at a time when he most needed it. In 1789 he was elected Speaker of the House of Commons on the death of Cornwall, but he only held the

chair for four months, being then made Home Secretary, an office that afforded him more active employment. In 1790 he was raised to the Upper House, and in the following year went to preside over the Foreign Office, where he remained for ten years till Pitt's resignation. As Foreign Minister he thoroughly carried out Pitt's policy, and rejected all peace with the revolutionary government. He was the mover in the House of Lords of the Treason Bill in 1795. He was even a stronger supporter of the Catholic claims than Pitt, and during Pitt's last ministry Lord Grenville remained in opposition on this ground. On his death he combined with Fox to form the administration of "All the Talents." That ministry, however, was but short-lived; and, on being dismissed Lord Grenville remained in opposition during the continuance of the war. The close of his life was spent in literary retirement, when he did much valuable work, the result of which has been to throw much new light on the inner workings and party intrigues of the early years of the reign of George III. He lived on at Dropmore in Buckinghamshire till 1834, where he died on Jan. 12. Twice had overtures been made to him to take office again—in 1809 and in 1812. But Catholic Emancipation must be an essential element in any line of policy which Grenville would support. With that high sense of honour and integrity which always distinguished him and Lord Grey, they both excluded themselves from office for twenty years. As a Foreign Minister Grenville must rank above Pitt. His oratorical powers were at times the wonder of the House of Lords; but, like Fox, he was too liberal-minded not to have the misfortune to be generally in opposition.

Pellew, *Sidmouth; Courts and Cabinets of the Regency*; Grey's *Life and Opinions*; Lord Colchester's *Diary*; *Grenville Papers*.

[W. R. S.]

Gresham, Sir Thomas (*b.* 1519, *d.* 1579), a famous merchant, the son of Sir Richard Gresham, Lord Mayor of London, who died 1548, first attained fame as a financier by negociating certain loans for Edward VI. in 1551. He was subsequently employed on several occasions by Elizabeth, who found him exceedingly useful in obtaining money from foreign merchants; and also in raising loans from merchants in England. In 1566 he founded the Royal Exchange, which was opened by the queen in person, 1570.

Ward's *Lives*; Cunningham, *Eminent Englishmen*.

Greville, Charles C. F. (*b.* 1794, *d.* 1865), was Clerk to the Council from 1821 to 1860. He compiled a *Journal*, which is of considerable value as material for the history of the courts and cabinets of George IV., William IV., and Queen Victoria.

Grey, Lady Catherine (*d.* 1567), was daughter of the Marquis of Dorset, and younger sister of Lady Jane Grey (q.v.), after whose death she represented the house of Suffolk, which by Henry VIII.'s will was to succeed Elizabeth to the throne. After the accession of Elizabeth, Philip of Spain endeavoured to set her claims in opposition to the queen, but was unable to get her into his hands. In 1561 she was sent to the Tower ostensibly for having contracted a secret marriage with Lord Hertford, but in reality for fear she should prove a dangerous rival to Elizabeth. In 1563 Lady Catherine's claims were seriously discussed in Parliament, and in the next year John Hales, the Clerk of the Hanaper, published an elaborate argument in her favour. She died in Jan., 1567, her death being accelerated by the harsh treatment of Elizabeth, and "having been," as Mr. Froude says, "the object of the political schemes of all parties in turn who hoped to make use of her." Lady Hertford's marriage, which was declared null by Elizabeth's commissioners, was in the reign of James I. pronounced valid by a jury.

Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*

Grey, Charles, Earl (*b.* 1764, *d.* 1845), son of the first Earl Grey, was educated at Eton, and King's College, Cambridge. He was returned to Parliament for the county of Northumberland in 1786, and joined the Whig Opposition under Charles James Fox. He displayed such ability in his first speech that he was from that time a prominent leader of the party, and as such was chosen one of the managers of the impeachment of Warren Hastings. In 1792 he became a member of the great society, "the Friends of the People," the avowed object of which was to obtain a reform in the system of Parliamentary representation. In 1795 he opposed the liquidation of the Prince of Wales's debts. In the same year he unsuccessfully moved the impeachment of Pitt. In 1797 he brought forward a plan of reform, which was rejected by 149 votes. He remained one of Mr. Pitt's bitterest opponents till his death. On the accession of Mr. Fox to power, 1806, Mr. Grey, now Lord Howick, was appointed First Lord of the Admiralty. On the death of Fox he became leader of the House of Commons and Foreign Secretary. The Catholic Relief question, however, overthrew the ministry. In 1807 he succeeded his father as Earl Grey. In 1810, when the Duke of Portland resigned, negotiations were opened with Lords Grey and Grenville, who, however, refused to unite with the proposed ministry. In 1812 a similar attempt failed. In 1827 Earl Grey declined to support Mr. Canning. The sudden termination of the Wellington ministry in 1830 brought him from his retirement as the only man capable of dealing with the difficult question of Parliamentary Reform. In accepting office

he stipulated that the reform of Parliament should be made a cabinet question. The support of the great majority of the nation greatly facilitated the task which Earl Grey had undertaken, and enabled him to construct his ministry without much difficulty, the most serious impediment being created by the position of Mr. Brougham, which was got over by making him Lord Chancellor. A Reform Bill was introduced by Lord John Russell on April 12, after a long discussion, General Gascoyne successfully carried his motion against the government, and a dissolution became necessary, to which the king at last consented. The danger, however, became pressing, as Lord Wharncliffe had threatened to move an address in the Lords, praying the king not to dissolve. The House was dissolved the very day Lord Wharncliffe's threatened address was to have come on. The election of 1831 sent back a large reforming majority to Parliament, and on June 24, Lord John Russell again introduced the bill. The struggle from this time lay in the Lords. On April 9, 1832, Earl Grey moved that the third Reform Bill be now read a second time. The second reading was carried by the aid of Lord Wharncliffe and the Trimmers. Lord Lyndhurst now moved in committee that the consideration of the disfranchising clauses should be postponed until the enfranchising clauses had been considered. This motion was carried against the government in spite of Earl Grey's warning to the House that he should consider its success fatal to his measure, and he resigned, May 9. The state of the country became terrible. Sir Robert Peel declined office. The Duke of Wellington found it impossible to construct a government. It became necessary to recall Earl Grey, and Earl Grey obeyed the summons. But before he left the presence of the king he had obtained from him a written promise that he would "create such a number of peers as will be sufficient to pass the Reform Bill." The bill was eventually carried by the personal influence of the king, though violent altercations and recriminations occurred on the subject in the House of Lords. The Reformed Parliament gave the Whigs an overwhelming majority. The first business was to consider the state of Ireland, and it was found necessary to pass a Coercion Bill. In 1834 the Duke of Richmond, the Earl of Ripon, Mr. Stanley, and Sir James Graham resigned. This somewhat shook the ministry, and in order to avoid any further secessions, an Irish Church Commission was hastily appointed to procure evidence. Mr. Littleton's Tithe Bill (Irish) gave another shock to the ministry, and the motion of O'Connell and Mr. Littleton on the Coercion Bill, which produced the resignation of the Premier and Lord Althorp, ended Lord Grey's political career. He resigned to save the rest of his ministry. From this time he took little part in public affairs.

Walpole, *Hist. of Eng.*; Martineau, *Thirty Years' Peace*; *Annual Register*. [B. S.]

Grey, Sir Edward (*b.* 1862), M.P. for North Berwick since 1885, was Under Foreign Secretary from 1892–5. In 1905 he joined the Liberal Ministry as Secretary for Foreign Affairs; in 1906 the Liberals won the election, and he returned to office.

Grey, Sir George (*b.* 1799, *d.* 1882), acted in 1834 for a few months as Under-Secretary for the Colonies. He returned to the same post in 1835, and held it till 1839, when he became Judge-Advocate, and afterwards Chancellor of the Duchy. In 1845 he was appointed Home Secretary. In 1854 he accepted the Colonial Office. In 1855 he returned to the Home Office; was appointed Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster in 1859; became Home Secretary again in 1861. He retired in 1865.

Grey, Sir George, K.C.B. (*b.* 1812, *d.* 1898), was born at Lisbon, educated at Sandhurst, and for some time held a commission in the 83rd Regiment. After conducting explorations in Western Australia, he was appointed Governor of South Australia in 1841, of New Zealand in 1845, of Cape Colony in 1854, and again of New Zealand in 1861–7. In 1874 he became superintendent of the province of Auckland: member of House of Representatives for Auckland City (1874–94), then returning to England, became Privy Councillor. He was buried in St. Paul's Cathedral.

Grey, Lady Jane (*b.* 1537, *d.* 1554), was the daughter of Henry Grey, Marquis of Dorset, and Frances Brandon, daughter of the Duke of Suffolk. On the approaching death of Edward VI. becoming apparent in 1553, the Duke of Northumberland conceived the idea of aggrandising his own family by obtaining the crown for Lady Jane, and marrying her to his son Lord Guilford Dudley. Accordingly, he induced Edward VI. to alter the succession in her favour. On the young king's death Lady Jane was informed by the duke that she was queen, and was proclaimed by him in various parts of the country, but the people refused to recognise the usurpation. After a brief reign of eleven days, the crown was transferred to Mary, and Lady Jane and her husband were sent to the Tower, and subsequently condemned to death. They were kept in captivity for some time, and were not executed until after Wyatt's rebellion in 1554. Lady Jane Grey, whose education had been entrusted to Aylmer and Roger Ascham, was as accomplished as she was beautiful, and was a fluent scholar in Hebrew, Greek, and Latin. "She has left us," in Froude's words, "a portrait of herself drawn by her own hand, a portrait of piety, purity, and free noble innocence uncoloured.

even to a fault, with the emotional weaknesses of humanity."

Nicolas, *Lady Jane Grey*; Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.*; Sharon Turner, *Hist. of Eng.*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Tytler, *Hist. of Eng. under Ed. VI. and Mary.*

Grey, Lord, of Groby, was the chief of the Anabaptists during the period of the Great Rebellion. He took an active part in Pride's Purge (q.v.).

Grey, Sir John, of Groby (*d.* 1455), a Lancastrian leader who fell in the first battle of St. Albans, was the first husband of Elizabeth Woodville, afterwards wife of Edward IV.

Grey, Lord Leonard (*d.* 1541), was the second son of Thomas, first Marquis of Dorset. He was sent over to Ireland, in 1535, to assist Skeffington. On Skeffington's death he became Lord Deputy, 1536. Together with Lord James Butler, he destroyed O'Brien's Bridge over the Shannon, long an object of alarm to the English, and he induced the O'Connor to come to terms. His sister, Lady Elizabeth Grey, was the second wife of Gerald, ninth Earl of Kildare, and it now became his duty to try and capture his own nephew, that nobleman's heir, an object which he did not succeed in effecting. In 1538, he attacked the Island Scots. He was, however, compelled to retreat, in spite of Ormonde's help, before the combined forces of Desmond and the O'Briens. Lord Leonard was a staunch Catholic, and this, together with the favour he showed the Geraldines and the natives, made him hated by Ormonde. Soon after his recall, at his own request in 1540, he was accused of a treasonable understanding with his kinsmen, the Fitzgeralds, and executed in 1541. Most probably he was innocent.

Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Brewer, *Introductions to the Letters and Papers of Henry VIII.'s Reign.*

Grey, Sir Patrick, was Captain of the Guard to James II. Having a bitter feud with the Earl of Douglas, on account of the murder of his nephew in Douglas Castle, he gave the earl his death-wound, after he had been stabbed by the king, in Stirling Castle (1452).

Grey, Lord Richard (*d.* 1483), was the second son of Sir John Grey, by Elizabeth Woodville, and consequently half-brother of King Edward V. In 1483 he was seized, together with his uncle, Earl Rivers, at Northampton by Richard, Duke of Gloucester, and eventually put to death at Pontefract.

Grey, Sir Thomas (*d.* 1415), was a knight of Northumberland who, in 1415, joined the conspiracy of the Earl of Cambridge to place the Earl of March on the throne. He was seized, and having confessed his guilt, was immediately executed.

Grey, Lord Thomas (*d.* 1554), brother of the Duke of Suffolk, joined in the rebellion in the midland counties (1554) organised by the duke in conjunction with that of Sir Thomas Wyatt in Kent. After the defeat of Suffolk's forces by Lord Huntingdon at Coventry, Thomas Grey escaped to Wales, but was taken prisoner, and executed (February, 1554). He was a man of ambition and daring, and his unbounded influence over his brother, the duke, was believed to have drawn the latter into this enterprise.

Stowe; Lingard; Froude.

Grey de Wilton, Arthur, Earl (*d.* 1593), was the son of a celebrated commander of Henry VIII.'s time. He was Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland in 1580. In that year he suffered a severe repulse in Glen Malure from the Wicklow septs. It was to him, however, that the suppression of Desmond's rebellion was largely due, and he was in command of the troops at Smerwick (q.v.). As a stern Puritan, he made himself unpopular by his severity, and was re-called in 1584. He was one of the commissioners who passed judgment on Mary Queen of Scots, and was created a Knight of the Garter.

Froude; *State Papers*; Burke, *Extinct Peerages.*

Grey de Wilton, William, Earl (*d.* 1563), was Governor of Berwick in the reign of Edward VI., and in that capacity distinguished himself by several raids across the border, in one of which (1548) he took and fortified Haddington. During the rebellion in the west of England (1549) he did much to repress the insurrection. In 1551 he was sent to the Tower by order of Warwick, who mistrusted him as a friend of Somerset, though a year or two afterwards he is found slightly implicated in the conspiracy to place Lady Jane Grey on the throne. Made Governor of Guisnes by Mary, he kept a close watch upon the French, and had his advice been listened to, Calais would have been saved. The fall of Calais was quickly followed by that of Guisnes, which Grey found himself compelled to surrender. On his return to England he was sent to the north, where he, after a lengthy siege, made an assault upon Leith, which, however, entirely failed.

Grimston, Sir Harbottle (*b.* 1603, *d.* 1685), a strong Presbyterian, represented Colchester in the Long Parliament. He was one of the members excluded by Pride's Purge. On the king's execution he left England, and remained abroad for several years. In 1656 he was elected M.P. for Essex, but was excluded from the House. In April, 1660, he was elected Speaker of the Convention Parliament. He was also one of the commissioners sent to Charles at Breda. For his services at the Restoration, he was, in November, 1660, created Master of the Rolls. During the reign of Charles II. he

distinguished himself by asserting the right of the Commons to choose their own Speaker (1679) and by his hostility to the Catholics.

Foss, *Judges of England.*

Grindal, Edmund (*b.* 1519, *d.* 1583), Archbishop of Canterbury, was born near St. Bees and educated at Cambridge. He was made Canon of Westminster in 1552, and Chaplain to Edward VI., at whose death he was obliged to take refuge on the Continent. On the accession of Elizabeth he returned to England a strong Puritan, and greatly influenced by Geneva; he waived his objections to vestments so far as to accept the see of London on the deprivation of Bonner in 1562. Grindal, who had taken an active part in the Theological Controversy at Westminster, 1559, was a sound theologian and noted preacher; but he constantly incurred the queen's displeasure for his mildness in enforcing the Act of Uniformity; yet in 1570 he was made Archbishop of York, and on the death of Archbishop Parker, 1575, was translated to Canterbury. His administration was not very successful in some ways; his Puritan sympathy made him refuse to put down the "prophesyings" of that party, and he was, in consequence, sequestered from the exercise of his jurisdiction for five years, being only restored in 1582, a year before his death, though he never regained the favour of the queen, who treated him with great and unmerited harshness. As Archbishop of Canterbury, Grindal made no mark. His difference of opinion with the queen made it impossible for them to work in harmony, yet he was a man of profound learning, deep piety, and some moderation; mild, affable, and generous, and much admired by his own party.

Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops*; Mosheim, *Eccles. Hist.*; Strype, *Life of Grindal.*

Griqualand West is separated from Cape Colony by the Orange River. After the discovery of diamonds there in 1867 the district was made a British colony, and in 1877 was made a province of Cape Colony, of which it now constitutes four out of seventy divisions. The characteristic feature of the country is undulating grassy plains, well adapted to sheep farming.

Grith, in Anglo-Saxon law, is a word of narrower meaning than "frith," with which it is often coupled. It signifies a special or localised peace or protection, particularly that granted by the king or a high official. While "frith" was primarily personal, the peace of an individual, the "grith" was territorial, the peace of a district.

Grosseteste, Robert (*b.* 1175, *d.* 1253), Bishop of Lincoln, one of the most eminent of mediæval ecclesiastics and schoolmen, was born at Stradbrooke, in Suffolk, of poor parents. He studied at Oxford and Paris, where he gained a very great reputation as a student and teacher. He became "rector scholarum" at Paris, and first rector of the Franciscans at Oxford. He received various preferments, but in 1232 resigned all but one in order to continue at Oxford. In 1235 his election as Bishop of Lincoln gave him both a wider sphere of work and a special relation to his university. As administrator of his huge diocese he was both active and successful. A long struggle with his chapter was only ended by the personal intervention of the Pope, Innocent IV., who, at the Council of Lyons practically decided in the bishop's favour. His drastic visitation of the monasteries of his see, though hampered by the disfavour shown to him at Rome, where the gold of the monks was all-powerful, was resolutely carried through. A sturdy champion of liberty, he prevailed in 1244 in preventing the grant of a royal subsidy, and kept together the opposition, when likely to be broken up by the king's intrigues; and he ensured the reading of the sentence of excommunication against violators of the Great Charter in every parish of his diocese. A similar spirit actuated the refusal in 1251 to admit foreigners ignorant of English into rich preferment in his diocese, and led to a papal suspension, which, however, was of short duration. In 1252 he prevented the collection of a tenth imposed upon the clergy by the Pope for Henry III.'s necessities. In 1253 he refused to induct the Pope's own nephew into a prebend at Lincoln. His celebrated letter of refusal, while accepting the ultramontane position, was thoroughly decided in its tone. After his death miracles were reported at his tomb, but the effort to obtain canonisation for so bad a papalist failed. Grosseteste had a wide acquaintance, over which he exercised great influence. The spiritual adviser of Adam de Marisco, the intimate friend of Simon de Montfort, and the tutor to his sons, he was yet the friend of the queen and even of the king. The sturdy practical temper illustrated by all his life's acts was combined with vast knowledge, great dialectical and metaphysical subtlety, activity in preaching and teaching, and real spiritual feeling; his leisure, too, was devoted to the cultivation of French love poetry.

Perry, *Life of Grosseteste*; *Grosseteste's Letters* in Rolls Series, edited, with valuable introduction, by Mr. Luard; Matthew Paris, *Historia Major.*

[T. F. T.]

Guadaloupe, The Island of, is a French possession in the Antilles. Settled in 1635 by the French, it resisted English attacks in 1691 and 1703, but was captured in 1759, and restored in 1763, and again in 1794 it became English. Restored in 1803 by the Peace of Amiens, it was re-conquered in 1810, surrendered to Sweden in 1813, restored to France in 1814. In 1816 the British finally withdrew.

Saffaral, *Les Colonies Françaises.*

Guader, RALPH, was of Norman or Breton origin, but was born in England. He was made Earl of Norfolk by William I., but in 1075, chiefly being irritated at the king's disapproval of his marriage with the sister of the Earl of Hereford, he organised a conspiracy for the deposition of William, and the restoration of the earls to the power they had enjoyed under Edward the Confessor. The plot was betrayed, and Ralph fled to Brittany. Eventually he joined the first Crusade, and died in Palestine.

Gualo was appointed Papal legate in England in the year 1216. He strongly supported King John against Louis of France, and on John's death was instrumental in obtaining the recognition of the young King Henry. Mr. Luard says that "the preservation of the Plantagenet line, and the defeat of Louis, were entirely due to the influence of Rome." He was replaced in 1218 by Pandulf.

Guernsey. [CHANNEL ISLANDS.]

Guiana is an extensive country in the north-east of South America. In 1580 the Dutch planted a colony, and in 1652 the English settled at Paramaribo. The English settlement did not succeed, and the land remained with the Dutch. In 1781 Rodney took possession of it, but in 1784 it was restored. Again in 1796 the English captured Guiana, and in 1803 a cession, confirmed in 1814, was made to England of the portion now called British Guiana. [VENEZUELA.]

Dalton, *Hist. of British Guiana*; R. M. Martin, *British Colonies*.

Guicowar, or **Gaekwar,** is the title of the sovereign of the Mahratta State of Baroda. [MAHRATTAS.]

Guildford Court-house, THE BATTLE OF (March 15, 1781), during the closing period of the American War of Independence, was almost the only gleam of success that shone on Cornwallis's fatal advance into the North. At the beginning of the year he entered North Carolina. Greene, with much prudence, refused to attack him, and retreated before him. On February 20, Cornwallis, halting at Hillsborough, invited all loyalists to join him; but a small detachment of them on their way to take advantage of the proclamation were cut to pieces by the Americans, and the rest took fright. Again Cornwallis advanced, and Greene at length determined to give him battle. On some strong ground near Guildford Court-house, Cornwallis attacked, and the regulars were as usual irresistible. They carried Greene's position despite inferiority in numbers and position. In results, however, the victory was signally deficient, for Cornwallis, too weak to advance, and receiving no reinforcements, had to fall back on Wilmington. [AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE, WAR OF.]

Bancroft, *Hist. of Amer. Rev.*, iv., c. 23; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*, c. 64.

Guiscard, ANTOINE, MARQUIS DE (*b.* 1658, *d.* 1711), was a French adventurer of good family. For some unknown offence he was expelled from France, and came to England after a variety of adventures. Godolphin made him colonel of a regiment of French refugees; and he became a companion of St. John in his wild orgies. In the year 1706 he proposed a descent on the coast of Languedoc, and twelve regiments were placed in readiness, but the expedition never sailed, probably because Godolphin thought his schemes too visionary. Guiscard was discharged with a pension of £500 a year. He almost immediately began a treacherous correspondence with the French court. On its detection he was brought before the Privy Council. Finding that everything was known, and wishing for a better death than hanging, he stabbed Harley twice with a penknife he had secreted. The wounds were slight. Guiscard was soon overpowered, and died in Newgate from injuries received in the struggle. To the last he denied that the attack was premeditated.

Gunpowder Plot, THE, is the name usually given to the great Roman Catholic conspiracy of James I.'s reign. The Catholics were deeply disappointed at finding that the king had no intention of remitting the severe laws against recusancy. In their resentment a plot was formed by several Roman Catholic gentlemen. It was probably originated by Robert Catesby, who was joined by Thomas Winter and John Wright in the spring of 1604; and later by Thomas Percy, Robert Winter, Sir Everard Digby, Rookwood, Tresham, the Jesuit Garnet, and Guy Fawkes, an Englishman, who had long served as a soldier of fortune in Flanders, and was closely connected with the English Jesuits. The plot was matured in the summer of 1605. It was arranged that Fawkes was to secrete some barrels of gunpowder in cellars adjacent to the Houses of Parliament. After the explosion, which was to take place when the King and Prince of Wales were present, the young prince Charles and the princess Elizabeth were to be seized and a rising attempted in the midland counties. After the prorogation Parliament was to meet on November 5, 1605, and this was the day on which the enterprise was to be carried out. Several of the conspirators were, however, anxious to save the Catholic members of the House of Lords. A letter was received by Lord Monteagle from one of the conspirators (probably Tresham) warning him not to be present at the opening of Parliament. The letter was shown to Cecil. Orders were given to search the vaults on November 4, and Fawkes was arrested. Most of the other conspirators had

taken the alarm and already fled to Dunchurch, where Sir Everard Digby had collected a large number of Catholic gentlemen. They dispersed in various directions. The leading conspirators attempted to make a stand at Holbeach. Several of them were wounded by an accidental explosion. Catesby, Percy, and the Wrights were killed in the course of the flight; most of the other leaders were captured. They were tried, and executed in January and February, 1606.

S. R. Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng.*, chap. vii. An attempt to show that the Government encouraged the plot so as to trap the conspirators has been made by Father Gerrard, S.J. (*What was the Gunpowder Plot?* 1896.)

Guthrum, or **Guthorm** (Mod. Dan., *Gorm*), was a Danish chief who became King of East England. After conquering Mercia, he started from Repton in 875 with half the "great host," when Halfdane went another way with the other half to colonise Northumberland. With two of his fellow kings, he attacked Wessex by land and sea, forcing Alfred to take refuge in Athelney in 878. He then raised a great fort at Chippenham, but was besieged there by the English king, and forced by blockade to accept terms of peace. This treaty is still in existence. Guthrum was baptised, with thirty of his chief men, and in 880 he settled with his host in East England, vacant by the death of Hubba, who, with his host, was slain in Devonshire, 878. Guthrum seems to have done his best to keep the peace, though his followers were not always obedient, and it is not till after his death in 890 that the East English Danes became a danger to Alfred. Guthrum's baptismal name was Athelstan, which alone appears on his coins. The theory, however, that he, not the English king, was the foster-father of Hacon the Good, reposes on a false chronology and is quite unnecessary. Guthrum was succeeded by Eohric, or Yorick, who was probably his son. [Alfred.]

Guthrum II., King of East England, was the son of Yorick, whom he succeeded 906. He made peace with King Edward, the terms of which were still preserved in 907. It was against him that Edward's policy of building a line of forts across the Midlands was chiefly directed, a policy which led to the submission successively of the Danes of Hertford (916), of Bedford, under Earl Turketil (918), and finally to the campaign of 921, in which Edward defeated and slew Guthrum (for we take him to be "the king" of the Chronicle) with his son and brother, at Tempsford. Their death, and the submission of Earl Thurfrith of Northampton, the Danes of Huntingdon, the "host of Cambridge," and the East Anglian Danes, in the same year, brought to an end the Danish rule in East England.

Guzerat, The Battle of (Feb. 22, 1849), was fought between the English and Sikhs during the second Sikh War. The army of Shere Sing, estimated at 50,000 men with sixty pieces of cannon, was drawn up in front of the walled town of Guzerat, supported on the left by a streamlet flowing into the Chenab, on the right by two villages filled with troops. The commander-in-chief, Lord Gough, by the advice of Major George Lawrence, determined to begin the battle with artillery. The fire of eighty-four cannon rained on them steadily for two hours and a half. The whole Sikh line broke and fled; the English cavalry were let loose on them, and pursued them for fifteen miles, till the army of Shere Sing was a mere wreck.

Gwalior is a protected state of Central India, which includes most of Malwa. The capital of the same name is situated on a rocky hill, rising sheer from the level plain. It is ruled by the line of Mahratta princes called Scindiah. The fortress of Gwalior was taken by Major Popham in 1780, and restored to its former ruler, the Rajah of Gohad, but in 1784 was recovered by Scindiah. In Feb., 1804, it was again taken by the English, under Sir H. White, but was restored to Scindiah the next year. In 1843, on the death of the reigning Scindiah, without heirs, the dissensions at Gwalior led to an expedition to restore order there. The English defeated the Gwalior army at Maharajpore. A treaty was concluded, by which the fortress of Gwalior was ceded to England and the native army reduced to 9,000 men (1844). In 1857, it was a seat of the Mutiny, but Scindiah remained unswervingly faithful.

Grant Duff, *Hist. of the Mahrattas.*

Gwynedd, the old name for North Wales, was a district roughly corresponding to the domains of the "Princes of Wales" who reigned at Aberffraw. [Wales.]

Gwyn, Eleanor (*b. circa* 1650, *d.* 1687), was of humble origin, and was early in life an orange girl at a theatre. She subsequently became an actress and mistress to Lord Buckhurst, and eventually one of Charles II.'s mistresses, besides being appointed one of the Ladies of the Bedchamber to the Queen. By Charles II. she had two sons, one of whom died very young, the other was Charles Beauclerk, who was created Duke of St. Albans. Her personal beauty was very great, while her generosity and kindliness made her more popular than most of the king's favourites.

Gyrth (*d.* 1066) was the fourth son of Earl Godwin. He shared in his father's banishment and return, and in 1057 he received an earldom which seems to have included Norfolk, Suffolk, Cambridgeshire, and Oxfordshire. He took part in the battle of Hastings, where he was killed, it is said, by William's own hand.

Gytha was the sister of Ulf and niece of

Canute. She married Earl Godwin, and was banished with him in 1051. After the battle of Hastings, she begged the body of Harold to inter it at Waltham, but this was refused by William, though she is said to have offered him Harold's weight in gold. In 1067 she took refuge in the Flatholm, and went thence to St. Ouen, where she remained till her death.

H

Habeas Corpus, The Writ of, is a writ issuing from one of the superior courts, commanding the body of a prisoner to be brought before it. It rests upon the famous 29th section of Magna Charta: "No freeman shall be taken and imprisoned unless by the lawful judgment of his peers or by the law of the land." Arbitrary imprisonment, though thus provided against, was, however, not unfrequently practised by the king's Privy Council, and, in 1352, a statute was passed to prevent this abuse of the liberty of the subject, which was twice re-enacted in the reign of Edward III. Under the Tudors, prisoners, when committed by the council generally, or even by the special command of the king, were admitted to bail on their habeas corpus, but there were frequent delays in obtaining the writ. The question whether a prisoner could be detained by special command of the king, signified by a warrant of the Privy Council, without showing cause of imprisonment, was argued out in Darnell's case, when the judges, relying upon an obscure declaration of their predecessors in the 34th of Elizabeth, decided for the crown. The House of Commons retorted by protesting in the Petition of Right against the illegal imprisonment of the subject without cause.

The arbitrary arrest of Sir John Eliot and the other members on the dissolution of 1629 was an attempt to evade the Petition of Right, and was met by the provision in the Act which abolished the Star Chamber, that any person committed by the council or the king's special command was to have a writ of habeas corpus granted him, on application to the judges of the King's Bench or Common Pleas, without any delay or pretence whatever. Nevertheless, Lord Clarendon's arbitrary custom of imprisoning offenders in distant places revived the grievance, and the Commons, under Charles II., carried several bills to prevent the refusal of the writ of habeas corpus, but they were thrown out in the Lords. In 1676 Jenkes's case called fresh attention to the injustice of protracted imprisonment.

At last, in 1679, the famous Habeas Corpus Act was passed. It enacted that any judge must grant the writ of habeas corpus when applied for, under penalty of a fine of £500; that the delay in executing it must not exceed twenty days; that any officer or keeper neglecting to deliver a copy of the warrant of commitment, or shifting the prisoner without cause to another custody, shall be fined £100 on the first offence, and £200, with dismissal, for the second; that no person once delivered by habeas corpus shall be re-committed for the same offence; that every person committed for treason or felony is to be tried at the next assizes, unless the crown witnesses cannot be produced at that time; and that, if not indicted at the second assizes or sessions, he may be discharged; and that no one may be imprisoned out of England. The defects in this great Act have since been remedied by the Bill of Rights, which declares that excessive bail may not be required; and by the Act of 1757 "for securing more effectually the liberty of the subject," which extended the remedies of the Habeas Corpus Act to non-criminal charges, and empowered the judges to examine the truth of the facts set forth in the return. By an Act of 1862, based on the fugitive slave Anderson's case, it was provided that no writ of habeas corpus could issue from an English court into any colony where local courts exist having authority to grant and issue the said writ. The Habeas Corpus Act was extended to Ireland in 1782; in Scotland the liberty of the subject is guarded by the *Wrongous Imprisonment Act* of 1701.

In times of political and social disturbance the Habeas Corpus Act has now and again been suspended. It was suspended nine times between the Revolution and 1745; again during the troubles which followed the French Revolution (1794—1800), after which an Act of Indemnity was passed; as again after the Suspension Act of 1817. In Ireland it has been suspended no less than six times since the Union; but since 1848 the government, in times of disaffection, have had recourse to Coercion Acts.

For Darnell's case and the Act, see Hallam, *Const. Hist.*, chs. 7 and 13; *State Trials*, and stat. 31 Car. II., c. 2. For Suspension Acts, May, *Const. Hist.*, chap. xi. See also 56 Geo. III., c. 100, and 25 and 26 Vict., c. 20. [L. C. S.]

Habeas Corpus Act, The, in Ireland, was not passed till 1782, when an Act resembling that in England was carried through the Irish Parliament. It was suspended in 1796, in 1800, 1802 to 1805, 1807 to 1810, 1814, 1822 to 1824, 1866 to 1869, and partially by the Westmeath Act, 1871, and other Coercion Acts.

Hackett, William (*d.* 1591), was a fanatic who, with two companions named Coppenger and Arthington, endeavoured to procure a following in London by predicting the immediate end of the world. Their divine mission failed, however, to save them from being convicted as traitors. Arthington was

pardoned. This fanaticism caused the persecution of the Puritans to be redoubled; "it was pretended," says Dr. Lingard, "that if a rising had been effected, men of greater weight would have placed themselves at the head of the insurgents, and have required from the queen the abolition of the prelacy."

Hackston, OF RATHILLET (*d.* 1680), was one of the murderers of Archbishop Sharp. After the crime Hackston escaped into Stirlingshire by giving out that he and his companions were troopers in pursuit of the murderers. He afterwards fought at Drumclog and Bothwell Bridge, on the side of the Covenanters. He was captured at Airds Moss (1680), and soon afterwards executed at Edinburgh.

Haddington, seventeen miles east of Edinburgh, was burnt by John in 1216, and again by Edward III. in 1355. In 1547 it was taken by the English shortly after the battle of Pinkie; but was recaptured by the Scotch in the following year. It was here that the Estates of the Realm met to discuss the marriage of their young Queen Mary with the Dauphin (1548). In 1715 it was occupied by the Jacobites.

Haddon, WALTER (*b.* 1516, *d.* 1572), has been called one of the brightest lay ornaments of the Reformation. He became Master of Trinity Hall, Cambridge, and in 1552 President of Magdalen College, Oxford. In 1565 he was sent to Bruges for the purpose of concluding a commercial treaty between England and the Netherlands. His knowledge of Law was great, and he had a principal share in drawing up the *Reformatio Legum Ecclesiasticarum.*

Hadrian, Emperor of Rome (117–38), visited Britain in the year 120. He restored the southern part of the island to order, and drove back the Caledonians. The wall from the Solway to the Tyne was built by his orders. [ROMANS IN BRITAIN.]

Hadwisa, or **Hawisa,** wife of King John, was the granddaughter of Robert Earl of Gloucester, natural son of Henry I. Her marriage with King John in 1189 gave him a share of the great Gloucester earldom of which she was co-heir, but in 1200 she was divorced on the pretext of affinity.

Hailes, LORD (*b.* 1726, *d.* 1792), was the judicial title of Sir David Dalrymple, one of the Lords Commissioners of Justiciary. He was the author of *Annals of Scotland.*

Haldane, THE RIGHT HON. R. B. (*b.* 1856) was educated at Edinburgh and Göttingen, and called to the Bar in 1879. He entered Parliament in 1885. In 1905 he became Secretary for War in the Liberal Ministry, and during his term of office was responsible for the abolition of the Volunteers and Militia, and the introduction of the Territorial system.

Hale, SIR MATTHEW (*b.* 1609, *d.* 1676), was called to the bar in 1636. He took the side of the king in his struggle with the Parliament, and defended the Duke of Hamilton and other Royalists in 1649. Later on he subscribed the engagement to be faithful to the Commonwealth, and in 1654 was made a judge of the Common Pleas, in which capacity he showed great fearlessness and impartiality, refusing to assist in the trial of Penruddock in 1655, and on one occasion dismissing a jury which had been illegally returned at Cromwell's bidding. On the death of Oliver Cromwell he resigned his office, but in 1660 was made by Charles II. Chief Baron of the Exchequer, and in 1671 was promoted to the Chief Justiceship of the King's Bench. In private and public life alike, he was distinguished by his candour, kindly disposition, and piety; his habits and tastes were most simple, and to the end of his life he was an earnest student of theology and law. Heneage Finch, Earl of Nottingham, speaks of him as "a Chief Justice of so indefatigable an industry, so invincible a patience, so exemplary an integrity, and so magnanimous a contempt of unholy things, without which no man can be truly great; and to all this, a man that was so absolutely a master of the science of the law, and even of the most abstruse and hidden parts of it, that one may truly say of his knowledge of the law, what St. Austin said of St. Jerome's knowledge of divinity, 'Quod Hieronymus nescivit, nullus mortalium unquam scivit.'"

Hale's Case (June, 1686). Sir Edward Hale, a convert to Roman Catholicism, was, in 1686, appointed by James II. colonel of a regiment, and Governor of Dover Castle, though he had not qualified himself for these posts according to the terms of the Test Act. A collusive action was brought against him by a servant, whereupon Hale pleaded a dispensation from the king. Eleven out of the twelve judges decided in his favour, and agreed that the king had power by his prerogative to dispense with penal laws, and for reasons of which he was sole judge. Subsequently Hale was made Lieutenant of the Tower, and followed James II. in his flight, but was captured and imprisoned.

Halfdane (*d.* 910), a Danish leader, is mentioned in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle as one of the two kings leading the Danish army at the battle of Ashdown (781). Four years later he went with part of the host into Northumbria, subdued the land, and harried the Picts and the Strathclyde Welsh. Next year (876) he divided the south part of Northumbria among his followers, who settled down in their new abodes as peaceful inhabitants. Many years later Halfdane's name again occurs in the Chronicle as being engaged in an expedition that ravaged England as far south as Tettenhall. On its return it was

overtaken by Edward the Elder, and put to rout. Several of the Danish leaders were slain in this engagement, and amongst them King Halfdane. [DANES.]

Halidon Hill, THE BATTLE OF (July 19, 1333), was fought near Berwick between the English troops, led by Edward III. in person, and the Scotch under Douglas. The English were posted on a hill, and also protected by the marshy ground before them. When the Scots advanced to the attack, their troops floundered in this morass, and, being open to the English archers, were reduced to a mere fragment ere they reached the enemy's ranks. Disorganised and hopeless, they were then slaughtered by the English men-at-arms.

Halifax, CHARLES WOOD, 1ST VISCOUNT (*b.* 1800, *d.* 1885), was educated at Oriel College, Oxford, and succeeded his father as third baronet in 1826. In the same year he had been returned to the House of Commons as member for Great Grimsby, and afterwards sat for Wareham, Halifax, and Ripon. In 1832 he was appointed Secretary to the Treasury; in 1835 Secretary to the Admiralty. In 1846 he took office under Lord Russell as Chancellor of the Exchequer, which office he held till 1852. He entered the Aberdeen cabinet in 1852 as President of the Board of Control; became First Lord of the Admiralty in Lord Palmerston's first administration, from 1855 to 1858. In Lord Palmerston's second administration he became Secretary of State for India, and President of the Indian Council from 1859 to 1866. In 1866 he was created Viscount Halifax, and took office under Mr. Gladstone in 1870 as Lord Privy Seal.

Halifax, CHARLES MONTAGUE, EARL OF (*b.* 1661, *d.* 1715), was educated at Westminster and Cambridge. In 1687 he gained himself a wide reputation by the happy parody of the *Town and Country Mouse*, written in conjunction with his friend Prior. In 1688 he entered Parliament for Maldon, and was a member of the Convention which offered the crown of England to William and Mary. The new king soon granted him a pension of £500 a year; and in 1691 he was appointed chairman of a committee of the House of Commons, and one of the commissioners of the Treasury. He bore a prominent part in the debates for regulating the trials for treason. He took up Paterson's scheme for establishing a national bank, and hence may be regarded as one of the founders of the Bank of England (1694). In the same year he was appointed Chancellor of the Exchequer, and in the next was actively concerned in the measures taken to restore the currency. It was at his suggestion that a window-tax was levied for the purposes of meeting the expenses incidental to the new coinage. In 1697 he was appointed First Lord of the Treasury, and in the next two years was one of the members of the regency during the king's absence. About the same time he was attacked in Parliament, but was acquitted on all points, and even received the thanks of the House for his services. He now proposed to reorganise the East India Company, by combining the new and the old companies (1698). "The success of this scheme," says Lord Macaulay, "marks the time when the fortunes of Montague reached the meridian." After this time he began to lose his popularity; public feeling was against him, and even the men of letters, despite his patronage of the greatest literary characters of his day, were unsparing in abuse. Stung by this treatment he resigned the Chancellorship of the Exchequer, and fell back upon a very lucrative sinecure (the auditorship of the Exchequer) that his brother had been nursing for him since the previous year. In 1701 he was called to the Upper House by the title of Lord Halifax; and the same year was impeached, though without success. In 1714 he was made Earl of Halifax, and died the next year. Halifax's character was most mercilessly assailed by the writers of his time; and even Pope, who was but a boy when Montague retired from the House of Commons, has attacked him in some of his bitterest and most pungent verses. Halifax is said to have been the Bufo of the *Epistle to Arbuthnot*, where even his patronage of men of letters is turned into scorn, and the whole charge summed up with the couplet accusing him of neglecting Dryden when alive—

> "But still the great have kindness in reserve :—
> He helped to bury whom he helped to starve."

Halifax, GEORGE SAVILLE, MARQUIS OF (*b. circa* 1630, *d.* 1695), was a member of an old Yorkshire family which had been conspicuous for its loyalty during the Rebellion period. After the Restoration, he was raised to the peerage for the assistance he had rendered in bringing about that event. He was created a marquis in 1682 and made Lord Privy Seal. He opposed the Exclusion Bill in 1680, though he was suspected of intriguing in favour of the Duke of Monmouth. At the accession of James II. he became President of the Council; but he showed himself altogether averse to the Romanising measures of the king, and most strenuously opposed the repeal of the Test Act. For this he was dismissed from his offices, October, 1685. He gave his adhesion to the Prince of Orange in December, 1688, and became Speaker of the House of Lords in the Convention Parliament, 1689, and Lord Privy Seal in February of this year. He, however, subsequently joined the Opposition and resigned in October, 1689. He offered a violent opposition to the censorship of the press in 1692. The marquis refused to join himself

absolutely to either party, and, in a tract called the *Character of a Trimmer*, defended his position as one who "trims" from one side to the other as the national interest requires.

Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Burnet, *Hist. of His Own Time*.

Halifax, George Montague Dunk, 5th Earl of (*d.* 1771), succeeded to the title while still a boy. In 1761 he was appointed Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, and a little later became one of Bute's Secretaries of State. When the last-mentioned nobleman went out in March, 1763, Lord Halifax combined with Lord Egremont and George Grenville to form the administration popularly known as the Triumvirate. It was in the joint names of Lords Halifax and Egremont that the general warrant was made out for the arrest of Wilkes. Lord Halifax has also been charged with the authorship of the most fatal measure of this unfortunate administration, viz., the Stamp Act; but though he was a warm advocate of the bill, as his office compelled him to be, there seems no evidence that he was the actual author of it. In 1765 he was a party with Lord Sandwich to the fraud which was practised on the king in order to make him agree to the omission of his mother's name from the council of regency; and the king seems to have felt more deeply injured by him than by Lord Sandwich. Nor did his conduct in this matter give satisfaction to his colleagues; and during the last few months of the Grenville administration, complaints against Halifax seem to have been rife. The Grenville administration fell in 1765. When Lord North came into power (1770) he was appointed Secretary of State, but died the following year.

Grenville Papers; Lord Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; Jesse, *Memoirs of George III.*

Hall, Arthur, member for Grantham, who had been previously arraigned at the bar of the House of Commons "for sundry lewd speeches," was (in 1581) expelled from the House, fined, and imprisoned in the Tower, for having published a book "not only reproaching some particular good members of the House, but also very much slanderous and derogatory to its general authority, power, and state, and prejudicial to the validity of its proceedings in making and establishing of laws." Hall had previously incurred the anger of the House, which suspected him of having connived at the fraud of his servant, Smalley (q.v.), whom they had sent their sergeant-at-arms to deliver from gaol in 1575. When Hall's book was condemned, its author made his submission, but was not liberated till the dissolution of Parliament. Notwithstanding his misfortunes on this occasion, he seems to have sat in later Parliaments. Hall's Case is the chief precedent for the power of expulsion which the House of Commons has always retained.

Hall, Edward (*d.* 1547), the son of a Shropshire gentleman, was educated at Eton, Cambridge, and Oxford. He entered Gray's Inn, was called to the bar, and in process of time became under-sheriff for the City of London and one of the judges of the Sheriffs' Court. He died in 1547, leaving behind him a *History of the Union of the two Noble and Illustrious Families of Lancaster and York*, which was printed in 1548. This work, which the author dedicated to Edward VI., begins with the duel between the Duke of Norfolk and Henry of Derby (afterwards Henry IV.), and goes down to the death of Henry VII. Hall may be regarded as a contemporary authority for events that took place during the reign of the last-mentioned king. For earlier reigns his narrative "is carefully compiled from the best available authorities, whether they wrote in Latin, French, or English." A list of these authorities is prefixed to the work, which was first printed by Richard Grafton in 1548.

Hall, Joseph (*b.* 1574, *d.* 1656), Bishop of Norwich, was one of the deputies sent to represent the established religion of England at the Synod of Dort (1619). In 1627 he was made Bishop of Exeter, and Bishop of Norwich in 1641, in which year he joined eleven of his fellow-bishops in protesting against all laws passed in their absence from the House of Lords. For this offence he was cast into prison. He died at Higham, near Norwich, in 1656. Hall's chief poetical works are two books entitled respectively *Toothless Satires* and *Biting Satires*, both of which are of some value as presenting a picture of the manners of his time. He was also the author of a work entitled *Hard Measure*, which gives an account of the treatment he met with at the hands of the Puritan party.

Hallam, Henry (*b.* 1777, *d.* 1859), was educated at Eton and Oxford, whence he proceeded to the Inner Temple. He was one of the early contributors to the *Edinburgh Review*, and a consistent Whig in politics. In 1818 his first literary venture on a large scale made its appearance—the *View of the State of Europe during the Middle Ages*. This work, which at once established the reputation of its author, is of value to the student of English history chiefly for the sketch of our political and constitutional history down to the accession of the Tudor dynasty. Despite the fact that the same ground was subsequently covered by the brilliant ingenuity of Sir Francis Palgrave and the great work of Dr. Stubbs, no student of our early history can afford to neglect the pages of these volumes. Mr. Hallam's second achievement was the publication of *The Constitutional History of England from the Accession of Henry VII. to the death of George II.* This work is still the leading authority on the period over which it extends; and like all the other

writings of its author, is remarkable for its accuracy and impartiality. In 1837—38 Mr. Hallam's third work of importance made its appearance, *The Introduction to the Literature of Europe in the Fifteenth, Sixteenth, and Seventeenth Centuries.*

Hallam, Robert (*d.* 1417), held the archdeaconry of Canterbury, and was nominated by the Pope to the archbishopric of York. Henry IV., however, refused his sanction to the appointment, and Hallam had to content himself with the bishopric of Salisbury. In 1411 he was nominated a cardinal. Six years later he took a very prominent part in the Council of Constance. He died at Constance in 1417.

Hamilton, originally called Cadzow or Cadyow, derives its name from Sir Walter de Hamilton, or Hambelton, of Leicester. It was made a royal burgh by Queen Mary in the sixteenth century. Hamilton Castle is noted in history as the place in which Mary Queen of Scots took refuge on her escape from Lochleven (1568), and where her supporters mustered round her. It was the chief seat of the Hamiltons, and was taken by the Regent Murray later in the same year.

Hamilton, Family of, is descended from Sir Gilbert de Hamilton, who lived in the reign of Alexander II. of Scotland. His son, Sir Walter Hamilton, received the lordship of Cadzow from Robert Bruce. Sir James Hamilton, sixth Lord of Cadzow, was created a peer of Scotland, with the title of Lord Hamilton, in 1445. His son James was created Earl of Arran in Aug., 1503. James, second earl, was declared heir presumptive to the crown in 1543, and in 1548 was created by Henry II. Duke of Chatelherault in France. John, his second son, was, in 1591, created Marquis of Hamilton. James, grandson of this peer, was created Duke of Hamilton, 1643. On the attainder of William, the second duke, in the Civil War, his honours were forfeited; but in 1660 his widow obtained, by petition, for her husband, Lord William Douglas, the title of Duke of Hamilton. The title has since remained with his descendants. The holders of the dukedom of Abercorn are descended from Claud, fourth son of the Duke of Chatelherault.

Hamilton, Anthony, Count (*b.* 1641, *d.* 1720), was the son of Sir George Hamilton and nephew of the second Earl of Abercorn on his father's side, while on his mother's he was nephew of the Duke of Ormonde. He was born in Ireland, and was educated in France. On the Restoration he returned to England, and was a conspicuous member of the court of Charles II. Under James II. Hamilton was given the command of an infantry regiment in Ireland, and the government of Limerick. At the battle of Newtown Butler (1689) he was wounded and defeated, and was also present next year at the battle of the Boyne; but shortly afterwards followed the dethroned king into exile, entering the French service later on. It was at Sceaux, the seat of the Duchess of Maine, that he wrote his *Memoirs of Grammont*, which were first printed anonymously in French in Holland, in the year 1713. An English translation was issued in the following year. This work contains much information on court politics of the reign of Charles II. Count Hamilton was also the author of certain *Contes*, or Stories, which are highly praised by Voltaire.

Hamilton, Emma, Lady (*b.* 1763, *d.* 1815), was the daughter of a Welsh servant-girl. She seems to have lost her character in early years. After various adventures she was married to Sir William Hamilton, the English ambassador at Naples (1791). At this court she soon became very intimate with the queen, Marie Caroline, and did not hesitate to use this intimacy for the purpose of unravelling state secrets which she claimed to be of importance to Great Britain. In 1793 she made the acquaintance of Nelson (q.v.), whose mistress she soon became. His execution of Carraciolo has been ascribed, though probably wrongly, to her influence. In 1800 she returned to England with Nelson. Lady Hamilton survived Nelson ten years, and died in mean circumstances in Calais (1815). Before her death she published two volumes containing her correspondence with Nelson. Her memoirs were published at London in the same year.

Hamilton, Sir James (*d.* 1540), was a natural son of James, first Earl of Arran. He was a favourite of James V. of Scotland, superintended the erection or the improvement of many royal palaces and castles, *e.g.*, Falkland, Linlithgow, Edinburgh, and Stirling. In later years he was made a judge in heresy, and in this capacity showed himself very severe towards the Reformers. At last, being accused of treason and embezzlement, he was found guilty and executed.

Hamilton, John (*d.* 1571), Archbishop of St. Andrews, was the natural brother of the Earl of Arran, the Regent of Scotland in 1543, and is said by the Scotch historians to have "ruled all at court," and to have been French at heart. He was also very friendly with Cardinal Beaton. He was appointed Privy Seal and Treasurer (1543), and was strongly opposed to the Duke of Somerset's plan of marrying Edward and Mary (1547). By this time Hamilton was Archbishop of St. Andrews, to which office he had succeeded on the assassination of Cardinal Beaton. He was a strenuous opponent of the Reformed doctrines, and in 1558 condemned Walter Mill to be burnt for heresy. He baptised James VI. in 1566, and about the same time

signed a bond in favour of Bothwell. He was a member of Mary's Privy Council, and continued faithful to her cause, though in 1563 he was impanelled for saying mass, and committed to ward by her orders. Hamilton, though an archbishop, lived in open adultery, and had to obtain several Acts of Parliament for the legitimisation of his bastard children. He was a party to Darnley's murder; and it was he who in 1567 divorced Bothwell from his wife, and so enabled him to marry the queen. He was hanged at Stirling in April, 1571, shortly after the fall of Dumbarton Castle, in which he had taken refuge.

Hamilton, James, of Bothwellhaugh, had fought for Queen Mary at Langside, and forfeited his estate in consequence of espousing the royal side. On Feb. 23, 1570, he shot the Regent Murray from the balcony of a house in Linlithgow, belonging to Archbishop Hamilton. Within a few days he escaped to France, where he lived for some time in receipt of a pension from Queen Mary. In 1572 his name was excepted from the benefit of the truce between the members of the king's party and the queen's party.

Hamilton, James, 3rd Marquis of (*b.* 1606, *d.* 1649), succeeded his father in 1625, and was sent in 1638 by Charles I. as his Commissioner to the Covenanters, to demand the rescinding of the whole Covenant. Having failed to effect a compromise, he was empowered to make an entire surrender of the Service Book, the Book of Canons, and the High Commission. In 1639 he was again sent to Scotland in command of a fleet of nineteen vessels, conveying five regiments of royal troops. In 1643 he was raised to the rank of duke, but was subsequently imprisoned on a charge of disloyalty. In August, 1648, he was defeated by Cromwell at Preston, and taken prisoner, being beheaded in London in the following March, after a summary mock trial before Bradshaw.

Hamilton, William Douglas, Duke of (*b.* 1637, *d.* 1695), appears as member of the Scotch Privy Council in the year 1686, when he was summoned by James II. to London for demurring at the king's policy of favour to the Roman Catholics and persecution of the Covenanters. On James refusing to allow religious liberty to the Covenanters, the interview came to an unsatisfactory conclusion, and when the Assembly of the Scotch Estates also proved refractory, Hamilton led the opposition. But, though he threw out hints against the dispensing power, his opposition to James's arbitrary acts was but languid. At the Revolution he joined the victorious side, while his eldest son declared for James. He was elected President of the Convention by a large majority over the Duke of Athole, and, when the Convention became a Parliament, he was made Lord High Commissioner. But he attempted to bring the old influence of the crown, by means of the Lords of the Articles, to bear on the Estates, and hence a strong opposition was formed which thwarted his government for the remainder of the session. On the discovery of Montgomery's plot (1689—90) to place James on the throne, it was discovered that he had been offered the post of President of the Council. Upon this William dismissed him from his office of Commissioner, and put Lord Melville in his place (1690). From this moment Hamilton began to oppose the plans of government with such persistency that William III. was once heard to exclaim, "I wish to heaven that Scotland were a thousand miles off, and the Duke of Hamilton were king of it." He spoke with considerable wisdom on the Settlement of the Scotch Church, by which synodical government was re-established, and upheld the cause of the ministers who had been ejected from their livings. On the fall of Melville he once more occupied Holyrood House as Lord High Commissioner (1692), and is said to have subscribed £3,000 to the African Company. "He was," says Mr. Burton, "neither bigoted nor unscrupulous, but infirm of purpose. A peculiar capriciousness of political action, a wavering uncertainty, which sickened all firm reliance, seems to have become constitutional to the house of Hamilton."

Hamilton, James, Duke of (*d.* 1712), made his first appearance in history in opposition to the Lord High Commissioner, the Marquis of Queensberry (1702). He led a secession of more than seventy members from Parliament. The extremely unsettled nature of his political views caused him to be excluded from the Scotch Union Commission, and he became a zealous opponent of that measure, and, in consequence, the darling of the Edinburgh mob. His influence in this year (1706) checked a projected rising of Cameronians and Jacobites. In 1707 the opponents of the Union were reduced to despair, and, as a last attempt, it was resolved to lay a solemn protest on the table of the House, and then secede from Parliament. It was to have been presented by Hamilton. At the last moment he refused to appear, pleading toothache, and when peremptorily summoned declared he had never had any intention of presenting the protest. By some it was supposed that the cause of his conduct was the claim of the house of Hamilton to the Scotch throne, and by others that Anne had commanded him to lay aside his opposition to the Union, as it was a preliminary step to a Stuart restoration. In 1708 he was looked on as the leader of a Jacobite insurrection, but the emissary from St. Germains, Colonel Hooke, was unable to obtain an interview with him. When the French invasion of

1707—8 was imminent, the Duke of Hamilton set out for England, where he was arrested; but was set free by the exertions of the Whig peers, Newcastle and Wharton, who wished to gain popularity for their party in Scotland. In 1711 he was allowed to take his seat in the House of Lords as an English peer, with the title of Duke of Hamilton and Brandon. In 1712 he was appointed ambassador to France, and it is asserted by the Jacobite Lockhart, that he was to be sent over with the view of undertaking the restoration of the Pretender. Before his departure he was killed in a duel with Lord Mohun, in which there was every appearance of foul play. His death was regarded by the Tories as a political murder.

Hamilton, Patrick (*b.* 1503, *d.* 1528), the "proto-martyr of Scotland," had held one of the lay benefices of the Church, being Abbot of Fern, in Ross-shire. He is said to have studied theology in Germany, under Luther and Melanchthon. In 1528 he was accused of heresy, for which offence he suffered death before the old college of St. Andrews.

Hamilton, Richard, was descended from a noble Scotch family long settled in Ireland. Though a Catholic by religion he had a seat in the Irish Privy Council, and commanded the Irish troops sent over to England in 1688. After James II.'s flight he submitted to William, and was sent over to Ireland by the new king as his envoy, having first pledged himself to return in three weeks. Finding, however, that Tyrconnel was determined on resistance, he broke his parole, marched into Ulster at the head of an Irish force, and routed the Protestants at Strabane, April 16, 1689. For some time he was in command of the besiegers of Londonderry, and at the battle of the Boyne led the cavalry in their gallant efforts to retrieve the day. In their last stand he was severely wounded and captured. William did not revenge himself on him for his treachery, and he was exchanged for Mountjoy in 1692, and died in the service of Louis XIV.

Hamilton, Rowan, was a gentleman of fortune who became a United Irishman. In the year 1794 he was apprehended, sentenced to pay a fine of £500, and imprisoned. Jackson, a French spy, corresponded with him. Rowan Hamilton, however, made his escape from Newgate as soon as he heard of Jackson's apprehension, and fled to America. He was in his absence sentenced to death, but his estates were saved; and in 1805 Castlereagh got him a pardon, and he then lived quietly in Ireland till his death.

Hamilton, William Gerard (*b.* 1729, *d.* 1796), was elected member for Petersfield in 1754. It was in the next year that he delivered the famous speech which won for him the title of "Single-speech Hamilton" (Nov. 13). After this occasion he never addressed the House of Commons again, fearing, so it was currently reported, to lose the reputation he had acquired by his great effort. In 1761 he was appointed secretary to Lord Halifax, and was for twenty years Chancellor of the Exchequer in Ireland. Gerard Hamilton was one of the numerous reputed authors of *Junius*, and Fox is credited with having once said, in reference to this question, that he would back him against any single horse, though not against the whole field. Hamilton retired into private life in 1784.

Hammond, Robert, Colonel, took part in the siege of Bristol in 1645, and was Governor of the Isle of Wight in 1647. When Charles I., in this year, escaped from Hampton Court, negotiations were opened on his behalf with Hammond, who, it was hoped, would espouse his cause, as he had often expressed dissatisfaction with the violence of the soldiers. But Hammond was a trusted friend of Cromwell, and, having married a daughter of John Hampden, was attached to the Parliamentary cause. Accordingly, he could only be induced to promise that he would treat the king as might be expected from a man of honour, and confined him in Carisbrooke Castle, though with much show of respect. While negotiations were being carried on during the next few months, Hammond frequently requested to be discharged from the charge of the king's person, and in consequence was looked upon with more or less suspicion by the officers of the army, till the king was removed to Hurst Castle, whereupon Colonel Hammond was discharged from his government, Nov., 1648.

Hampden, John (*b.* 1594, *d.* 1643), was the son of John Hampden, of Great Hampden, Bucks, and Elizabeth Cromwell, aunt of Oliver Cromwell. He was born in London, educated at Thame School, and at Magdalen College, Oxford, and entered the Inner Temple in 1613. In the Parliament of 1620 he represented Grampound; in 1626, Wendover; in 1640, Buckinghamshire. In 1627 he was imprisoned for refusing to pay the forced loan. When the second writ of ship-money was issued, by which that tax was extended to the inland counties, he refused to pay it. The case was tried in respect of twenty shillings due from lands in the parish of Stoke Mandeville, and out of the twelve judges seven decided for the crown, two for Hampden on technical grounds, and three for him on all counts, 1638. This trial made Hampden "the argument of all tongues, every man enquiring who and what he was that he durst of his own charge support the liberty and property of the kingdom, and rescue his country from being made a prey to the court." When a Parliament was again summoned "the eyes of all men were fixed upon him as the pilot which must steer the vessel through the tempest and

rocks which threatened it." In the Long Parliament he played an important part, generally moderating by his influence the pressure of the popular party. Thus he urged the Commons to proceed against Strafford by impeachment rather than by bill of attainder, and attempted to arrange a compromise on the Church question. The king's attempt to arrest the Five Members obliged him to alter his policy and urge stronger measures. He was appointed a member of the Committee of Safety, and raised a regiment whose flag bore the significant motto, "Vestigia nulla retrorsum." He distinguished himself by his activity in the first weeks of the war, seizing the king's Commissioners of Array, occupying Oxford, and defeating the Cavaliers in many small skirmishes. He arrived too late to fight at Edgehill, but both after that battle, and after the battle of Brentford, urged vigorous measures on Essex, and in the Committee of Safety argued for a march direct on Oxford. After the capture of Reading in 1643, he again counselled in vain a direct attack on the king's headquarters. On June 18, 1643, at Chalgrove Field, in endeavouring to prevent the retreat of a body of cavalry which had made a sally from Oxford, he was mortally wounded and died six days later. Clarendon describes him as "a very wise man and of great parts, possessed with the most absolute faculties to govern the people of any man I ever knew." His influence depended not on his ability as a speaker, or skill as a soldier, but on his energy and character. "He was very temperate in diet, and a supreme governor over all his passions and affections, and had thereby a great power over all other men's. He was of an industry and vigilance not to be tired out or wearied by the most laborious, and of parts not to be imposed upon by the most subtle or sharp, and of a personal courage equal to his parts."

Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion*; Nugent, *Memorials of Hampden*; Foster, *British Statesmen*; Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng., 1603—1642*.

[C. H. F.]

Hampden, John (*d.* 1696), grandson of the famous John Hampden, distinguished himself by his opposition to the succession of the Duke of York, on the ground of his religion. Later, he was implicated in the Rye House Plot, and was arrested, together with Essex, Russell, and others (1683). On this occasion, though his life was spared, he was condemned to pay an enormous fine (£40,000). After the Revolution, he was chairman of a committee appointed to prepare an address to William III. inveighing against the conduct of Louis XIV. The same year (1689) he is found attacking Lord Halifax, not only in the House of Commons, but before the Lords. In 1690 he failed to obtain a seat in the Tory Parliament elected that year. Disappointed in his ambition, and perhaps ashamed of the reproaches his own conduct brought upon him, he committed suicide a few years later.

Hampden, Dr., The Case of (1847). Notwithstanding the fact that his doctrines were in many quarters considered to be highly unorthodox, especially by the Tractarian party, Dr. R. Hampden, Fellow of Oriel and Principal of St. Mary Hall, had been appointed in 1836 Regius Professor of Divinity in the University of Oxford by Lord Melbourne. This appointment was censured by the convocation of the university, and, in consequence, the university authorities deprived him of the privilege of granting certificates to the candidates for holy orders who attended his lectures. In spite of this, in 1847 Lord John Russell advised the crown to appoint him to the vacant see of Hereford. This produced a great outcry, and a strong protest from many of the High Church clergy. The forms of election were, however, gone through, in spite of the opposition of the Dean of Hereford. The election was formally confirmed in the Court of Arches, and an appeal was made in vain to the Court of Queen's Bench. Bishop Hampden died in 1868.

Hampton Court was a palace built by Cardinal Wolsey. From Wolsey's possession it passed into the hands of the king, and has continued to be the property of the crown ever since. Henry VIII. greatly enlarged it, and formed around it a royal park. Having been, until George II.'s time, a favourite residence of the Kings of England, Hampton Court has naturally been the scene of several interesting events in the history of our royal family. The birth of Edward VI., the death of his mother, Jane Seymour, and the famous conference of James I.'s reign between the High Church party and the Puritans, all took place there. Charles I. was imprisoned there for a time during the Commonwealth, and the palace was the occasional residence of Protector Cromwell, and, in later years, of Charles II. and James II. By William III. the palace was to a great extent rebuilt, and its park and gardens laid out in the formal Dutch style.

Hampton Court Conference (1604). On the accession of James I. there was a general feeling that some concessions might be made both to the extreme High Church and the extreme Presbyterian sections of the nation. The leading Puritans were ready to soften down their demands, and a great part of the laity—Bacon amongst the number—were, at all events, not opposed to a compromise. On his progress to London, James had received the "Millenary Petition" from the clergy, and in the January of 1604 gave orders for a conference to be held between representatives of the Established Church and the Puritans. The Archbishop of Canterbury, eight bishops, and other Church dignitaries,

were the champions on the one side; four moderate Puritans on the other. But the nomination of the last party was a mere farce. They were not admitted to the discussions between the king and the bishops, which were carried on in the presence of the Lords of the Council. In this manner, the extent of the concessions that would be granted was arranged before the complainants' case was heard; and when, on the second day, the Puritan spokesman, Reynolds, proposed some alterations in the articles, and proposed to introduce the Lambeth Articles, and to inquire into the authority for confirmation, Bishop Bancroft interrupted him, and kneeling down before the king, begged him not to listen to a "schismatic speaking against his bishops." Then the conference proceeded to discuss questions of doctrine, and James accepted Reynolds's proposal for a new translation of the Bible. The debate next passed on to the comparative value of a learned and unlearned ministry, of prayers, and of preaching; but each party wished in the first place to make its own views and customs binding on the other; the true spirit of compromise was absent. At last the subject of "prophesyings" (q.v.) came forward, a religious exercise of which many moderate men like Bacon did not disapprove; but, unluckily, Reynolds proposed that disputes during the prophesyings should be settled by the bishop and his presbytery. James took offence at the word, which reminded him of all that he had endured in Scotland. From this moment the question was settled, and on the third day's conference the king and the bishops agreed to a few trifling alterations in the Prayer-book and to the appointment of commissions with a view to inquire into the best means for obtaining a preaching clergy. It was then announced to the Puritans that they would have to subscribe to the whole Prayer-book, the Articles, and the King's Supremacy. And so the Hampton Court Conference ended, without any reasonable concessions having been made to the Puritan party.

Cardwell, *Conferences*; S. R. Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng., 1603—1642.*

Hanover, The House of, to which His Majesty Edward VII. belongs, is lineally descended from the famous Guelfs, or Welfs, of Bavaria, who, in the twelfth century, struggled for the Empire against the Hohenstaufen, and gave their name to the Papal faction of mediæval Italy. Henry the Proud became Duke of Saxony as well as Duke of Bavaria, and in 1180, on the fall of his son Henry the Lion, the allodial lands of the Guelfic house in the former duchy were saved from the forfeiture which befell their greater possessions. After the last struggle of Otto IV., aided by his uncles Richard and John of England, the Guelfs acquiesced in their new position, and in 1235 the districts of Brunswick and Lüneburg were erected into a duchy in their favour by Frederick II. After various partitions and reunions the whole of the duchy of Brunswick fell, in 1527, into the hands of Duke Ernest, a zealous adherent of Luther. His two sons effected a partition of the duchy, which has continued until the present day. The elder son of Ernest became the Duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel. The present Duke of Brunswick is his descendant. William, the younger son of Ernest, became Duke of Brunswick-Lüneburg, and is the ancestor of the house of Hanover. A farther division of Lüneburg was made in favour of George, the only one of William's seven sons who was allowed to marry. He was made Duke of Calenberg, with the town of Hanover for his capital, Celle being the chief town of Lüneburg. After various shiftings, his second son, George William, became Duke of Lüneburg or Celle; and his fourth son, Ernest Augustus, Duke of Calenberg or Hanover (1679). The latter was an able and ambitious prince. He introduced primogeniture, and married Sophia, the daughter of Frederick, the Elector Palatine, and Elizabeth, daughter of James I. of England. In 1692 his constant adherence to the cause of the Emperor was rewarded by the creation of a ninth electorate in his favour, on conditions which ensured his hearty support to the league against Louis XIV. This electorate was properly called the electorate of Brunswick (*Kurbraunschweig*), but as the Dukes of Wolfenbüttel had especially appropriated the title of Dukes of Brunswick with their claims over that once free town, the new Electors were often called Electors of Hanover, which name, hitherto strictly confined to the town, was henceforth used as the name of the district as well. The Act of Settlement (1701) made the Electress Sophia heiress to the English throne. Ernest had already died in 1698, and their son George Louis, by marrying Sophia Dorothea of Celle, the daughter and heiress of George William of Lüneburg, succeeded on the latter's death, in 1705, to his dominions. Calenberg and Lüneburg were thus reunited, and the new Elector put in possession of dominions more adequate to sustain his dignity. In 1714 he became King of England. From that date to 1837 the electorate of Hanover and the English monarchy were united. In 1815 it was erected into a kingdom with large accessions of territory. But in 1837 the accession of Queen Victoria made the Duke of Cumberland King of Hanover, as males only were allowed to occupy that throne. Thirty years of arbitrary government and of violated constitutions, led to the absorption of Hanover into the Prussian state after the war of 1866.

The house of Hanover has continued to reign in England since George Louis became George I. in 1714.

Speaking very roughly, we may divide the Hanoverian period of English history into three sections. From 1714 to 1761 the Whig oligarchy governed the country. After a few years of transition, a long period of Tory rule, 1770—1830, culminates in the reaction against the French Revolution. With 1830 begins the period of Reform, in which we are still engaged. George I. (1714—1727) ascended the throne as the pledged supporter of the Whig party, to whose triumph he owed the throne, and by whose principles alone he could claim it. Ignorant of the English language, government, and constitution, he suffered without much difficulty the authority of the crown to pass into the hands of the ministry which had the confidence of Parliament, and was content if his demands for money were satisfied, and if the foreign policy of England was framed with special regard to the interest of his electorate. Under him, as under his son, George II. (1727—1760), England, in the unmeasured language of Opposition orators, "became a province of a despicable electorate." But it may be doubted whether the policy of England and the policy of Hanover did not generally coincide, except perhaps so far as the jealousy of a petty German prince at the rise of Prussia for a time brought English influence rather to bear against the development of the great state which was ultimately to bring unity to Germany. But despite the personal hostility of George II. and Frederick the Great, the crisis of the Seven Years' War forced them into an alliance which saved Prussia and covered England with glory. George II. had been content to govern on the lines of his father; but his son Frederick, Prince of Wales, became the centre of a new Toryism that had its highest expression in Bolingbroke's *Idea of a Patriot King*. George III., the son of Frederick (1760—1820), began a new epoch in the history of the house of Hanover, by carrying into practice Bolingbroke's theories, and by endeavouring to secure for the king personally the exercise of those prerogatives which the practice of George I. and George II. had handed over to his ministers. His first triumph under Lord North was for a time ended by the Coalition, but under Pitt his ideas finally gained the victory, and the new Toryism of the reaction from the French Revolution found in him a centre for its loyalty. Proud of his "British" nationality, and more intent on home than foreign politics, the dependence of English policy on Hanoverian interests nearly ceased, and the long occupation of that country by Napoleon (1803—1814), almost cut the connection between the kingdom and the electorate. George IV., who, first as Regent (1810—1820), and then as king (1820—1830), was his successor, was too feeble and self-indulgent, too destitute of fixed principle and courage to maintain his father's position. He managed to stave off reform in England and Hanover; but his brother, William IV. (1830–7), while accepting the Reform Bill of 1832 in England, gave a Constitution to Hanover in 1833. The constitutional rule of Queen Victoria (1837–1901), and the practical wisdom of her husband, enabled the transition back from the practice of George III. to the practice of George I. to be made without friction or difficulty. In 1901 Edward VII. ascended the throne and continued Queen Victoria's policy. It is hard to formulate any general characteristics of the rule of the house of Hanover in England. Under them the constitution has been preserved, and the material aspects of the country revolutionised. Without any lofty ability, their good sense and power to see things as they are have made them well adapted to occupy the difficult position into which they have been elevated.

The best general histories of England during the Hanoverian period are Lord Stanhope's *History of England, 1713—1783*; Massey's *History of the Reign of George III.*; Miss Martineau's *History of the Thirty Years' Peace*; Charles Knight's *Popular History of England*; Spencer Walpole's *History of England since 1815*; Molesworth's *History of England* for the same period; and Dr. Pauli's *Geschichte Englands seit 1814*. The constitutional history of the reign of George I. and II. is given in Hallam, and that of the subsequent period in Sir Erskine May's *Constitutional History, 1760—1870*; while Bagehot's *English Constitution* gives us the modern theory of the Constitution. The *History of Our Own Times* is pleasantly but superficially told by Mr. Justin McCarthy. Mr. Lecky's *History of England during the Eighteenth Century* is practically a series of luminous essays on important points of eighteenth century history, and is particularly valuable for Irish affairs. The history of the house of Hanover in Germany may be found in Hune's *Geschichte des Königreichs Hannover und Herzogthums Braunschweig*, or in Schaumann, *Handbuch der Geschichte der Lande Hannover und Braunschweig*.

[T. F. T.]

Hanover, The Treaty of (Sept. 3, 1725), between England, France, and Prussia, was rendered necessary by the Treaty of Vienna (April 20, 1725) between Spain and Austria. By the secret article of the treaty, marriages between the two houses were arranged; Austria and Spain pledged themselves to assist the restoration of the Stuarts, and to compel, if necessary by force, the restoration of Gibraltar and Minorca. The Jacobite leaders were in direct communication with Ripperda. In opposition to this alliance, Walpole and Townshend obtained the accession of France and Prussia to a confederacy of which England was the centre. In case of any attack on one of the contracting parties, the others were to furnish a certain quota in troops, or the value in ships and money; and, in case of need, should agree concerning further succours. The real objects of the treaty were to counterbalance the Treaty of Vienna, compel the Emperor to relinquish the Ostend Company (which Austria had established for

trade with the Indies in violation of the Barrier Treaty), and to resist any attempts that might be made in behalf of the Pretender. Its objects were successful. The Emperor withdrew from his unfortunate position, and peace was signed at Paris in May, 1727. The Treaty of Hanover was violently attacked by the Opposition during Walpole's administration. Its true justification lies in the terms of the Secret Treaty of Vienna.

Lord Stanhope, *Hist. of England*; Lecky, *Hist. of England during the Eighteenth Century.*

Hansard, Luke (*b.* 1752, *d.* 1828), was at first a compositor in the office of Mr. Hughes, printer to the House of Commons. After two years he became a partner in the firm, and in 1800 the business came entirely into his hands. He managed the issue of the report of Parliamentary proceedings which, down to the year 1803, is known as Cobbett's *Parliamentary History*; and after that date was continued under the title of *Parliamentary Debates* by Hansard. The official report of the proceedings of both Houses of Parliament is now published under the title of "The Parliamentary Debates." [Stockdale.]

Hanseatic League (Hansa), The, was a powerful commercial league very closely bound up with English foreign trade. The Teutonic *hansa* (it first appears in the Gothic translation of the New Testament), signifies a company of men both in a military and non-military sense. So it is used (Luke vi. 7) for a great company of people, and St. Mark (xv. 16) for a band of soldiers; hence comes its more general meaning of any kind of union or assemblage. In the earliest days of the Middle Ages, all foreign merchants stood outside the law of the country in which they were settled for trading purposes; being neither sharers in the rights, nor subject to the duties of the nation in whose midst they had planted themselves. The Hanseatic League of historical times was only a development of the principle of association which bound foreign traders in a strange country into a community for the common protection. In the first stage of its growth (as a league of merchants abroad), the *Hansa* may be said to have grown up chiefly in London; for none of the three other great centres of Teutonic foreign trade — Wisby, Novgorod, and Bruges — was of so early a date, or at the same time composed so purely of foreign merchants in an alien country. Even in the days of Edgar (959—975) there appears to have been a large settlement of German traders in London; and this settlement was early possessed of its own Guildhall or *Hans-hus*, and a body of officers controlling the members and possessions of the society. But it seems that the foreign merchants in London were mostly townsmen of Cologne; and it soon became the rule for all other Germans desirous of sharing in the English trade to join the *hansa* of the men of this city. By the end of the thirteenth century special privileges had been conferred upon the Guildhall of the Germans in London; for this society was gradually coming to embrace all the German merchants settled there (*c.* 1282), and this "Hansa Alemanniæ" included the smaller Hansas of separate German towns as branch houses of itself. Under the name of the Steelyard, it soon came to play a most important part in the foreign trade of this country. The London Hansa acquired the power of judging its own members, and even of settling some disputes between them and Englishmen. In 1282, in consideration of its munificent contribution towards building the new Bishops-gate, the Hansa was allowed to choose its own alderman—to represent it in the city councils, and to be the special protector of its members; but it was, at the same time, bound to make choice of a London merchant. London, however, was not the sole seat of this foreign colony, which had subordinate establishments at other places, such as Lynn and Boston. The special privileges accorded to these stranger tradesmen did not fail to awaken English jealousy in the course of the fourteenth century—the century on which the real Hanseatic League of history may be said to have assumed its true importance by becoming a league of German cities at home; and from this time its political history ceases to be in any peculiar way connected with England. But its commercial importance continued for a long period. Down to the middle of the sixteenth century it was mainly through the hands of the Hanseatic League that the produce of North Europe and Russia reached our shores; and it was this league that brought the furs and sables of Muscovy for the wealthy English, and exported the herrings which abounded on our eastern shores. But the monopoly of trade enjoyed by this league in time awakened the jealousy of the English merchants, and in the reign of Richard II., an Act was passed prohibiting aliens selling to other aliens, or even selling by retail at all (1392); and when the charter of the London Hansa had been renewed some fourteen years earlier, its members were enjoined to "aid, council, and comfort" Englishmen abroad. The exclusive privileges of the league in England were practically extinguished in 1579.

E. Worms, *Histoire Commercial de la Ligue Hanseatique*; D. Macpherson, *Annals of English Commerce*; J. T. Rogers, *History of Agriculture*, vols. i. and iii.; W. Cunningham, *History of English Industry and Commerce.* [T. A. A.]

Hans-hus, The, was the name given to the Guildhall where the merchants and burghers of early English towns met to treat of their by-laws and trade regulations. So in Archbishop Thurstan's (1114) charter

to Beverley he writes: "I will that my burgesses of Beverley shall have their *Hans-hus;* which I will, and grant to them in order that their common business may be done . . . for the amendment of the whole town with the same freedom that the men of York have in their *Hans-hus.*" Another use to which the Hans-hus was put, was as a recognised centre where purchases and sales might be conducted in the presence of lawful witnesses. The Hansa at London dates at least from the time of Ethelred the Unready.

Harcourt, Simon, Lord (*b.* 1660, *d.* 1727), was called to the bar in 1683. He was elected member for Abingdon, in the first Parliament of William III. He was a strong opponent of the Revolution Settlement; and of the attainder of Sir John Fenwick; and in 1701 conducted the impeachment of Lord Somers for his share in the Partition Treaty. Next year he became Solicitor-General and Attorney-General, and in this capacity conducted the prosecution of Daniel Defoe (1703); but his legal abilities were better employed in framing the bill for the Scotch Union. He followed Harley out of office in 1708; and his able defence of Sacheverell, two years later, resulted in the acquittal of that divine. When the Tories came into power in 1710, he was appointed Lord Keeper of the Privy Seal. In the quarrel between Oxford and Bolingbroke, he sided with the latter statesman. On the accession of George I., Lord Harcourt was deprived of office. In 1717 he defeated the impeachment of Oxford. [Harley.] In 1721 he became a convert to Whig principles.

Harcourt, Sir William Vernon (*b.* 1827, *d.* 1904), graduated in high honours at Cambridge in 1851, and was called to the bar in 1854, being appointed a Queen's Counsel in 1866. In 1868 he became Liberal M.P. for Oxford City, migrating to Derby in 1880 and to West Monmouth in 1895. His letters to the *Times* signed "Historicus," on international law during the war in America, attracted attention. He became Solicitor-General and was knighted in 1873. He was made Home Secretary in 1880. In 1886 and 1892–95 he was Chancellor of the Exchequer, and effected an important revision of the Death Duties and of the Income Tax. In 1894 he succeeded Mr. Gladstone as Leader of the House of Commons, a position he resigned in 1898, but remained a prominent Parliamentary figure till his death.

Hardicanute, or **Harthacnut,** King (*s.* March, 1040, *d.* June 1042), was the son of Canute by Emma. On the death of his father in 1035 he got possession of Denmark and laid claim to England. He was supported by Godwin and the West Saxons, and eventually made a treaty with his brother Harold, whereby he should reign in the south and Harold in the north, but in 1037 Harold was chosen king over all, and Hardicanute forsaken because he stayed too long in Denmark. At the same time Emma was driven out and fled to Bruges. Here Hardicanute joined her and was preparing to assert his claims, when in 1040 Harold died. Upon this Hardicanute was unanimously chosen king, but soon proved himself as worthless as his brother. "All his public acts set him before us as a rapacious, brutal, and bloodthirsty tyrant." His first acts were to levy a heavy Danegeld, and order Harold's body to be dug up, beheaded, and thrown into a ditch. The Danegeld led to a revolt at Worcester against the Housecarls, who were killed in their attempt to collect the tax. This rising was speedily crushed, Worcester was burned, and the whole of the shire ravaged. The only other event of importance in this reign is Hardicanute's accusation of Godwin as the murderer of the Atheling Alfred. The trial which ensued resulted in the triumphant acquittal of Godwin, who, to make his peace with the king, presented him with a ship fully manned and equipped. Probably with the idea of regaining popularity, Hardicanute sent over to Normandy for his half-brother Edward, who came and lived at his court. In 1042, while at the marriage-feast of his standard-bearer, Tovi the Proud, Hardicanute suddenly fell down dead as he stood at drink.

Anglo-Saxon Chronicle; **Florence of Worcester; Henry of Huntingdon; Freeman,** *Norman Conquest,* **vol. i.**

Hardinge, Henry, 1st Lord (*b.* 1785, *d.* 1856), entered the army at a very early age, and was present at most of the great battles of the Peninsular War. He distinguished himself greatly at the battle of Albuera, and later, during the Hundred Days, he was entrusted with the important office of Commissioner at the Prussian head-quarters. In this capacity he was with Blucher at the battle of Ligny, but the loss of his left hand, which was taken off by a shot, prevented his presence at Waterloo. During the years of peace that followed, he entered Parliament and held office under the Duke of Wellington and Sir Robert Peel, till the latter minister appointed him Governor-General of India in 1844. His first year of office was marked by the Scinde mutiny. In 1845 the disturbances across the Sutlej, which had followed the death of Runjeet Singh, grew more and more dangerous to the British dominions. The intrigues of Lal Singh and Fej Singh to obtain the supreme power at last ended in their crossing the Sutlej and invading the British territory. The first Sikh War, marked by the brilliant battles of Moodkee and Aliwal, and the crowning victory of Sobraon, lasted till 1846; and in that year Lord Hardinge was able to conclude the pacification of Lahore, by which he hoped to establish the security of the British north-west frontier. The infant

Dhuleep Singh was left as nominal Maharajah at Lahore under the regency of his mother and Lal Singh; and it was finally decided that the British troops should remain for eight years, and so ensure the tranquillity of the Sikhs till the young prince came of age. Part of this plan included the transfer of Cashmere to the rule of Golab Singh. The rest of the year was occupied in suppressing insurrections in Cashmere and Scinde. In 1847 Hardinge, who, in 1846, had been created Viscount Hardinge of Lahore, returned to England. In 1852, on the death of the Duke of Wellington, Lord Hardinge was appointed Commander-in-chief, and in 1852 was advanced to the rank of field-marshal.

Hardwicke, Philip Yorke, 1st Earl of (*b.* 1690, *d.* 1764), the son of an attorney at Dover, was called to the bar in 1715. His political rise was due to Newcastle and Stanhope. He first sat for Lewes in 1718, and was made Solicitor-General in 1720. From that date he became, in succession, Attorney-General (1723), Lord Chief Justice and Lord Hardwicke (1733), and Lord Chancellor (1737). He supported Walpole through his long administration; but towards the close of it he was constrained to disagree with his chief's peace policy, and became an advocate for war. On the fall of Walpole he continued to hold office under Wilmington, and, subsequently, under the Pelhams. In 1753 Lord Hardwicke introduced a new Marriage Act [Marriage Laws.], and, during the debates on it, had a violent quarrel with Henry Fox, who disapproved of it. In 1754 he was raised to an earldom. He went out of office with the Duke of Newcastle, of whose administration he had been the chief supporter. In 1758 he persuaded the Lords to throw out a bill for the extension of Habeas Corpus, and introduced a measure for abolishing hereditary jurisdictions in Scotland. His last great speech was directed against the Treaty of Paris, by which the Seven Years' War was closed. Next year (1764) Lord Hardwicke died, leaving behind him the reputation of being one of the greatest Chancellors that have sat on the Woolsack since the Revolution.

Campbell, *Lives of the Lord Chancellors*; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; Lecky, *Hist. of Eng. during the Eighteenth Century.*

Hardy, Sir Thomas Masterman (*b.* 1769, *d.* 1839), Nelson's favourite captain, was born near Dorchester. He entered the navy at the age of twelve, and was present at the battles of St. Vincent (1797) and the Nile (1798). For his bravery in this last action, Nelson gave him the *Vanguard*. In 1803 he became Nelson's flag-captain, and it was on board his ship, the *Victory*, that Lord Nelson received his fatal wound at the battle of Trafalgar. In later years Hardy commanded the South American squadron, and later still was appointed a Lord of the Admiralty and Governor of Greenwich Hospital (1834).

Hardy, Sir Thomas Duffus (*b.* 1804, *d.* 1878), succeeded Sir Francis Palgrave as Deputy-Keeper of the Public Records in 1861. He was one of the most indefatigable students of early English history. His most important work is a *Descriptive Catalogue of Materials relating to the History of Britain and Ireland to the reign of Henry VII.* (4 vols., Rolls Series). This work has been left incomplete, and does not extend beyond the year 1325. It contains an account of all the original authorities on English history arranged in chronological order, and not only estimates the amount of authority to be assigned to each writer, but also gives a list of MSS. and printed editions supplemented by an account of the author's life and sources of information. Sir Thomas Hardy likewise published a *Syllabus to Rymer's Fœdera* (2 vols.), which is rendered specially valuable by its chronological tables giving the legal, civil, and ecclesiastical years in parallel columns, with the regnal years of each English sovereign, and the day of the month on which each begins.

Hardyng, John (*b.* 1378, *d.* 1465), was brought up as a dependant of the Percies from the age of twelve. He was present at the battle of Shrewsbury, and was afterwards a faithful servant of Edward, Duke of York, subsequently Edward IV. He composed a Chronicle extending from the earliest times to Henry VI.'s flight into Scotland. He was at great pains to get original documents from Scotland, which he gave to the last three kings in whose reigns he lived. His Chronicle, which was edited by Sir H. Ellis in 1812, is not of much value, being chiefly composed of facts collected from earlier writers, and loosely thrown into rhyme. For the years of his own life he may be regarded as an original authority. Hardyng's Chronicle was continued in prose in the next century by Richard Grafton.

Harfleur, a town of France, lying some six miles from Havre, was taken by Henry V. Sept. 22, 1415. It was besieged by the Count d'Armagnac and relieved by the Duke of Bedford the following year. The English were expelled in 1433, but once more obtained possession of the city in 1440, and held it till 1449, when they were driven out by Dunois.

Harlaw, The Battle of (July 24, 1411), was fought between the invading Islesmen, under Donald of the Isles, and the Lowland troops, under the Earl of Mar. Donald was completely defeated.

Harley, Robert, Earl of Oxford (*b.* 1661, *d.* 1724), was the eldest son of Sir Edward Harley, a Puritan who had sat in the Long Parliament, and who declared for

William III. at the Revolution. Robert Harley began his political career as the Whig member for a Cornish borough; but he gradually changed his politics, and adopted Toryism. In 1690 he was appointed one of the arbitrators for uniting the two East India Companies; and in 1696 he, as leader of the Tories, proposed the Land Bank scheme as a rival to the Bank of England. Next year he moved that the army should be reduced to what it had been in the year 1680, and when the measure was carried, William was forced to dismiss his Dutch guards. In 1701 he was chosen Speaker of the Commons. In 1704 Marlborough, who had broken with the extreme High Tories, selected him to succeed Nottingham as Secretary of State, and in 1706 he was appointed one of the commissioners for the Treaty of Union with Scotland. Finding that the Tories were being gradually ousted from the ministry, he used the influence of his cousin, Mrs. Masham, for the purpose of intriguing against Marlborough. He represented to Anne that Church interests were in danger, and the queen was encouraged to create Dr. Blackall and Sir William Dawes Bishops of Exeter and Chester respectively, without consulting her ministers (1707). Marlborough and Godolphin at once determined to break with Harley. It was discovered that one Gregg, a clerk in his office, was in correspondence with France, and this was made a ground for his dismissal. Though the queen was difficult to move, she yielded at last, and Harley resigned his office in 1708. On the sudden fall of the Whigs, Harley became Chancellor of the Exchequer, and virtually Prime Minister (1710), with Bolingbroke for his colleague and rival. Harley at once began to negotiate a peace with France, while at the same time he intrigued with the Jacobite court at St. Germains. Guiscard (q.v.), a French refugee, who had frequently been consulted by Marlborough, now offered to betray the English plans to the French, and on the detection of his correspondence, he stabbed Harley with a penknife while under examination before the Council. This wound, and the South Sea Company started by Harley at this time, made him very popular, and the queen created him Earl of Oxford and Lord Treasurer. Meanwhile the negotiations for peace were being carried on. Marlborough was dismissed from office, and the hostile majority in the Lords was neutralised by the creation of twelve peers. In March, 1713, the Peace of Utrecht was signed. But dissensions broke out in the ministry. Bolingbroke wished for a Stuart restoration; Oxford was averse to such an extreme measure. Bolingbroke, in order to get rid of the Lord Treasurer, introduced the Schism Act, a measure conceived entirely in the High Church spirit. Afraid to offend the Dissenters, Oxford acted with great indecision, and was in consequence dismissed (July, 1714). After the accession of George I., Oxford was impeached by the Commons; but the proceedings against him were dropped, as it would have been impossible to substantiate the charges of treason. Enraged at the treatment he had met with, Harley wrote from the Tower, offering his services to the Pretender; but on his release he retired into the country. In 1721 the leadership in Bishop Atterbury's plot was offered him, but he declined it. "Oxford seems," says Lord Stanhope, "to have possessed in perfection a low sort of management, and all the base arts of party, which enabled him to cajole and keep together his followers, and to sow divisions amongst his enemies." He was also a great lover of literature, and a friend of the leading men of letters of his day—of Swift and Pope among the number. His splendid collection of MSS. still forms one of the chief treasures of the British Museum.

Stanhope, *Reign of Queen Anne*; Swift, *Last Four Years of Queen Anne's Reign*; Bolingbroke, *Letters*; Pope, *Correspondence*; Boyer, *Annals*; Torcy, *Mémoires*. [S. J. L.]

Harold I., King (*s.* Nov., 1035, *d.* March 17, 1040), was reported to be the son of Canute, by Elgiva (Ælfgifu) of Northampton; but the supporters of the claims of Hardicanute (Harthacnut) contended that his parentage was, in the highest degree, doubtful. After Canute's death the rival claims of Harold and Hardicanute were eagerly debated, the former being supported by Leofric, the Danish party, and the city of London; the latter by Godwin and the West Saxons, as well as by his mother Emma. The result was that Harold obtained the country to the north of the Thames, and Hardicanute got Wessex, which, during his absence in Denmark, was administered by Godwin and Emma. In 1036 the two sons of Ethelred made an attempt to recover their father's kingdom, but failed; whereupon the younger, Alfred, was taken and put to death by Harold. In 1037 the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle tells us "they chose Harold over all the kings, and forsook Harthacnut, because he was too long in Denmark." Thus, in Mr. Freeman's words, "England again became one kingdom under one king, an union which, since that day, has never been broken." Harold at once banished Emma, who retired to Flanders, but reconciled himself with Godwin and the English party. His reign is not remarkable for anything, and of his administration absolutely nothing is known. Great corruption, however, appears to have prevailed in the Church under his government. We read of bishoprics being held in plurality, and being sold for money, as well as of many other abuses. In 1039 Hardicanute, who had joined his mother at Bruges, prepared an expedition against his brother, but before it set sail Harold had died at Oxford, March 17, 1040. We do not hear of his having had wife or children. He was buried

at Westminster, but, by Hardicanute's orders, his body was dug up and thrown into a ditch. Of Harold's character nothing is known. His chief accomplishment would appear to have been swiftness in running, for which he received the *sobriquet* of "Harefoot."

Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, i.

Harold II., King (*b. circa* 1021, *s.* Jan. 6, 1066; *d.* Oct. 14, 1066), was the second son of Earl Godwin and Gytha. When still young, he shared in the splendid fortunes of his father, and about 1045 was made Earl of the East Angles. Of the early part of his official career no record remains; his public prominence began with the misfortunes of his house. In the struggle of 1051 he led the men of his earldom to Beverstone to his father's support, fell from power, and was outlawed with him; but he and Leofwine, taking a different road from their fellow outlaws, went to Dublin, where they passed the winter. Appearing next year in the Bristol Channel with nine ships, Harold landed at Porlock, slew thirty opposing thanes and many people, ravaged and robbed without stint, and then sailed away to join his father at Portland. In the restoration of the Godwin family that ensued, Harold was reinstated in his former earldom (1052). His successful activity on this occasion, and the death of his elder brother, Sweyn, marked him for special distinction; and in 1053, when his father died, he at once succeeded him as Earl of the West Saxons.

Henceforward Harold was the foremost figure and weightiest influence in English politics. Till he became king, almost every important event and action of his own added strength to his position, or increased his reputation. On the death of Siward, in 1055, his brother Tostig became Earl of the Northumbrians. In the same year he rescued Hereford and the country round it from the marauding Welsh, under King Griffith and the refugee Earl Alfgar, chased the invaders back to Wales, and fortified Hereford. Two years later, Herefordshire was placed under his immediate rule; and in a short time his brother Gurth was raised to the East Anglian earldom, while the shires of the south-east were grouped into another for Leofwine. In 1058 Harold was the head of a house whose members divided among them the rule of three-fourths of England. The pious King Edward had practically placed the power of the crown at Harold's disposal. This power and his own he used to check the spread of Norman influence, and the encroachments of the king's Norman favourites. Nature and fortune now clearly pointed to him as the heir of the almost heirless king. Tall and stalwart, comely and gentle, he drew men's eyes and hearts towards him. He had, moreover, enlarged his mind, and added to his capacity by foreign travel, especially by a journey to Rome. Yet his position was seriously compromised by an unlucky adventure. Having once been shipwrecked on the coast of Ponthieu, he was, after a short captivity, given up by Count Guy to William of Normandy, from whose compulsory hospitality he had to purchase his release by taking an oath to support his host's claim to the English throne. No trace, however, of a belief that this oath was binding can be seen in his subsequent conduct. In 1060 he founded the religious house known later as Waltham Abbey. In 1063 he was provoked by the raids of King Griffith into a systematic invasion of Wales, in which he overran the country "from dyke to sea," routing the Welsh in every encounter, and slaughtering them without mercy. Griffith's head was brought to him, whereupon he married his widow, Aldgyth, daughter of Earl Alfgar, and sister to the young Mercian earl, Edwin. In 1065, when the Northumbrians rose against Tostig, a sense of justice or policy made Harold take their part, and gain the king's sanction to the transfer of their earldom to another brother-in-law, Morcar.

The day after the king's death (Jan. 6, 1066), he "took," as the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle words it, "to the kingdom," being crowned king by virtue of some form of election and the bequest of King Edward. During "the forty weeks and one day" of his reign, his vigilance was never once allowed to sleep. His outlawed brother, and the rival candidate he had forestalled, were planning and preparing his destruction; and the former, repulsed in one or two attempts on the coast, had allied himself with Harold Hardrada, King of Norway. In September he and his ally made their invasion; and Harold had just time to march to York, meet and destroy them at Stamford Bridge, when his more terrible foe, William the Norman, came with a mighty power to challenge his crown. On October 14 the rivals measured their strength at Senlac in Sussex [Hastings, Battle of]; and the Englishman, after an unsurpassed display of stubborn valour, was overthrown and slain at six in the evening. His body, mangled by Norman ferocity, was singled out from the enclosing heap of corpses by a former mistress, Edith Swanneck, and buried either on the sea-shore or the minster at Waltham.

Anglo-Saxon Chronicle; Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, vols. ii. and iii. [J. R.]

Harold Hardrada (*d.* 1066), King of Norway, was the son of Sigurd and the brother of St. Olaf. In his early years he had served in the Emperor's guard at Constantinople, and made a pilgrimage to Jerusalem. He came home and reigned with his nephew, Magnus the Good, becoming sole king after Magnus's death. He had long planned the conquest of England, and was in the Orkneys with a great fleet when Tostig was beaten from the

east coast. On his way to the Humber Tostig joined his expedition, and they sailed up the Humber together, and marched on York. Victorious at first at Fulford, they gained possession of York; but Harold proved too strong for them, and the Norwegian force was defeated, and the two leaders slain, at Stamford Bridge (Sept. 25, 1066).

Anglo-Saxon Chronicle; Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, ii., iii.

Harrington, JAMES (*b.* 1611, *d.* 1677), after studying at Trinity College, Cambridge, travelled abroad and entered the service of Elizabeth, Queen of Bohemia. He subsequently returned to England and entered the household of Charles I. He was, however, a republican, and in 1656 wrote and dedicated to Cromwell a political romance called *Oceana*, intended to promote republican principles. With the same view, Harrington formed an association called the "Rota Club." In 1661 he was imprisoned in the Tower, but released on the plea of insanity.

Harrington's *Works* (ed. Birch), 1737.

Harrington, WILLIAM STANHOPE, 1ST EARL OF (*d.* 1756), was sent as ambassador to Spain (1717), and two years later went on a mission to the French army. He was plenipotentiary at the Congress of Soissons (1728). In 1730 he was again despatched to Spain, where he concluded the Treaty of Seville. He was immediately created Lord Harrington, and shortly afterwards became Secretary of State. He consistently supported Walpole for many years, but in 1738 we find him in opposition to that minister, warmly advocating war with Spain. In 1742 he was created an earl, and Lord President of the Council, but on the resignation of Lord Granville he again became Secretary of State. In 1746 he resigned, because the Pelhams wished for the admission of Pitt to office, and was transferred to the lord-lieutenancy of Ireland, which appointment he resigned in 1751.

Tindal, *Hist.*; Coxe, *Hist. of Eng.*; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*

Harrison, THOMAS (*b.* 1606, *d.* 1660), was a native of Newcastle-under-Lyme. At the opening of the Civil War he entered Essex's body-guard. He was in command of the guard that conveyed the king from Hurst Castle to London; he was also one of the king's judges, and signed his death-warrant. Harrison was commanding on the northern border when the Scots entered England under Charles II. He obstructed their march with great ability, and took part in the battle of Worcester. Already he had been elected a member of the Council of State (1650), but becoming "fully persuaded that the Parliament had not a heart to do any more good for the Lord and His people," he assisted Cromwell in expelling both Council and Parliament. In the "Barebones" Parliament Harrison was one of the leaders of the advanced party, and an opponent of the dissolution. Roger Williams describes him as the head of "the fifty-six party," who "were of the vote against priests and tithes," "the second in the nation of late," "a very gallant, most deserving, heavenly man, but most high-flown for the kingdom of the saints and the Fifth Monarchy." Cromwell, after vainly trying to conciliate him, deprived him of his commission and relegated him to Staffordshire. Harrison took part in Overton's plot (1654), and was suspected of taking part in Venner's (1657), and other plots, for which he was several times imprisoned. At the Restoration he refused to fly, and was condemned to death after a very gallant defence, in which he justified the king's execution. He was executed on October 13, 1660, saying, "If I had ten thousand lives, I could freely and cheerfully lay them all down to witness to this matter."

Harrowby, DUDLEY RYDER, 1ST EARL OF (*b.* 1762, *d.* 1847), entered public life as member for Tiverton. He was a strong supporter of Mr. Pitt, under whom he held many offices in succession, till he succeeded to the peerage in 1803. The following year he was appointed Foreign Secretary, and in 1805 was despatched to Berlin with a view to forming an offensive alliance with Prussia. The battle of Austerlitz, however, put an end to all hopes of uniting Europe against Napoleon, and Lord Harrowby returned home. Three years later he became President of the Board of Control, and was created an earl. In 1812 he became President of the Council, an office which he continued to hold for sixteen years. In the days of the first Reform Bill he was requested to form a cabinet, but declined to undertake so responsible a duty, and it consequently devolved on the Duke of Wellington. On the question of Reform he became leader of that section of the peers known by the title of "the Waverers," who, though disapproving of the new measures, felt that obstinate resistance to so popular a movement would entail disaster. From this time he took little part in politics.

Stanhope, *Life of Pitt*; Liverpool, *Memoirs*; Castlereagh, *Memoirs*.

Hartington, SPENCER COMPTON CAVENDISH, MARQUIS OF (*b.* 1833, *d* 1908), who became Duke of Devonshire in 1891, was returned to the House of Commons as one of the members for North Lancashire in the Liberal interest in 1857. In the year 1863 he was appointed a Lord of the Admiralty, and in April of the same year Under Secretary for War. On the reconstruction of Lord Russell's second administration in 1866 the Marquis of Hartington took office as Secretary for War. In 1868 he was returned for the Radnor Boroughs, and accepted the office of Postmaster-General in Mr. Gladstone's

cabinet. In 1871 he became Chief Secretary for Ireland. When Mr. Gladstone in 1875 abandoned the leadership of the Liberal party, Lord Hartington assumed the post, but in 1880 accepted office under his old chief. He became Secretary for India, and subsequently (1882) for War, but refused to enter the Home Rule Cabinet in 1886, became the leader of the Dissentient Liberals, and firmly supported Lord Salisbury. On the retirement of Lord Salisbury in 1902, he became Leader of the House of Lords, but resigned office in the Ministry in 1903 in consequence of his devotion to the principles of Free Trade.

Harvey, Bagenal (*d.* 1798), of Burgay Castle, a gentleman of property in county Wexford, was arrested as a rebel in May, 1798, and confined, together with Colclough and Fitzgerald, in the city gaol. Being sent out to treat with the rebels, after the city had been evacuated by the troops, he was induced to become their leader; but showed such disgust at the massacre of Scullabrogue that he was deposed from his command. When the troops retook the town he concealed himself, together with Colclough, in one of the Saltee Islands, but they were both taken, sentenced to death, and hanged (June 27, 1798).

J. A. Froude, *English in Ireland*; Barrington, *Memoirs.*

Hastenbeck, The Battle of (July 26, 1757), near Hameln, in Hanover, was one of the engagements of the Seven Years' War. The Duke of Cumberland, with a motley army of about 50,000 men, was defeated by the French with 80,000, and compelled to retire on Slade, near the mouth of the Elbe. [Closter-Seven; Cumberland.]

Hastings, The Battle of (Oct. 14, 1066), is the name usually given to the great combat which took place at Senlac, near Hastings, between the invading Normans, under William the Conqueror, and the English, under Harold. On the news of William's landing in Sussex, Harold held a hurried council at Stamford Bridge, and, after ordering a general muster in London, pressed southwards himself at the head of his Housecarls. At London, men flocked in from all southern England; but Mercia and Northumbria, the provinces of Edwin and Morcar, held aloof. Rejecting the advice which his brother Gurth is said to have given him, to stay behind and gather troops for a second battle if the first should issue in defeat, Harold set forth from the city, and pitched his camp on the hill of Senlac (Oct. 13). This hill he proceeded to fortify with a palisade and a ditch. After a night of confession and prayer, the Norman army advanced over the higher ground of Telham to the valley which ran along the foot of Harold's fortified hill. The Norman army was divided into three parts, of which the left wing, consisting of Bretons, Poitevins, &c., was under the direction of Alan of Brittany; the right wing, consisting of the mercenary troops, under Roger Montgomery and William Fitz-Osbern: while in the centre, grouped round the Holy Banner of the Pope, came the Norman men-at-arms and archers, led by the duke himself, mounted on his Spanish horse. Each of these divisions was again subdivided into three groups of archers, infantry, and horsemen respectively, in which order they were to advance to the fight. On the English side, every man fought behind the barricades of ash, on foot. On the right and left were posted the light-armed recruits from the southern shires, armed with club and javelin, or even with forks and stakes; in the centre stood the English Housecarls, in their helmets and coats of mail, with shield and javelin and Danish axe. The battle commenced, at nine o'clock in the morning, with a shower of arrows from the advanced archers of each Norman division; then the heavy-armed foot came on to attack the palisade at the bottom of the hill; but they could make no impression upon the closely-wedged ranks of the English defenders. The Bretons, on the left wing, seeing all efforts useless, took to flight, and part of the English troops, against Harold's express orders, broke from their ranks in pursuit. A rumour was passed along that William had been slain, and he had to tear his helmet from his head to show them that he was yet living, while, spear in hand, he drove the fugitives back to the fight. The Bretons then took heart again, and overpowered their disorganised pursuers. Despite a partial success here and on the right wing, the English lines still remained unbroken, and the enemy had to retire once more. William, however, had noticed that, firmly as the English fought in close rank behind their fortification, they had fallen an easy prey to the Breton auxiliaries when separated in the ardour of pursuit. He accordingly ordered part of his army to counterfeit a flight; and once more the English swept down from the hill, only to meet with a similar fate, though a few of them managed to make good their position on an out-lying elevation. The Norman centre made its way, unopposed, up the slope to its left, which was now unprotected by its proper defenders, and when once on the hill summit had no barricade to bar its progress. But still the English held out, till William had recourse to a fresh stratagem. His archers were bidden to shoot up into the air, so that their arrows might come down from above. This had the desired effect. The shields which were required for the protection of the head could no longer shelter the body too; and, to crown all, Harold himself was pierced in the eye by an arrow. Night was now coming on, and though the Housecarls fought

on till the last man was slain, the light-armed troops, having lost their king, fled away in the darkness, pursued by the Norman horse; and the battle was lost.

Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, vol. iii. The accuracy of his account, especially with regard to the palisade, was first impugned by Mr. J. H. Round, in the *Quarterly Review* for July, 1892, and has since been the subject of a long controversy between him and the writer of the above article, who, however, sees no reason to make any material alteration in his views as originally expressed. See *Eng. Hist. Rev.*, vol. ix., 1894. The leading original authorities are the *Gesta Guilielmi* of William of Poitiers; the *Carmen de Bello Hastingensi*, by Guy, Bishop of Amiens; and Wace, *Roman de Rou*. These sources of information are largely supplemented by the invaluable pictorial account known as the Bayeux Tapestry (q.v.).

[T. A. A.]

Hastings, Warren (*b.* 1732, *d.* 1818), the son of a Worcestershire gentleman, in 1750 went to Bengal as a writer in the service of the East India Company. Here he attracted the attention of Clive, and after Plassey, was appointed agent to the Nabob of Moorshedabad for the East India Company. In 1769 he became member of the council at Madras, and in 1772 was appointed Governor of Bengal. In this capacity he devoted himself to retrenchment and reform. Half the nabob's allowance was cut off; Corah and Allahabad, the old cessions to the Mogul, were resumed on pretence of a quarrel, and sold to the Vizier of Oude for fifty lacs of rupees; the land tax was settled on a new basis which produced more revenue with less oppression; and lastly, in his need for money, British troops were let to the Vizier of Oude for forty lacs of rupees, in order that that prince might be able to destroy his enemies, the neighbouring tribe of Rohillas, and annex the province of Rohilcund. In 1773 Lord North's Regulating Act took effect, and Hastings became the first Governor-General of India, with powers greatly limited by those of his council, three members of which, headed by Philip Francis, came out full of prejudice against Hastings, who therefore found himself powerless, and in a perpetual minority. Nuncomar, a Brahmin, brought a charge of peculation against him. The rancorous eagerness with which the council took the matter up drove Hastings to desperate measures. Invoking the separate powers confided in the Supreme Court by the Regulating Act, he obtained the arrest of Nuncomar on a charge of forgery. Sir Elijah Impey, the Lord Chief Justice, proceeded thereupon to try, condemn, and hang Nuncomar. This bold stroke resulted in the complete triumph of Hastings over his enemies—rendered still more secure by the death of one of the triumvirate in the council, which enabled him to obtain a perpetual majority by means of his casting vote. Once secure in his power he turned his attention to the aggrandisement of the English power in India. Discovering that, owing to the quarrels between the other presidencies and the Mahrattas, war was inevitable, and that the latter were intriguing with the French, he determined to take the initiative, and crush the half-formed confederacy. The Bombay government embraced the cause of Ragonaut Rao Ragoba, a deposed Peishwa, and plunged into a war with the Mahratta regency, in which they were extremely unsuccessful, owing to bad generalship. Hastings sent Colonel Goddard with the Bengal army to accomplish a dangerous march across India, and in 1779 Goddard overran Guzerat, captured Ahmedabad, and finding Scindiah disposed to delay and evasion, attacked and routed him April 14, 1780. Hastings, moreover, despatched another Bengal army to Malwa under Major Popham, who completed the defeat of Scindiah by capturing his almost impregnable fortress of Gwalior. Scindiah concluded a treaty with the English; and by his mediation peace was made between England and the Poonah government. In July, 1780, Hyder Ali overran the Carnatic and threatened Madras. Hastings immediately suspended Whitewell, the Governor of Madras; despatched all available troops to the Carnatic, gave the command to Sir Eyre Coote, and sent large sums of money. The victories of Coote in 1781 restored the English position. On the news of Hyder's advance in 1780, Hastings demanded troops, and £50,000 from Cheyte Sing, Rajah of Benares, a tributary of the English. On his delaying, it was raised to £500,000. This being unpaid Hastings arrested Cheyte Sing, deposed him, and seized all his property. But the Governor-General, being still in want of money, persuaded Asaf ud Dowlah, Vizier of Oude, to assist in robbing his mother and grandmother, the Begums of Oude. Hastings's internal administration was most successful. He dissolved the double government, and transferred the direction of affairs to the English. He created the public offices and service of Bengal. He organised the revenue for the first time on a definite basis. This, moreover, he effected from mere chaos, without any assistance, being on the contrary constantly trammelled by orders from home, and frequently borne down by a majority in council.

Hastings remained at the head of affairs till 1785. By the time of his return peace was now restored to India; there was no opposition in the council; there was no European enemy in the Eastern seas. But in the meanwhile the feeling against him on account of some of his acts, and notably those connected with Oude and the Rohilla War, had been growing very strong at home. At the instance of some of the Whigs, at the head of whom was Burke, he was impeached

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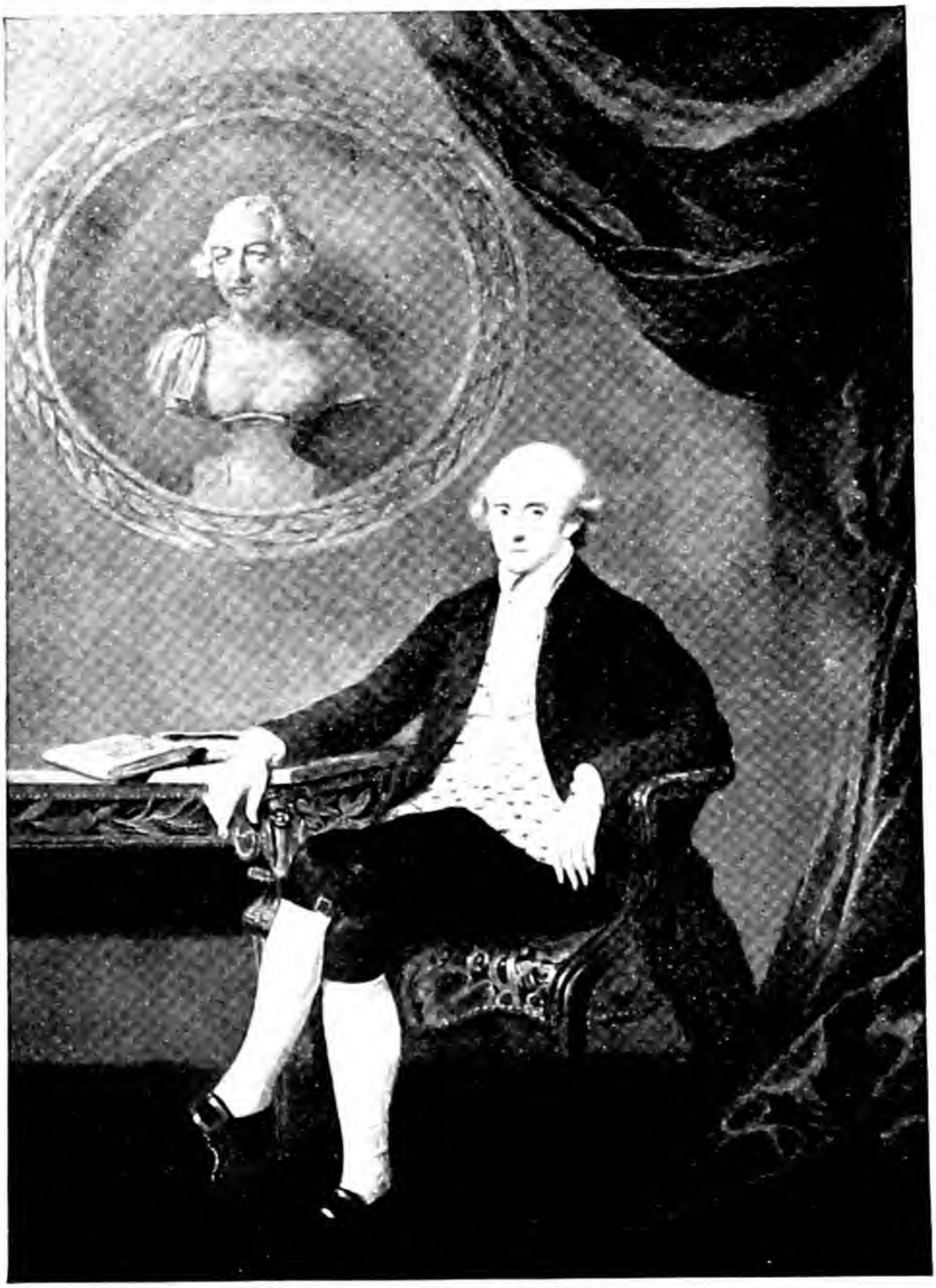


Photo Emery Walker.

WARREN HASTINGS.

From the portrait by Arthur W. Devis, in the National Portrait Gallery.

by the House of Commons. The trial began Feb. 13, 1788, with Burke, Fox, and Sheridan as the principal managers for the Commons. The trial dragged for seven years, and in the end Hastings was acquitted (April 23, 1795). The rest of his life was passed peacefully in England. There is no doubt that Hastings was guilty of some of the worst acts imputed to him; but the surpassing greatness of the work he accomplished, in placing the English Empire in India upon a secure basis, may well have been suffered to outweigh his offences.

State Trials; Wilks, *Mysore*; Grant Duff, *Mahrattas*; Mill, *Hist. of India*; Macaulay, *Essays*; Lyall, *Warren Hastings*. [B. S.]

Hastings, Francis Rawdon-Hastings, 1st Marquis of (*b.* 1754, *d.* 1826), was the son of Sir John Rawdon, afterwards raised to the Irish peerage by the title of Earl of Moira. On leaving Oxford, he entered the army as an ensign, and was before very long engaged in the American War. For his services on this occasion he was made an English peer, in 1783. In 1793 he succeeded to his father's title, and in 1803 was appointed commander-in-chief in Scotland. About the same time, he seems to have paid considerable attention to the condition of poor debtors, and the state of Ireland. In 1813 he was appointed to succeed Lord Minto as Governor-General of India, and commander-in-chief there. His first measure of importance was to declare war (1814) against the Ghoorkas of Nepaul, who had been encroaching on the British territory towards the north of Hindostan. After some initiatory reverses, the English arms were victorious, the Ghoorka limits were defined, and the war brought to an end (1816). For this success, Lord Moira was made Marquis of Hastings. The attention of the Governor-General was next turned to the Mahratta powers, who were supporting the raids of the robber Pindarees. Within a very short period, the Peishwa's dominions were practically annexed, the Pindarees destroyed, the Rajpoot States protected, Scindiah forced to enter upon a new treaty, and the Holkar State compelled to yield up part of its territory, and become a subsidiary state under the protection of the British government (1817—18). Lord Hastings had succeeded in establishing the English power more firmly than ever, and in securing for India a peace which bade fair to be lasting. But it was not only as a great conductor of military operations that his name is worthy of remembrance. He was the first Governor-General who strongly advocated the education of the natives, in direct contravention of the popular notion that their ignorance contributed to the security of the English rule. Native schools and native journals were established under his rule, and with his approval, though the innovation was strongly opposed by most men of his own generation. In 1820, Lord Hastings turned his attention to the Nizam's dominions, where, though the extinction of the Peishwa had relieved the country from its enormous arrears of tribute, every office was put up to bribe, and ruin was imminent. Mr. Charles Metcalfe now was appointed British Resident at the court of Hyderabad; and he, discovering that the Palmer Bank was a main source of corruption, and was compromising the British government, owing to Lord Hastings's connection with one of the partners, took such drastic measures as led to the speedy winding-up of the concern. Shortly after this, Lord Hastings resolved to resign his office. He accordingly left India in 1823, and accepted the government of Malta, where he introduced many reforms. His death occurred in 1826. Though Lord Hastings was constantly at war with the Court of Directors, it must be conceded that it was under his rule that the British power became paramount in India. His labours in India and elsewhere shattered his health, and it is said that his fortune was materially impaired by the expenses of his office.

Mill, *Hist. of British India*; Talboys Wheeler, *Hist. of India*.

Hastings, William, Lord (*d.* 1483), was the son of Leonard Hastings, esquire of Richard, Duke of York. He was a favourite of Edward IV., from whom he received considerable grants of land, besides holding the offices of Master of the Mint, Captain of Calais, and Lord Chamberlain. Though he had supported Richard against the Woodvilles, he was suddenly seized by the Protector's orders while at the council-table, and hurried off to execution on a charge of conspiracy (June, 1483). The reason of this sudden execution seems to have been due to the fact that he was unwilling to second Richard's nefarious schemes for obtaining the throne. Hastings married Margaret Neville, sister of the Earl of Warwick.

Hatfield, The Council of (Sept. 17, 680), was convened by Archbishop Theodore, under the auspices of the leading Anglian and Saxon kings in Britain. This council devoted itself to declaring the orthodoxy of the English Church as regards the Monothelite heresy and its acceptance of the decrees of the five first general councils and the canons of the Lateran Council of 649. John the Precentor, who had been sent over by Pope Agatho to inquire into the faith of the English Church, was present at this synod, and brought with him Benedict Biscop to instruct the English in the art of church-building; while John himself was commissioned to give instructions in church-singing.

Haddan and Stubbs, *Councils and Ecclesiastical Documents*, vol. iii.

Hatherley, William Page Wood, 1st

Lord (*b.* 1801, *d.* 1881), the son of Sir Matthew Wood, was called to the bar at Lincoln's Inn, 1827. He was elected for the city of Oxford in 1847, in the Liberal interest, and continued to represent that constituency till 1852. In 1849 he was appointed Vice-Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, in 1851 he became Solicitor-General, and in 1852 Vice-Chancellor. In 1868 he was appointed a judge of the Court of Appeal in Chancery and sworn of the Privy Council, and in 1868 Lord Chancellor. He resigned in 1872.

Hatton, Sir Christopher (*b.* 1540, *d.* 1591), is said to have first attracted the notice of Queen Elizabeth by his graceful dancing at a ball given by the Inns of Court. He was appointed one of the queen's gentlemen pensioners in 1564, and soon became one of her chief favourites. In 1577 he was appointed Vice-Chamberlain and a member of the Privy Council—the queen's partiality for him causing "much envy and some scandal"—whilst he also took a leading position in the House of Commons. In 1581, Hatton vehemently opposed the marriage of the queen with the Duke of Alençon, and afterwards took an active part in the proceedings against the Queen of Scots. He was a commissioner at the trials of Babington and the other conspirators, and was engaged in the examination of Curle and Nau, Mary Stuart's secretaries. He subsequently incurred the queen's anger for having urged on the despatch of the execution warrant, but was quickly restored to favour, and in April, 1587, succeeded Sir Thomas Bromley as Lord Chancellor, much to the surprise and anger of the bar, many of whose members resolved not to practise before him. Hatton, however, filled his trying post with credit; delivered his judgments with caution and never decided difficult cases unadvised. In 1591, however, he lost the queen's regard, and died, it is said, of a broken heart caused by Elizabeth's conduct in instituting a suit against him to recover a sum of money lent to him in the early days of her favour. Sir Christopher Hatton, though essentially a courtier, was a man of ready wit and great capacity, and is said to have shown great industry when he was Lord Chancellor, and to have made himself tolerably well acquainted with the practice of the Court of Chancery.

Campbell, *Lives of the Chancellors;* Foss, *Lives of the Judges;* Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*

Havelock, Sir Henry (*b.* 1795, *d.* 1857), entered the army in 1815, and in 1823 embarked for Bengal. Next year he went through the first Burmese War, earning considerable distinction for courage and energy. In 1838 he was promoted to a captaincy, and was shortly afterwards sent with his regiment to form part of the force intended to replace Shah Soojah on the throne of Cabul. After the occupation of Cabul, Havelock, with a portion of the army, retired to India, but was shortly recalled at the news of the Cabul massacre. He aided in the defence of Jellalabad against Akbar Khan (1842), and marched with the army to occupy Cabul for the second time, and revenge the English disasters. He took part in the Gwalior campaign (1843), and was present at the battles of Moodkee, Ferozeshar, Aliwal, and Sobraon. He took no part in the second Sikh War, being employed at Bombay. After a short interval spent in England he received the command of a division under Outram, for the Persian War, 1857. When the Indian Mutiny broke out Havelock advanced upon Cawnpore, and defeated Nana Sahib outside the town. He then made his way for Lucknow, but finding his forces too weak to relieve this place, was forced to return to Cawnpore. Here he was joined in September at the Alumbagh, Lucknow, by Sir James Outram, and the two together succeeded in relieving Lucknow. Two months had hardly passed before Sir Henry Havelock died of dysentery (Nov. 24, 1857).

Hawke, Edward, Lord (*b.* 1705, *d.* 1781), became a captain in the Royal Navy in 1734. He distinguished himself in an engagement with the French fleet off Toulon in 1744, and became rear-admiral in 1747. He defeated the French fleet off Belleisle, and at the end of the year was returned for Portsmouth. In 1748 he became vice-admiral. He served in Nova Scotia (1749), and became commander of Portsmouth (1750). In 1755, though war had not yet been declared, he was directed to attack French ships of war. In 1757, on the loss of Minorca, he took command of the Mediterranean fleet, was at the head of the blockading squadron in the Bay of Biscay (1758), and in the following year defeated the French under Marshal Conflans, in Quiberon Bay. In 1765 he became Vice-Admiral of Great Britain and in 1766 First Lord of the Admiralty, and ten years later was raised to the peerage.

M. Burrows, *Life of Lord Hawke.*

Hawkins, Sir John (*b.* 1532, *d.* 1595), one of the most enterprising seamen of Queen Elizabeth's reign, passed most of his youth in making voyages in the interests of commerce. He has incurred the odium of having been the first to establish a trade in slaves (1562), whom he bought in Guinea and sold in Hispaniola (1562—64); on several occasions coming into collision with the Spaniards. In 1573 he was made Treasurer of the Navy, and, after having been nearly murdered by Peter Burchett in mistake for Sir Christopher Hatton, was appointed admiral of the *Victory* at the time of the Spanish Armada; commanding that part of the fleet which was stationed between the Land's End

and the Scilly Islands. For his able and energetic conduct at this crisis, he was knighted and received the thanks of the queen. In 1590 Sir John Hawkins made another expedition to the Spanish Main in conjunction with Sir Martin Frobisher, and five years later sailed for the West Indies with Sir Francis Drake, but died before anything had been accomplished.

Camden, *Annals of Elizabeth*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Burrow, *Naval Worthies*; Fox Bourne, *Eng. Seamen under the Tudors.*

Haxey, Thomas, a prebendary of Southwell, presented a bill of complaint in the Parliament of 1397, on the condition of the king's household. When it was brought under the notice of Richard II., the king was extremely indignant, and demanded the name of its author from the Parliament. Thomas Haxey was pointed out as the offender, and adjudged to die as a traitor. He was, however, saved by the prompt action of Archbishop Arundel, who claimed him as a clergyman. Shortly afterwards he was pardoned. He became treasurer of York Minster in 1418. This case illustrates the fact that, in the fourteenth century, freedom of debate in Parliament was far from established.

Hayward, Sir John (*b.* 1564, *d.* 1627), was a native of Felixstowe, in Suffolk, and was a voluminous author. This writer owes what reputation he possesses to the fact of his being one of the earliest of our English historians, as distinguished from mere annalists. On the publication of his *Life and Reign of Henry IV.*, as the work was dedicated to the Earl of Essex, he was thrown into prison, where he remained till the death of Elizabeth. On the accession of James I., he published two treatises, *On the Right of Succession*, and *The Union of England and Scotland*, for which services he was received into the new king's favour, and was in 1610 appointed Camden's colleague in the office of historiographer to James's proposed college at Chelsea. A few years later he wrote his *Lives of the Three Norman Kings of England*, at Prince Henry's request, and was knighted six years later (1619). After his death two works were found among his MSS.; *The Life and Rayne of Edward VI.* (published 1630), and *Certain Yeres of Elizabeth's Rayne.* The former of these two productions is mainly based on Edward VI.'s diary, and the latter extends over the first four years of the queen's reign. Both are trustworthy and well written. They have been published for the Camden Society with an introduction and life of the author by Mr. John Bruce (1840).

Head, Sir Francis (*b.* 1793, *d.* 1875), was in 1836 appointed Governor of Upper Canada. He was a man of great ability, and eminently successful in dealing with the national party, who were at that time clamouring for reform. Though possessed of much caution, and careful to follow out his instructions from home, he was powerless to avert the insurrection which broke out in Upper Canada at the end of 1837. By his prompt measures, however, he prevented its gaining any considerable ground. In 1838 he retired from his office, owing to a disagreement with Lord Glenelg, the Colonial Minister.

Head-borough (Head-pledge), The, signified the chief man of the Frank-pledge (q.v.). This officer was also known by the name of borough-head, tithing-man, &c., according to the local custom. This head-borough was the chief of the pledges; the other nine who were with him and made up the group were called hand-boroughs. The duties of the head-borough are defined in one of the so-called Laws of Edward the Confessor. If any member of the frank-pledge or tenmannetale had done an injustice to anyone else, and had fled away to escape punishment, the head-borough at the end of twenty-one days had to appear before the justice with two other members of his frank-pledge and six neighbours, and exculpate the body of which he was the head from all complicity in the original wrong and the flight of the evil-doer.

Cowell, *Interpreter*; Stubbs, *Select Charters*, 74.

Hearne, Thomas (*b.* 1678, *d.* 1735), a learned English antiquary, was the son of the parish clerk at Littlefield Green, in Berkshire. His abilities attracted the attention of a gentleman, who first sent him to school and then to Oxford. In the year 1701 he was appointed assistant keeper of the Bodleian Library. In 1716 he was deprived of his office for political reasons; but he still continued to live at Oxford and pursue his antiquarian studies. His principal works were editions of Leland's *Collectanea*, of Camden's *Annals*, Roper's *Life of Sir T. More*, Fordun's *Scotichronicon*, William of Newbury, Robert of Gloucester, Benedict of Peterborough, and Alfred of Beverley. But besides these he issued many other of our old chroniclers.

Hearth Money was a tax of two shillings on every hearth "in all houses paying to Church and poor." It was first imposed by Parliament, 1663, and abolished in 1689. It was always a very unpopular tax. Under the name of "Chimney Money" it dates, as a tax paid by custom, from the Norman Conquest.

Hearts of Steel, The, was an organisation formed in 1772 among the Protestant tenants of Tyrone and Antrim. The landlords had been largely increasing the rents of their tenants, and had taken up with cattle-farming on their own account, with the result that Protestants were replaced by

Catholics. The tenants not only sent a petition to Parliament and to the Lord-Lieutenant, but they also showed their hostility to the intruders by destroying their cattle and burning their houses. An Act was passed against them, and troops sent to the north. On the appearance of the latter the movement collapsed, but was followed by increased emigration.

Heath, Nicholas (*d.* 1578), Archbishop of York and Lord Chancellor, was originally chaplain to Cardinal Wolsey, and obtained the favour of Henry VIII., who appointed him successively to the sees of Rochester and Worcester. In 1551, owing to his opposition to the Reformation, he was deposed from his see, but was reinstated on the accession of Mary, and shortly afterwards made Archbishop of York. At the end of 1555 he succeeded Bishop Gardiner as Lord Chancellor, and speedily proved his utter incompetence as a judge. On the accession of Elizabeth, Heath was deprived of the Great Seal, and on perceiving that the queen intended to re-establish the Protestant religion, declined to assist at her coronation. He shortly afterwards refused to take the oath of supremacy and was deprived of his archbishopric, spending the rest of his days in "study and devotion."

Foss, *Judges of England.*

Heathfield, The Battle of (633), fought between Penda of Mercia and Edwin of Northumbria, resulted in the defeat and death of the latter. The place is probably to be identified with Hatfield, in the West Riding of Yorkshire.

Heathfield, George Augustus Elliot, Baron (*b.* 1717, *d.* 1790), commenced his military career by serving as a volunteer in the Prussian army. On returning home he first entered the ranks of the Engineers at Woolwich, from which he exchanged a few years later into the Horse Grenadiers. With these troops he served in Germany, and was wounded at Dettingen. After taking part in the expedition to Cherbourg and Havannah, he was appointed to the command of the forces in Ireland (1775), but, owing to some difference with the authorities at Dublin, he very soon resigned his post, and returned to England, whence he was despatched, as governor, to Gibraltar. In 1779 began the siege of that important port, and for four years were the governor's ability and endurance taxed to their utmost. In every respect did Elliot show himself equal to the occasion, and he has been handed down to posterity as having conducted the most stubborn defence of modern warfare. The value of his services was recognised at home, though somewhat tardily. He remained at the post he had held so gloriously till 1787, when he returned to England, and was raised to the peerage as Baron Heathfield. In 1790 he died of paralysis, just as he was going to set out again for Gibraltar. "Ever resolute and ever wary," says Lord Stanhope, "and prevailing by example as much as by command, he combined throughout the siege the spirit to strike a blow at any weak point of the assailants with a vigilant forethought extending even to the minutest measures of defence."

Lord Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; Cunningham, *Lives of Eminent Englishmen.*

Heavenfield, The Battle of (634), was fought between Oswald of Northumbria and the Britons under Cadwalla. Oswald is said to have reared a cross with his own hands before the battle commenced. The Britons were utterly routed.

Hebrides, The, were known to Ptolemy under the name of the Ebudæ. The Scandinavians called them Sudrey-jar or Southern Islands, in contradistinction to the Northern Islands of Scotland—the Orkneys and the Shetlands. Towards the very end of the eighth century these islands became subject to the incursions of the Vikings. Previous to this period they may have been inhabited by Celtic tribes, differing, more or less, from those upon the mainland of Scotland; though Mr. Rhŷs has adduced reasons which tend to show that these tribes, as well as the Picts, may have been largely tinctured with the blood of an earlier, and not improbably a non-Aryan race. In the ninth century the Hebrides were colonised by bands of Norwegian settlers, fleeing from their native country before the growing power of Harold Harfagr. When, however, these exiles began to send expeditions against their old home, Harold fitted out a great fleet and reduced these islands; from which time the Hebrides, as well as the Orkney and Shetland Isles, were for a considerable period subject to Norwegian rule, though they must be considered, according to Mr. Skene, to have been "rather the haunt of stray Vikings" than subject to any distinct ruler. About the year 989 Sigurd, Jarl of Orkney, seems to have made good his claim on these islands against that of the Danish king of the isles, who appears to have been connected with the Danes of Limerick and Dublin. But even Sigurd must have held his rule subject to the King of Norway. By the middle of the eleventh century the Danes of Dublin and Limerick had seized upon Man, and began to contest the Hebrides with the Norwegian Earls of Orkney. When Duncan was murdered or slain in battle (1040), the Hebrides formed part of Thorfinn, the Earl of Orkney's dominions. Soon after his death (1057 ?), however, these islands fell into the power of an Irish King of Leinster. When Godred, whom the Irish historians call King of the Dublin Danes, conquered the Isle of Man (1075 ?), he does not seem to have been long before

extending his authority over the Hebrides also. Before his death, however, his newly acquired territories were wrested from his hands by Magnus Barefoot, King of Norway (1093—1103), who so soon perished in his attempt on Ireland, but not before the Scotch King Edgar had relinquished the Western Isles entirely. Upon this, Magnus's son Sigurd, whom he had left as his ruler in the isles, quitted his new principality for his native land, and the Norse colony then broke up into separate states. Ultimately, however, Godred Crovan's son Olaf succeeded in establishing himself in the Hebrides, which he ruled for forty years (1113—1153). But it now appears that the native Celtic or pre-Celtic race, which had, perhaps, been driven to the more inaccessible parts of the islands, were preparing to assert themselves against the Norse strangers. They were led by one Somerlaed, who, notwithstanding his Teutonic name, was of Celtic descent. Somerlaed pretended to be fighting on behalf of his son and Olaf's nephew against his brother-in-law; but in 1156 the isles were divided into two halves, of which the southern half seems to have been practically in the hands of Somerlaed, who held it subject to the King of Norway. From this time there were two sovereigns bearing the title of "King of the Isles." In the first half of the thirteenth century Alexander II. demanded the restoration of the Hebrides from Hakon, King of Norway, on the ground that Magnus Barefoot had robbed them of the Scotch crown. On being refused he was preparing to avail himself of a disputed succession, when he died suddenly in 1249. When Alexander III. grew to manhood he began to contemplate the subjection of these islands, and when Hakon, hearing the complaints of his subject kings, and coming to their relief was utterly defeated at the battle of Largs (1263), it was not long before he ceded the disputed territories to the Scotch king, in return for a payment of 4,000 marks down, and a pension of 100 marks a year (1266). By this treaty the Archbishop of Trondhjem was still preserved in his metropolitical rights over the Sudreys and Man, rights which he seems to have preserved till at least the year 1400. The rule of the islands seems to have remained in the hands of the descendants of Somerlaed, and towards the end of the fourteenth century John Macdonald of Islay adopted the style of Lord of the Isles, a title which James V. forced another John of Islay to relinquish some hundred and fifty years later.

Skene, *Celtic Scotland*; J. H. Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*; Munch, *Chronicon Regum Mannia*.

[T. A. A.]

Hedgeley Moor, The Battle of (April 25th, 1464), was fought during the Wars of the Roses, between Margaret of Anjou and the Yorkists under Lord Montague. Margaret, who had retired to Scotland after the battle of Towton, collected forces and invaded England in the early part of 1464. She took several northern castles, and was joined by Somerset and the Percies; but Montague, who was sent against the Lancastrians, totally defeated and slew Sir Ralph Percy at Hedgeley Moor, some miles south of Wooler in Northumberland.

Helena, St., The Island of, owes its name to its having been discovered by the Portuguese on St. Helena's day, May 21, 1501. In the latter half of the seventeenth century the East India Company got possession of the island, and from this date it has remained in the hands of the English. St. Helena was a station of great importance so long as the ordinary route for India passed round the Cape of Good Hope. Since the opening of the Suez Canal it is a place of historic interest only, owing to its having been chosen as the place of exile for Napoleon, who died here in 1821.

Heligoland (Holy Land), an island in the North Sea, was taken from Denmark in 1807, and in 1814 was formally ceded to Great Britain, under whose rule it remained until 1890, when it was given up to Germany in exchange for possessions in East Africa. It is now attached to Schleswig-Holstein. The climate is mild and very healthy. During the Napoleonic wars this island was of very considerable importance to English commerce, as a station whence English goods could be smuggled into the Continent when the European ports were closed to our vessels by the Berlin and Milan decrees.

Hemingburgh, Walter de (*d.* after 1317), sub-prior of Gisburn, in Yorkshire, wrote a *Chronicle* extending to the year 1297, which was continued, apparently, by a later writer to 1307, and by a still later to 1346. Whatever the history of its compilation, Hemingburgh's *Chronicle* is undoubtedly of very considerable value for the reigns of the first three Edwards. It extends from the Conquest down to the year of the battle of Crecy, but it is only for the last three reigns that it seems to be an original authority. The work is remarkable for the number of documents and original letters preserved in it, notably, the Latin draft of Edward I.'s Confirmatio Cartarum, to which the name Statute *De Tallagio non Concedendo* has been erroneously applied. The style of this writer, also, is much above that of the ordinary monkish annalists.

The *Chronicle* of Walter de Hemingburgh has been edited by Mr. Hamilton for the Early English Text Society (1848).

Henderson, Alexander (*d.* 1646), was one of the leaders of the Presbyterian party in Scotland in the seventeenth century. In conjunction with Johnston of Warriston he drew up the demands of the Covenanters in

1638, in which year he was Moderator of the Glasgow Assembly. He was one of the Scotch commissioners at the Pacification of Berwick (q.v.), and at the Treaty of Ripon (1640). He died, it is said, of remorse at having opposed the king, "regretting the excess to which affairs were carried."

Hengest (*d.* 488) was one of the two leaders of the first band of Teutonic settlers which came to Britain. By some writers, the fact of the name Hengest meaning a horse is regarded as proving that his existence is a myth; but there seems no reason for adopting that theory of necessity, as we know that among the Teutonic peoples names derived from animals are of frequent occurrence. It is true that our earliest authority, Gildas, does not mention the names of any of the Saxon invaders, and Bede only says, "the two first commanders *are said to have been* Hengest and Horsa." But, on the other hand, Nennius and the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* distinctly mention these two brothers as the chiefs of the Teutonic invaders who came to the aid of Vortigern, and they are represented as being the sons of one Wihtgils, who was a great-grandson of Woden. Dismissing all the later legends which accumulated around Hengest's name, the following is a very brief sketch of what we know of him. Together with his brother, Horsa, he came to Britain, probably (though the chronology is very uncertain) about the year 450. It is possible they may have been exiled, as Nennius tells us, from Germany, or may have been actually invited over by Vortigern. At all events, they landed at Ebbsfleet, and agreed to assist the British king against the Picts. In these wars they were invariably successful, and as a reward obtained the Isle of Thanet. But shortly afterwards we find them turning their arms against Vortigern. They were defeated at Aylesford, in which battle Horsa was slain. But the tide soon turned. After numerous victories, Hengest and his son, Æsc, conquered the whole of Kent; fresh swarms of Teutons arrived; and the Britons were entirely driven out of the south-east corner of the island. Such is the story of the conquest of Kent as it has been handed down to us; but it is impossible to say how much or how little authority is to be attached to details which cannot well have been preserved in writing at the time of their occurrence.

Anglo-Saxon Chronicle; Nennius; Bede; Green, *Making of England*.

Hengest Down, or **Hingston Down** (Hengestesdun), is situated on the west or Cornish side of the Tamar, between that river and Callington. Here, in 836 or 837, Egbert totally defeated the combined forces of the Danes and the West Welsh.

Anglo-Saxon Chronicle.

Hengham, Ralph de (*d.* 1311), after filling several minor judicial offices, was made Chief Justice of the King's Bench, in 1274. In 1289 he was removed, together with most of the other judges, on a charge of malversation of justice; but he subsequently regained the royal favour, and became Chief Justice of the Common Pleas in 1301, but was degraded by Edward II. to the post of puisne judge of the court. His two works, *De Essoniis pro Defaltis et Formulis Placitandi*, commonly known as *Hengham Magna* and *Hengham Parva*, were edited by Selden in 1616.

Henrietta, Duchess of Orleans, daughter of Charles I. (*b.* 1644, *d.* 1670), was born in Exeter, whither her mother had retired during the Civil War. In 1646 she was taken in disguise to France, where she lived with her mother till, at the Restoration, she was enabled to return to England. In 1661 she was married to the Duke of Orleans, only brother to Louis XIV., by whom she had three children. She was employed, in 1670, by the French court to negotiate the Treaty of Dover with England, but very soon after her return to France she died suddenly. Rumour ascribed her death to the effects of poison administered by her jealous husband.

Henrietta Maria, Queen (*b.* 1609, *d.* 1669), wife of Charles I., was the youngest daughter of Henry IV. of France. After the failure of the Spanish match, both James I. and Buckingham were very anxious that Charles should ally himself with Henrietta, and for this purpose negotiations were opened in 1624. The marriage took place in 1625, and by the marriage treaty Charles agreed to suspend the penal laws against the Catholics, and allow the queen the free exercise of her religion. But it soon became evident that Henrietta was a tool in the hands of the Catholics, who thronged around her, and not only compelled her to refuse to be crowned with her husband in Westminster Abbey, but on one occasion at least forced her to take part in a pilgrimage to Tyburn, where the Roman Catholic "martyrs" had been executed. At last Charles, exasperated by this conduct, drove her Roman Catholic attendants from England. As long as Buckingham lived the queen took very little part in public affairs, but after his death she exercised a great influence over Charles, who could hardly have had a worse adviser than a frivolous, passionate woman, fond of power, but careless of the use she made of it. Though Strafford's refusal to grant places in Ireland to her nominees made him little acceptable to her, she used her influence to prevent his condemnation, but subsequently, being frightened by the outcries of the people, and fearing for her own and her husband's safety, she entreated Charles to assent to the attainder. It was chiefly owing to her advice that the

king made the foolish attempt to arrest the Five Members in 1642, and soon after this, when civil war was inevitable, the queen escaped from England taking with her the crown jewels for the purpose of purchasing arms for her husband. She returned to England in 1643, and narrowly escaped being taken prisoner by the Parliament. Eventually she joined her husband, and subsequently proceeded to the West of England, whence in 1644 she escaped to France. In 1643 she was impeached by Pym for the help she had given her husband, but after the impeachment had been unanimously voted by the Commons, and sent up to the Lords, no more was heard of it. Queen Henrietta remained in France till the Restoration, being frequently in great poverty. She made strenuous efforts to convert her children to Roman Catholicism, and succeeded in the case of her youngest daughter Henrietta; but the young Duke of Gloucester resolutely withstood all her endeavours. On the Restoration she returned to England, and Somerset House was granted as her residence. Fearing the plague of 1665, she returned to France, where she remained till her death. While in France she was supposed to have married Henry Jermyn, afterwards Earl of St. Albans, but there is no direct evidence for this, and at all events the marriage was never acknowledged.

Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion*; Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng., 1603—1642*; Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*

Henry I., King (*b.* 1068, *s.* Aug. 3, 1100, *d.* Dec. 1, 1135), was the youngest son of William the Conqueror. His education must have been carefully attended to, and he seems to have been, to some extent at least, familiar with Latin. He was dubbed knight by his father and Lanfranc at Whitsuntide, 1086. Next year, on his deathbed, the Conqueror left his youngest son five thousand pounds of silver, prophesying at the same time, according to the chronicles of the next century, that he would succeed his brothers in their dominions. With his father's bequest Henry bought the Cotentin and Avranchin from his brother Robert, and is found later assisting Robert against William and the revolted city of Rouen (1090). In 1091, when peace was restored between Robert and William by the Treaty of Caen, the two brothers, not content with having taken away Henry's right of succession, made war against him for the purpose of stripping him of his lands. Driven from St. Michael's Mount, Henry accepted the lordship of Domfront in 1093. Almost immediately after this, he was reconciled to William and won back part of his old possessions from Robert. On the day of William's death, Henry also was hunting in the New Forest; and on hearing the news, he at once hastened to Winchester to seize the treasure and to put forward his claims to the crown. After some discussion, in which several members of the Council maintained the rights of the absent Robert, Henry was elected king, chiefly, we are told, by the influence of the Earl of Warwick. Two days later he was crowned at Westminster, and swore to abolish the wrongs from which the country had suffered under his brother's rule, to maintain peace, repress disorders, and deal justice with mercy. Henry immediately issued a Charter, promising to maintain the privileges of the Church, the vassals, and the nation. As an earnest of his intention to observe these pledges, he imprisoned Flambard, the chief instrument of his brother's tyranny, and invited Anselm, the object of his brother's hate, to return to England. Before the year was out Anselm had come back and married the new king to Edith, the daughter of Malcolm Canmore and niece of Edgar Atheling. Meanwhile, Robert had returned from the Holy Land and began to claim the crown according to the terms of the Treaty of Caen. The great Norman nobles were not unwilling to assist him in his pretensions. Robert of Belesme, Ivo of Grantmesnil, and many other Norman barons would have preferred the lax indolence of the elder to the stern justice of the younger brother; while Henry laid his chief trust in the influence of Anselm and the fidelity of the English. When the two armies met near Winchester, the great barons on both sides seeing that whoever should conquer, their position in the land would be rendered insecure, prevailed on the two brothers to make peace. Henry was released from his oath of fealty to Robert and was acknowledged King of England; but on his part promised to pay Robert a pension of £3,000 and to restore the Cotentin (1101). Three years later the quarrel broke out again and was once more appeased without bloodshed; but in 1106 Henry crossed over to Normandy, defeated his brother at the battle of Tenchebrai and entered upon the possession of his duchy. Robert was imprisoned till his death in 1134.

Meanwhile, Henry had been occupied in restoring order and good government to England. The great Norman lords who had sided with Robert—the Malets, the Lacys, the Grantmesnils, and Belesmes—lost their castles and were imprisoned or forced to relinquish their English estates; but as a rule were left in possession of their Norman ones, though even across the water their castles were garrisoned by the king. In all these instances, after each rebellion, whether of 1101, 1104, 1118, or 1123, Henry's great object was to restrain the independence and extortion of the barons. Not content with forfeiting the English estates of the great families of the Conquest, Henry put into full working order a strong

administrative body—consisting for the most part of new men advanced by him because of their capacities for doing his work—to form a counterpoise to the older barons. These men, who owed their whole position to the crown, were employed by the king to make circuits round the country, not only for the purpose of assessing and collecting taxes, but also for that of redressing abuses. In this way he set the example, which his grandson was to improve upon and enlarge, of enforcing the royal authority everywhere, and bringing the royal justice within the reach of all people who suffered from the extortion, the cruelty, or false justice of the local and baronial courts. Though the main interest of Henry I.'s reign lies in the orderly increase of the Norman system of centralisation, yet it was by no means devoid of political or dramatic incident. In 1102 Robert de Belesme, the cruel and tyrannical Earl of Shrewsbury, and the son of William the Conqueror's great friend, Montgomery, was besieged in his castle of Bridgnorth. The English were only too glad to aid in Robert of Belesme's downfall, and called on the king to rejoice that he became a free man from the day when he banished Robert of Belesme (1102). The captive Duke Robert had a young son, William: Louis VI. of France and Fulk, Count of Anjou, were induced to espouse the boy's cause. The former promised to invest him with Normandy; the latter to give him his daughter, Sibylla, in marriage. Meanwhile, Fulk, supported by his suzerain, Louis, laid claim to Maine, in opposition to the pretensions of Henry; and peace was only re-established between the claimants (1113) at the expense of William, who now found a refuge with Baldwin of Flanders. Once more, after five years' quiet, a coalition was formed on behalf of the young prince, and once more Louis and Fulk espoused his cause. But this effort was fruitless too. At the battle of Brenneville (1119) the victory lay with Henry, and before long Calixtus II. reconciled the two kings. In 1120 the English king lost his only son, William, in the White Ship. Three years later he was threatened with another coalition, for Fulk of Anjou had once more espoused the cause of William. Fitz-Robert and several of the greatest barons in Normandy had promised assistance. But Henry was too quick for his enemies, and landing in Normandy he soon reduced the castles of the insurgent barons (1123—24). A few years later Louis gave his sister-in-law, Adeliza, in marriage to the young prince, granting him at the same time the Vexin and other districts on the borders of Normandy, and also investing him with the county of Flanders (1127). The newly-made count, however, was slain next year while endeavouring to make good his claims. With the rebellion of 1124 Henry's home troubles seem to have ceased, and the rest of his reign was occupied with the extension of his authority and the attempts to secure the fidelity of his barons to his daughter, Matilda, and her infant son, Henry. This lady had in 1114 married the Emperor Henry V., but having lost her husband before many years were past, was then contracted to Geoffrey of Anjou, the father of Henry II. In 1126, 1131, and 1133 the whole council of the kingdom were sworn to maintain her rights or those of herself and her little son (Henry II., born 1133).

It remains to say a few words on the ecclesiastical history of this reign. It was largely with the assistance of Anselm that Henry I. had been enabled to secure the crown, and by mutual consent the question of investitures was for the moment waived. But when the immediate danger was over, Anselm was summoned to do homage and consecrate the bishops whom the king had invested. After the Synod of Westminster, Anselm left England once more (1103), and only returned in 1106, after having come to a compromise with Henry on the disputed points. Before the close of the reign two new bishoprics were created—those of Ely (1109) and Carlisle (1133), and, in 1128, the new order of the Cistercians, founded by an Englishman, Harding, planted their first colony at Waverley in Surrey. Henry's reign was also signalised by the practical completion of the conquest of South Wales by a series of Norman adventurers, who established for themselves feudal lordships within its limits, driving the Welsh to the hills, or subjecting them to their sway. In some places, as in southern Pembrokeshire, colonies of Fleming or English settlers were planted, and the Welsh absolutely driven out. Henry also managed to secure the nomination of the South Welsh bishops. Their consecration by the Archbishop of Canterbury completed the ecclesiastical subordination of South Wales to the English metropolitan.

The chief contemporary authorities for the reign of Henry I. are the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*; Eadmer, *Historia Novorum*; Ordericus Vitalis, William of Malmesbury, and Henry of Huntingdon. The best modern works on this period are Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, vol. v.; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.* and *Select Charters*; Church, *Life of Anselm*.

[T. A. A.]

Henry II., King (*b.* March, 1133, *s.* Oct. 25, 1154; *d.* July 6, 1189), was born at Le Mans, and was the son of Geoffrey, Count of Anjou, and Matilda, daughter of Henry I. and widow of the Emperor Henry V. He was still an infant when brought over to England in 1141 and placed in charge of his uncle, Robert of Gloucester. He afterwards went to Scotland, and was knighted by King David, in 1149. In 1151 Louis VII. conferred Normandy on him, and in the same year he succeeded to Anjou,

while, in 1152, his marriage with Eleanor of Aquitaine gave him a large and rich territory in the south of France. Master of such resources, his expedition to England in 1153 could not but be successful. The Treaty of Winchester gave him the succession after Stephen's death. Within a year his rival died, and Henry's succession was secured without disturbance. He was crowned Dec. 19, 1154. The long and important reign of Henry has been divided by Bishop Stubbs into four epochs—from his accession to the Becket quarrel (1154—64); the period of his strife with the archbishop (1164—70); from Becket's death to the death of the younger Henry in 1183; and from thence to Henry's own death in 1189.

The first period of Henry's reign was mainly devoted to his work of restoration. He found the great administrative system of his grandfather thoroughly annihilated during the anarchy of Stephen's reign. "Adulterine" castles were thickly spread over the whole land. Peace and order there were none. The revenue had declined from £60,000 to £20,000 a year. With the help of the surviving members of the family of Roger of Salisbury, and of Archbishop Theobald, Becket the Chancellor, and the Earl of Leicester, Henry succeeded, through tact, energy, and perseverance, in a thorough restoration of the "avitæ consuetudines"—the system of government in the State which Henry I. had left behind him. The feudalists were disarmed, good government restored, the coinage reformed, the War of Toulouse successfully carried out. The whole ten years are years of prosperity and orderly progress.

In 1162 Becket succeeded Archbishop Theobald at Canterbury, and Henry soon found that his old minister was thoroughly resolved to oppose his design to subject Church as well as State to the supremacy of the law. An attempt to compel an acknowledgment, merely, of the royal jurisdiction on the part of criminous clerks precipitated a conflict already imminent. In 1164 the Constitutions of Clarendon (q.v.) were presented to the archbishop for acceptance. Becket's reluctant acquiescence was soon withdrawn. Henry called his archbishop to account for his chancellorship, and after a stormy council at Northampton, the archbishop withdrew beyond the seas, and the king took possession of his temporalities. For some years an active warfare was carried on between king and archbishop, which nothing but the tact of Henry's ministers prevented from being confused with the great struggle of Frederick Barbarossa and Alexander III., of which it was the English counterpart. When in 1170 a hollow reconciliation was effected, Becket returned only to meet his death at the hands of indiscreet partisans of the king. It is most remarkable evidence of Henry's versatility and energy that the period of the Becket struggle was the period of his greatest constructive reforms, of the establishment of the new judicial system by the Assize of Clarendon (1166), and of the successful conquest of Britanny.

The death of Becket brought Henry's ecclesiastical troubles to a crisis. The coronation of his eldest son, Henry, had conciliated neither his family nor the baronage. Henry hurried away to Ireland to escape from his difficulties, and to receive the homage of the Norman nobles, who had within the last few years appropriated a large part of the island. On his return, the Pope's need of English aid made his reconciliation with the Church at Avranches an easy matter (1172). But the great feudal revolt of 1173—74, which simultaneously broke out in England and the Continent, and was actively favoured by the Kings of France and Scotland, the Count of Flanders, and Henry's own sons, may have been an indirect consequence of the Becket quarrel. After a hard struggle Henry gained the day. The last of the feudal risings was suppressed, and the monarch, strong in national support and in his system of government, was henceforth able to devote his best energies to administrative and judicial reconstruction. The Assize of Northampton (1176), the Assize of Arms (1181), the Assize of the Forest (1184), were the great legislative acts of this period. No less important were Henry's fertile schemes for the perfection of the judicial system, his strong and firm government, his good peace and prosperity.

But Henry's own sons were now his worst enemies. He had done his best for them. He had crowned Henry, secured Britanny to Geoffrey, Aquitaine for Richard, and proposed to give John Ireland. But the malign influence of their mother and Louis VII. drove their turbulent and thankless spirits into a series of risings that embittered Henry's last years. In 1183 the younger Henry died.

The death of the young king did not check the rebellious attempts of Henry's remaining sons. Their persistent hostility seriously checked the course of home reforms, and even the preparations for the Crusade. Philip Augustus was as rancorous an enemy to Henry as Louis VII. had been, and his alliance with the king's sons seriously diminished the power and prestige of Henry in Europe. In the midst of failure and desertion the old king died.

Henry II.'s reign was a "period of amalgamation." The Norman central and monarchical system, and the old English local and popular system, hitherto existing side by side, were connected by Henry and combined into a single whole, out of which, a generation later, the English Constitution began to develop. His bureaucratic system dealt a death blow to feudalism, and even set definite limits to the power of the Church. A thorough

despot and cosmopolitan, he established that alliance of king and people which produced the national English monarchy. The conqueror of Ireland and Scotland, Henry revived that empire over all Britain which the great Anglo-Saxon kings had aspired to. The ruler of a third of the modern France, he began that policy of constant warfare with his nominal overlord which coloured the whole mediæval history of England. His great Continental position rendered Henry the first of European sovereigns. His friendly relations with the Empire, Spain, and Flanders, began the close connection with England's three traditional mediæval allies. A man that could do all this was of no ordinary character. Strong, persistent, far-seeing and hard working, he was at once a great statesman, legislator, administrator, warrior, and diplomatist. But he was unscrupulous, passionate and revengeful—hard and cruel upon occasion—and his domestic difficulties perceptibly changed his character for the worse towards the end of his reign. Yet with all his defects he did a good work for England. The excellence of the results must excuse the selfishness of his aims.

The best original authorities are Gervase of Canterbury; Benedict of Peterborough, and Roger of Hoveden (Rolls Series); William of Newborough (English Hist. Soc.), and Ralph Niger. The copious works of Giraldus Cambrensis, edited in the Rolls Series by Brewer and Dimock, are useful though not always trustworthy, especially so are the *Expugnatio Hiberniæ* and *Itinerarium Cambriæ*. Dr. Stubbs's works are authoritative for the reign of Henry II., both his *Constitutional History* and his exhaustive *Preface* to the editions of Benedict of Peterborough and Roger of Hoveden in the Rolls Series. Lyttelton's *Life of Henry II.*, though old-fashioned, is still useful. For the Becket struggle see Robertson, *Life of Becket*; Giles, *Letters of Becket*; *Materials for the History of Archbishop Becket*.

[T. F. T.]

Henry III., King (*b.* Oct. 1, 1207, *s.* Oct. 19, 1216, *d.* Nov. 16, 1272), was the son of John, and Isabella of Angoulême. His long reign falls into three epochs—the period of the regency, the twenty years (1232—1252) of misrule, either under some foreign and unpopular minister or the king in person, and the last twenty years of the baronial struggle.

The tyranny of King John had alienated every class of his subjects, and the barons who had won Magna Charta had called in Louis of France. But the wisdom of the Regent Pembroke, the strong support which the Roman Church gave to its infant vassal, and the acceptance by church and crown alike of the Great Charter, ultimately resulted in the expulsion of the foreigners, and in the suppression of a feudal survival that had threatened to prove serious. Pembroke died in 1219. Archbishop Langton got rid of the tyranny of the papal legates in 1221. In the same year William of Aumâle, the feudal champion, in 1224, Falkes de Breauté, the representative of John's foreign mercenaries, were subdued. In the year 1227 Hubert de Burgh got rid of the Poitevin Bishop of Winchester. Even the baronial opposition were national in their aims. There were thus not wanting signs of the development of English constitutionalism.

In 1232 Henry dismissed De Burgh, and became his own minister. But his weak and shiftless character, his incapacity for constant application, his delight in mere external splendour, his want of a settled policy, his attachment to his family, all led him to lean on some stronger support than himself. Peter des Roches, recalled in 1232, was indeed dismissed in 1234; but in 1236, Henry's marriage with Eleanor of Provence brought a swarm of her worthless kinsmen and dependents into England. Foreign fashions spread widely; foreigners administered Church and State. The English language, which had kept itself comparatively free of French words up to this period, was now inundated with them. No doubt an increased connection with the Continent had its good points; but its effects on government were altogether bad. A strong aristocratic opposition to Henry was now established. In 1242 the barons refused to grant an aid for the war in Poitou. In 1244 barons and clergy protested against the royal misgovernment. But in 1246 the Count of La Marche and his sons, Henry's half-brothers, came into England. The Pope exacted tax after tax from the clergy. Among churchmen the resistance of Grosseteste was almost single-handed. The nobles were equally disorganised. Without leaders, the people were powerless to withstand the wretched government of the foreign favourites.

At last, in 1252, a leader arose. Simon of Montfort, a Frenchman, who had acquired the earldom of Leicester, and whose marriage with the king's sister had almost provoked a revolt, was in that year dismissed from the government of Gascony. Eager for revenge, the hated foreigner became an efficient leader of the national party. The folly of Henry in accepting the Sicilian crown for his son Edmund, his lavish expenditure on a futile adventure that led to nothing but the aggrandisement of the papacy, completed the measure of baronial indignation. In 1258 the opposition culminated in the Mad Parliament, which compelled the acceptance of the constitution known as the Provisions of Oxford, that practically substituted a baronial oligarchy for the royal power. Hitherto the opposition had been unanimous. But while the bulk of the baronage were now disposed to rest content with their triumph, Montfort had larger schemes of popular government. He quarrelled with Gloucester, the leader of the aristocratic party. In 1261 Henry availed himself of this feud to regain power; but in 1263 war began again. Both parties had competed with each other for popular favour by summoning representatives of the shire communities to a national council.

The triumph of Montfort at the battle of Lewes led to his famous Parliament of 1265, in which burgesses as well as knights of the shire were summoned, and a new paper constitution, which put the government into the hands of the community, was drawn up. But the democratic Cæsarism of Montfort led to a quarrel with the son of his old enemy Gloucester. Edward, the king's son, escaped and collected an army. Montfort was slain at Evesham. The capture of Kenilworth ended the war. For the rest of the reign peace was secured. But real power had now escaped from Henry's hands into those of his son, who knew how to appropriate the results of Montfort's policy, and reconcile the monarchy with nationality. Henry died on Nov. 16, 1272. His extreme incompetence as a ruler blinds us to his private respectability. His reign, though its details are beyond expression dreary, is of the last importance in English history. It was the period of the growth of the constitution, of the concentration of the local machinery into a national representative assembly, of the development of English nationality in opposition to royal and papal tyranny. It was a period of great men, of great, if ill-regulated designs, and of great originative and creative power. It saw the religious revival of the thirteenth century, the establishment of the mendicant orders in England, and the development of culture through the universities. But to all this development Henry was little more than an insignificant figure-head.

Roger of Wendover; Matthew Paris, *Historia Major* (Rolls Series); Rishanger, *Chronicon* (Rolls Series); Dr. Shirley's *Royal Letters* (Rolls Series); Brewer, *Monumenta Franciscana* (Rolls Series); Luard, *Grosseteste's Letters* (Rolls Series); Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Prothero, *Simon of Montfort*; Pauli, *Englische Geschichte* and *Simon von Montfort*; Blaauw, *Barons' War*; Pearson, *Hist. of Eng.*

[T. F. T.]

Henry IV., King (*b.* 1367, *s.* Oct. 13, 1399, *d.* Mar. 20, 1413), was born at Bolingbroke, in Lincolnshire, being the eldest son of John of Gaunt and of his first wife, the heiress of the house of Lancaster. At the age of fifteen he married Mary Bohun, daughter and co-heiress of the last Earl of Hereford. In 1385 he was called to a seat in the House of Peers, by the title of Earl of Derby. He at first took part with the uncles of Richard II., in their endeavours to retain the government under their own control; but later on supported the king in trying to draw into his hands an absolute power. It may be suspected that this was done with the sinister design of making Richard unpopular with his subjects. It would seem that Henry was, to some extent, privy to the death of the Duke of Gloucester, the king's uncle, in 1397; but the following year he again changed round, accused the Duke of Norfolk of the murder of Gloucester as well as of treasonable practices, and challenged him to wager of battle. On the combatants presenting themselves at Coventry on Sept. 16, 1398, to try the issue, they were both banished by Richard, Norfolk for life and Bolingbroke for ten years. The following year John of Gaunt died, and Richard seized his lands. On receiving intelligence of this act, Henry, who knew himself to be as popular in the country as the king was unpopular, determined to return to the country on the plea of claiming his lawful inheritance. The king had set out upon an expedition to Ireland, when Henry landed at Ravenspur, July 4, 1399. Bolingbroke was everywhere received with enthusiasm, and soon decided to put forward a claim upon the crown. Richard returned early in August, but upon landing, his army immediately began to desert him. He was forced to disguise himself, but was seized near Conway on August 19. Henry called a Parliament, which, on October 13, pronounced the deposition of Richard, and transferred the crown to his cousin. It need not be pointed out what an important act this was from a constitutional point of view. Richard died in prison in the beginning of the following year in circumstances that gave rise to suspicions of violence.

Henry's energies were, henceforth, entirely devoted to strengthening his position on the throne. He supported the orthodox Church party against the attacks of the Lollards, to whom his father, John of Gaunt, had been markedly favourable, and one of the most important enactments of his reign was the Act *De Heretico Comburendo* (1401). It must not be supposed that these persecutions were popular with the clergy only. The contrary is proved by the traditional character which attached to the name of the most conspicuous Lollard of the succeeding reign, Sir John Oldcastle—a traditional character which, if it was not identical with, certainly bore considerable resemblance to that of the fictitious Falstaff. For the rest, Henry's reign was chiefly occupied in crushing domestic rebellion, and in meeting the attacks of the Scots and Welsh. In the first year of his reign he was at war with the Duke of Albany, the regent of Scotland, and with Owen Glendower, who had raised a national revolt among the Welsh. The Scots under Douglas were decisively defeated, and their leader captured at Homildon Hill by Harry Hotspur, son of the Earl of Northumberland (Sept. 14, 1402). The expedition into Wales, in which Henry, the Prince of Wales, took part, was less successful. In 1403 broke out the formidable rebellion of the Percies, who were now leagued with Douglas and Glendower. On the march of the first two to join their forces with the latter, they were intercepted by the king's army, and forced into an engagement at Shrewsbury (July 21, 1403), where they were completely defeated and Harry Percy slain. Northumberland was, on this occasion, pardoned. Two other rebellions of less conse-

quence broke out in the north, in the last of which (1408), Northumberland was again deeply implicated. It was crushed at the battle of Bramham Moor, in which Northumberland fell. In the interval between these two events, Henry was fortunate enough to capture the heir apparent of Scotland (James I.), who was being sent to France (1406).

After 1408, Henry, no longer in fear of rebellion, began to turn his attention to the affairs of France, where the quarrels between the parties of the Duke of Burgundy and the Duke of Orleans had brought the country to the verge of civil war (the assassination of the Duke of Orleans, which made this war inevitable, took place on November 23, 1407). Henry took the part of siding first with one party and then with the other, so as to weaken both as much as possible. During the last three years of his life the king was subject to fits of epilepsy, and the Prince of Wales, who had already highly distinguished himself in the field, generally presided at the Council. The growing popularity of this prince is said to have excited the jealousy of his father, and caused some estrangement between the two. Henry died March 20, 1413. By his first wife, Mary Bohun, he left four sons—Henry; Thomas, Duke of Clarence; John, Duke of Bedford; and Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester; and two daughters. After his accession, Henry married Joanna, daughter of Charles II. of Navarre, but had by her no issue. The interest of Henry IV.'s reign depends upon the success of his policy in founding the house which, in the person of his successor, made itself so famous, and in that of the third descendant again fell. It is still more remarkable as the period of the restoration of Anglican orthodoxy against Lollardy, and as the period of mediæval constitutionalism.

Vita Reg. Ricardi (ed. Hearne); *Traison et Mort de Richard II.*, *Roy Dengleterre* (Eng. Hist. Soc.); The Monk of Evesham; Walsingham, *Ypodigma* and *Hist. Angl.*; *Annales Henrici IV.*; Capgrave, *Chronicle*; id., *Liber de Illustribus Henricis*; Waurin, *Recueil des Chroniques*; Le Religieux de St. Denys; Brougham, *England under the House of Lancaster*; Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.*; Pauli, *Englische Geschichte*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*

[C. F. K.]

Henry V., King (*b.* Aug. 9, 1387, *s.* Mar. 21, 1413, *d.* Aug. 31, 1422), the eldest son of Henry IV., was born at Monmouth. He was, at a very early age, practised in arms, and was sent, when fifteen, to take command in an expedition against Owen Glendower, and one year later, took a part in the important battle of Shrewsbury. The character of this monarch must always be one of great interest to the historical student, for he was probably the most popular king who ever ruled in this country. Later tradition, apparently to give a zest to his subsequent merits, has represented him as passing his youth in dissipation, and in indifference to his reputation; and his biographer, Elmham, admits something to support this charge. This period of temporary obscurity could not have occurred, as Shakespeare represents it to have done, before the battle of Shrewsbury. It has been suggested that Prince Henry was disgusted with the jealousy which his father felt for his rising talents, and for a while absented himself from state affairs, and, in fact, while about 1410, we find him at the head of the Council, he appears afterwards to have yielded his place to his next brother, the Duke of Clarence. He was crowned on April 9, 1413. By his first acts he gave evidence of the security which he felt upon the throne. He released the young Earl of March from his captivity, and reinstated the son of Harry Percy in the family honours and possessions. In his internal administration he seems to have been disposed to follow the general lines of his father's policy. But he had less sympathy with the Lollards, who were now persecuted with relentless rigour. Among the victims is to be counted Sir John Oldcastle, commonly called Lord Cobham, in 1417. Henry was, however, supposed to have been not altogether unfavourable to a scheme for confiscating a portion of the revenues of the Church which was warmly advocated by the majority of the lay peers at this time. The abolition of the alien priories is sufficient evidence of this. It was to turn the attention of the king in another direction that Archbishop Chichele persuaded Henry that in right of his descent from Edward III., he had a valid claim to the crown of France, which the present distracted state of that kingdom gave him a favourable opportunity of asserting. The proposal was received with favour by all classes, and in pursuit of this object Henry set sail for Harfleur, Aug. 10, 1415.

The details of Henry's invasion form an important and exceedingly interesting chapter in military history, but can only be given here in brief summary. The first undertaking was the attack on Harfleur. The place was strongly defended, and nearly surrounded by water, so that the siege, of which the contemporary authorities give us a tolerably detailed account, dragged on for six weeks. During this time the English army, which at first consisted of about 20,000 foot and 9,000 horse, diminished to not more than a third of that number. It appeared impossible to continue the war without obtaining fresh reinforcements from England. In order, however, not to seem to retreat before the face of the enemy, Henry determined to embark from Calais, and before leaving Harfleur he sent a challenge to the Dauphin, offering to meet him in eight days, which was not accepted. This is a curious instance of the strategy, or, to speak more truly, the want of strategy, which characterised the warfare of those days. The safety of Henry's army might seem to have depended

upon his keeping his movements as secret as possible; on the contrary he waited eight days for the reply of the Dauphin, and then set out (Oct. 8) upon his perilous march. The English, proceeding by Fécamp and Eu, arrived at Abbeville on the 13th, but finding that the Somme was strongly guarded at this point, were induced to make a detour by Amiens and Nesle. At the latter place they crossed the Somme on the 19th, the French showing themselves and disappearing again. On the 24th they crossed the little stream of Ternoise, and there saw the whole French host waiting for them upon the opposite side near the village of Agincourt, and so completely barring the way to Calais that the English could not avoid an engagement. The battle took place on St. Crispin's Day (Oct. 25, 1415). The French army is believed to have been five times as large as the English, and yet the engagement resulted in a victory for the English almost the most complete that has ever been recorded in history. The most important of the prisoners taken were D'Albret, the Constable of France, and Charles, Duke of Orleans, the poet, son of the murdered Duke of Orleans. In August of the following year the French, who had threatened Harfleur, were decisively defeated at sea by the Duke of Bedford, the king's brother. Despite these victories Henry clearly perceived that he could only hope to bring his schemes to a successful conclusion by an alliance with one of the two great parties into which France was divided. The traditional policy of England, her commercial relations with the Low Countries, pointed out the Duke of Burgundy as the object of negociations. It is hardly probable that a permanent alliance would have been made with this party had it not been for the murder of John the Fearless, Duke of Burgundy, on Sept. 10, 1419. John's son and successor, Philip the Good, immediately threw in his lot with the English. He brought with him all the party of the Burgundians, which included the people of Paris. The result of this accession of strength was the Treaty of Troyes between Henry, Philip, and Isabella, the Queen of France (Charles VI. was at this time insane), in which the Dauphin was excluded from the inheritance, and Henry, on condition of his marrying Catherine, the daughter of Charles VI., was to receive the regency of France during the life of the king, and the succession after his death. The treaty was signed on May 21, 1420, and the marriage of Henry and Catherine took place the following 2nd of June. The kings of France and England entered Paris together in November, and the Treaty of Troyes was solemnly confirmed by the Parliament of Paris on Dec. 10. Henry then returned to England, and entered London amidst immense rejoicings. The Dauphin of course repudiated the Treaty of Troyes, and he still had the support of the powerful party of the Armagnacs. In March, 1421, he gained the victory of Beaugé over the English under the Duke of Clarence. This obliged Henry at once to return to France. He drove back the army of the Dauphin and entered Paris in triumph. He left it again to advance against the army of the Dauphin, which lay before Cosne. On his way he was attacked by a fever which terminated fatally at Vincennes on Aug. 31, 1422, in the thirty-fourth year of Henry's age, and the tenth of his reign.

Henrici Quinti Gesta, known as *The Chaplain's Account* (Eng. Hist. Soc.); Elmham, *Vita et Gesta Hen. V.*, and *Liber metricus de Hen. V.* (ed. Hearne); William of Worcester, *Annales*; Walsingham, *Hist. Angiic.* (Rolls Series); Titus Livius of Friuli (he was an Italian in the service of the Duke of Gloucester), *Vita Hen. V.* (ed. Hearne); Monstrelet, *Chronique*; Cardinal des Ursins, *Chronique de Normandie*; Le Bourgeois de Paris; Sir H. Nicolas, *The Battle of Agincourt*; Brougham, *England under the House of Lancaster*; Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.*

[C. F. K.]

Henry VI., King (*b.* Dec. 6, 1421, *s.* Sept. 1, 1422, *d.* May, 1471). The reign of this prince was the third act in the historic drama of the house of Lancaster, and that which was destined to witness the undoing of all that had been accomplished in the two previous reigns. Henry VI. was born at Windsor, and was less than nine months old at the time of his accession to the throne. Charles VI., his grandfather, died a few months later. The regency of the two kingdoms, to which the young king was considered the heir, had been settled by Henry V. The Duke of Bedford was appointed to the more arduous duty of governing the English possessions in France, and of prosecuting the war in that country, while the English regency was assigned to the Duke of Gloucester with the title of Lord Protector. Among Henry V.'s dying injunctions to his successor was to do all in his power to maintain the alliance with the Duke of Burgundy, and this advice Bedford did his best to carry out. At first he was eminently successful in all his undertakings. The Dauphin (Charles VII.), who hoped to rally his party now that his greatest rival was dead, led his army into Burgundy. He was decisively defeated at Crevant, and the next year still more decisively at Verneuil (Aug. 16, 1424). The Duke of Bedford commanded in person at this great battle, which has been well described as a second Agincourt. Meanwhile, however, the Duke of Gloucester had contrived, by espousing Jacqueline of Hainault, to alienate Burgundy from the English interests, and though Bedford did his best, by enormous concessions, to retain his friendship, it was not long before Philip passed over altogether to the side of Charles VII., and drew with him the Duke of Britanny. The Pope, too, at this time wrote an appeal to Bedford to desist from his attempts to force upon the

French people a sovereign in defiance of the rights of succession, and the public opinion of Europe was steadily turning against the English. It was at this juncture that Joan of Arc came forward alleging her divine commission to rescue the country from its invader. At the moment when Joan obtained her first audience with Charles VII. the English were in the midst of the protracted siege of Orleans. Bedford had been induced, in opposition to his own judgment, to undertake this operation with the view of carrying the war into the country beyond the Loire, which adhered altogether to the party of Charles. All France had begun to look upon the siege of Orleans as decisive of the issue of the whole war. Joan made her way into the city on April 29, 1429, and nine days later compelled the English to raise the siege. The next act of Joan was to conduct the king to be crowned at Rheims, which she effected on July 17, after having defeated the English at Patay in the preceding month. These events ended the achievements which Joan had proclaimed it her mission to perform. She accomplished, however, still more for the cause of France's deliverance by her death. Taken prisoner by the English at Compiègne on May 23, 1430, she was carried to Rouen, unjustly condemned for sorcery, and burnt in the May of the following year. But the effect of her achievements upon France did not pass away with her death. The national spirit had been roused, and the result was that the struggle became now a national effort to expel the alien invaders. From that time the cause of England was virtually lost. It is not necessary to follow in detail the stages of its decline. By the Treaty of Arras (Sept. 21, 1435), Burgundy finally threw in his lot with Charles, and the event is said to have been the cause of the death of Bedford, which shortly followed. The war dragged on with diminishing hopes on the English side, and increasing discontent at home, for ten years more. In 1444 a truce was made between the two countries; and in the following year a marriage was arranged between Henry and Margaret, daughter of the Duke of Anjou and Lorraine, and the niece of the King of France.

Henceforward, the interest of events abroad depends mainly upon the effect which they had upon public feeling at home—the degree in which they embittered the different parties of English statesmen and tended to bring about the Wars of the Roses, which soon ensued. Two years after the king's marriage, the two rival statesmen, the Duke of Gloucester and Cardinal Beaufort, died. The Duke of Suffolk now came to be the trusted minister of the crown. He had been chiefly instrumental in bringing about the king's marriage, and he was on that account the favourite of Queen Margaret, by whom the king was entirely governed. But as the royal marriage and the queen herself became every day more unpopular in the country, the general distrust of the duke kept pace with his favour at court. The Duke of York now occupied, and with much more desert, the place in popular estimation that Gloucester had held a few years before his death, while the continued losses of the English were attributed to the treachery of Suffolk and the queen. At length Suffolk was, at the instance of York and his party, impeached of high treason, was banished by the king, and seized and beheaded, probably by a pirate, in the course of his passage to the coast of France. He was succeeded by the Duke of Somerset in the queen's favour. York was removed from the country by appointment as Regent of Ireland, and the defence of the possessions in France was entrusted to Somerset. In 1450, a foretaste of the civil war was experienced in the rebellion of the men of Kent, under Jack Cade, who called himself John Mortimer, and professed to be a cousin of the Duke of York. After this rebellion had been suppressed, York returned to England, with a following of several thousand men, and insisted upon a reform of the Council. This was granted, and the appeal to arms was, for a while, deferred.

Meanwhile, the affairs of the country across the Channel had gone from bad to worse. There was no longer any question of retaining the more recent acquisitions. The most ancient possessions of the English in France were about to be lost—Normandy in 1450, Guienne in 1453. During the defence of the latter place, the brave Lord Shrewsbury, his sons, and about thirty knights, fell in one engagement. In August, 1453, the king began to exhibit signs of mental alienation. It now became clear to all that, sooner or later, the queen and Somerset on the one hand, and the Duke of York and his partisans upon the other, would appeal to the sword to settle their disputes; and the noblemen throughout the country began to arm their retainers. York was appointed Protector in April, 1454. But in January of the succeeding year the king recovered his faculties, and the appointment was, of course, annulled. The queen and Somerset now began to think of taking vengeance upon York, who was obliged to retire to the north. There he was joined by the most powerful among his adherents, and definitely took up arms, and marched upon London. On May 22, 1455, the army of York encountered the forces of the king at St. Albans, and there was fought the first battle of the Wars of the Roses. Somerset was slain, and the victory remained with the Yorkists; so that, on the king again becoming deranged, York was once more made Lord Protector. The war now slumbered for four years. It broke out again in the autumn of 1459, when Lord Audley, with the king's forces, was defeated by the Earl of Salisbury at Blore Heath (Sept. 23). But on the

approach of the king the Yorkists were obliged to disperse, and their leaders were attainted by the Parliament of Coventry in the following November. Soon, however, they recovered their position, and entered London in triumph, in July, 1460. Immediately after was fought the battle of Northampton, in which the king was taken prisoner (July 10, 1460). On Oct. 16 the Duke of York, for the first time, laid claim to the crown. Meanwhile, the queen had fled to the north, where she succeeded in raising an army. York hastened to meet her, and on Dec. 30 was fought the battle of Wakefield, in which the army of York was completely defeated. The duke himself was slain, and his second son, the Earl of Rutland, was murdered after the battle. Edward, Earl of March, now succeeded to the claims of his father, and, after some indecisive engagements, the queen was decisively defeated at Towton (March 29, 1461), and again at Hexham (May 15, 1464). This brought the war to an end; but Henry was again restored for a few months in 1471, through the influence of the Earl of Warwick. Warwick was, however, defeated and slain at Barnet (April 14), and the Lancastrians were, for the last time, repulsed at Tewkesbury (May 4). On the 22nd of the same month the body of Henry was exposed at St. Paul's. It was very commonly believed that he had been murdered by the Duke of Gloucester, the brother of Edward IV.

Chronicle of St. Albans; Continuation of the Chronicle of Crowland (in Gale's *Scriptores*); William of Worcester (Rolls Series); Stevenson, *Wars of the English in France* (Rolls Series); Ellis, *Original Letters; Rolls of Parliament; Proceedings of Privy Council; The Paston Letters*, with Mr. Gairdner's valuable Introductions; Religieux de St. Denys; Bourgeois de Paris; Brougham, *Eng. under the House of Lancaster*.

[C. F. K.]

Henry VII., King (*b.* Jan. 28, 1457, *s.* Aug. 22, 1485, *d.* April 22, 1509), was the son of Edmund Tudor, Earl of Richmond, son of Owen Tudor, a Welsh gentleman who had married the widow of Henry V. His mother, Margaret, was a great-granddaughter of John of Gaunt by Catherine Swynford, whose offspring had been legitimatised in 1397, but expressly excluded from succession to the throne. Henry VI. recognised his half-brothers of the Tudor house, and when Edmund Tudor died, soon after his son's birth, Henry VI. took the young Henry of Richmond under his protection. After the battle of Tewkesbury, Jasper Tudor, Earl of Pembroke, carried off his nephew to Britanny for safety. Edward IV. left no means untried to get Henry into his power. He tried to bribe the Duke of Britanny to give him up, but the duke preferred to receive an annual subsidy for keeping watch over his important guest. Richard III. sent a special envoy to Britanny to spy Henry's doings. The English exiles more and more gathered round Henry, and saw in him their only possible head. His mother and Bishop Morton did their utmost to furnish him with money. On Christmas Day, 1483, a body of exiles took oath in the cathedral of Rheims to place Henry on the English throne, and he on his side, swore to reconcile the contending parties by wedding Elizabeth of York, Edward IV.'s eldest daughter. It needed much patience on Henry's part to keep his party together, and to overcome the obstacles which the French court put in the way of his preparations. At length, on August 1, 1485, he landed at Milford Haven in Pembroke, and was welcomed by the Welsh as a compatriot. He advanced to Shropshire, where he was joined by the Talbots. Richard III. advanced to meet him, and the two armies came in sight near the little town of Bosworth, not far from Ashby-de-la-Zouche. The battle was decided by Lord Stanley, who joined Henry's side. Richard III. was slain and Henry of Richmond was the conqueror (Aug. 22). Still there were many difficulties in his way: but he showed a resolute and far-sighted spirit. He was determined to reign as England's lawful king, and not to assume a subordinate position by accepting any title through marriage with Elizabeth of York. The claims of the Lancastrian house were not popular, and Henry could scarcely pretend to be a genuine Lancastrian. He took, however, a victor's right, and on the day of the battle of Bosworth assumed the royal title. He advanced to London and had himself crowned before he summoned Parliament in November. The Act which recognised his accession made no mention of his claim, but simply declared that "the inheritance of the crown be, rest, remain, and abide in the most royal person of our now sovereign lord King Henry VII. and in his heirs." It may be said that Parliament simply registered an accomplished fact. In January, 1486, Henry VII. married Elizabeth of York, and soon afterwards made a journey northwards to pacify his dominions. There was a futile rising of the Yorkists under Lord Lovel which was easily put down, and was sternly punished. But England had been too long disturbed by party warfare for peace to come at once. In 1487, a young man, Lambert Simnel, was trained to personate the Earl of Warwick, son of the Duke of Clarence, whom Henry VII. kept confined in the Tower. The impostor was welcomed in Ireland, and received aid from Flanders, where the Duchess Margaret of Burgundy, sister of Edward IV., resided. He landed in England in June, 1487, but was defeated and taken prisoner at Stoke, and was after employed as a servant in the royal kitchen. This rising taught Henry VII. that he must mollify the bitterness of the Yorkist feeling, and he accordingly had Elizabeth crowned as his queen in November. He also took measures to reduce still further the power

of the great barons, though the baronage had been almost annihilated in the bloody battles of the Wars of the Roses. In 1487 Parliament constituted a new commission of judges, chosen from the members of the Privy Council, with power to put down divers misdemeanours. Chief of these was the practice of maintenance, by which a lord could bind to himself a band of retainers, who wore his livery, espoused his quarrels, and were too strong for the ordinary law courts to touch. This new court of the Star Chamber outlived its original purpose, and became an abuse. Henry VII.'s policy was peaceful, and he did not aim at gaining glory for his new dynasty by foreign warfare. The daughter of his former protector, the Duke of Britanny, asked his help against France; and the English people were ready for war. Henry VII. used his people's zeal as a means for raising large supplies, but only made a show of fighting, and, in 1492 made with Charles VIII. of France the Peace of Étaples, by which he consented to be bought off by a large money payment of £149,000. A new pretender, a Fleming, Peter Osbeck, generally known as Perkin Warbeck, claimed to be a son of Edward IV., who had escaped from the hands of Richard III. By the Treaty of Étaples, Warbeck was expelled from France. He was, however, warmly supported by Margaret of Burgundy, and had many adherents in England. Henry VII. steadily pursued them, and punished them with remorseless severity. After an unsuccessful attempt at landing on the coast of Kent in 1495, 160 prisoners were hanged. In 1496 Henry VII. made a commercial treaty, known as "The Great Intercourse," with Flanders, by which liberty of trading was secured, and each party undertook to expel the other's rebels from their territory. The obvious advantages of commercial intercourse overcame dynastic politics, and Flanders was no more a seedbed of plots against the English monarchy. Warbeck took refuge in Scotland, where Henry VII.'s policy of conciliation was not yet able to overcome national animosity. Still it made so much progress that Warbeck was driven to seek his fortunes in the field, and in September, 1497, landed in Cornwall. As the royal troops advanced, Warbeck's forces melted away, and he was taken prisoner in the abbey of Beaulieu. Warbeck made an attempt to escape from prison, and led the Earl of Warwick to share in his attempt. In 1499 they were both executed, and Henry VII. was at last free from any pretender to his throne. Henry VII. devoted himself to the great object of establishing the royal power at home, and of raising the English monarchy to a strong position in European affairs. He lived economically, and seldom summoned Parliament. He used benevolences to raise money, and rigidly exercised all the old rights of the crown. He reduced the barons into complete obedience, and raised up a new class of officials. He succeeded in bringing Ireland into greater order and closer connection with England. The Deputy, Sir Edward Poynings, passed a law which made the Irish Parliament largely dependent on the English king. Henry VII. steadily pursued the endeavour of bringing Scotland into closer union with England, and in this he was helped by his alliance with France, which weakened its connection with Scotland. In 1502, peace was established with Scotland, and Henry VII.'s daughter, Margaret, was given in marriage to the Scottish king James IV.

In foreign affairs Henry VII. recognised a congenial spirit in Ferdinand of Aragon, and wished to restore on a firmer basis the traditional alliance between England and the Spanish house. A marriage was arranged between the Infanta, Catherine, and Arthur, Henry VII.'s eldest son. It took place in November, 1501, but five months afterwards Arthur died at the age of fifteen. Henry VII. and Ferdinand were both unwilling to lose the advantages of this connection. It was agreed that Arthur's brother Henry should marry Catherine. The necessary dispensations were obtained, and Catherine stayed in England, but the marriage was not celebrated till after Henry VII.'s death. The death of Queen Elizabeth in 1503 left Henry VII. free to carry farther his policy of Continental alliances. He proposed to marry Margaret, daughter of the Emperor Maximilian, whose son Philip was Duke of Burgundy. By this marriage he proposed, amongst other advantages, to secure possession of Edmund de la Pole, son of the Duke of Suffolk and Edward IV.'s sister Elizabeth. A storm drove Philip of Burgundy on the English coast, and Henry VII., in return for his hospitality, demanded the surrender of Edmund de la Pole, who was imprisoned in the Tower. The marriage with Margaret did not take place, and Henry VII. spent his last years in devising other marriages for himself and his daughter. None of them were accomplished; but their object was to secure for his house a sure friendship both with Austrian and Spanish lines. Henry VII.'s financial policy became more and more rapacious, and he was skilful in finding ready instruments, chief of whom were Edmund Dudley and Richard Empson. When Henry VII. died on April 22, 1509, he left England pacified and the royal coffers well filled. He had done a difficult task with thoroughness and persistency. He gave England order, peace, and prosperity. He established firmly his own house on the English throne. He secured its position by a system of alliances abroad. By the same means he protected English interests, and gained for England an important place in European politics without fighting a single battle. His prudent use of the means

at his disposal won for him in after times the name of the "Solomon of England."

Polydore Vergil, *Anglica Historica;* Hall, *Chronicle of the Union of the Houses of York and Lancaster; Memorials of Henry VII.*, ed. Gairdner (Rolls Series); Francesco Capello, *Relazione* (Camden Society); *London Chronicle* (Camden Miscellany, vol. iv.); Bacon, *Hist. of the Reign of Henry VII.;* Pauli, *Englische Geschichte;* Hallam, *Constitutional Hist. of England;* Gairdner, *Henry the Seventh.* [M. C.]

Henry VIII., King (*b.* June 28, 1491, *s.* April 22, 1509, *d.* Jan. 28, 1547), was the son of Henry VII. and Elizabeth of York. He came to the throne a handsome and accomplished young man, whose accession was hailed with joy as a relief from the severe and sombre rule of Henry VII. Henry VIII. increased his popularity by prosecuting the hated instruments of his father's extortion, Empson and Dudley, who were put to death on a charge of plotting to seize the royal person. He intimated his intention of carrying on his father's foreign policy by completing the marriage, which had long been deferred, with Catherine of Aragon, his brother Arthur's widow. He longed to plunge into an adventurous career of foreign policy, for which the troubled state of European affairs afforded every opportunity. Italy was the battle-field of the rival claims of the Empire, France, and Spain. The League of Cambrai—for the dismemberment of Venice—had awakened the Pope's jealousy against France. The Holy League was formed in 1511 against Louis XII., and Henry VIII. gladly joined it. An English army was sent under the Duke of Suffolk to co-operate with Spanish troops in the south of France. But Ferdinand used it only for his own purposes; he delayed any great operations, and the English suffered from the climate. Nothing was done in this campaign of 1512; but next year Henry VIII. arranged to co-operate with the German king, Maximilian, in Flanders. The bloodless Battle of the Spurs (Aug. 16, 1513) secured the fall of Terouenne, and Tournai also was taken. France retaliated on England by stirring up the Scots to break the peace which they had recently made with England. James IV. crossed the border with a large army, but was defeated and slain by the Earl of Surrey in the battle of Flodden Field. The year 1513 was successful for Henry VIII.'s ambitious schemes. But his allies were ready for a truce. Henry VIII. could not continue the war by himself. He made peace with Louis XII. in return for large sums of money, and ratified the peace by giving his sister Mary in marriage to the old king. The death of James IV. of Scotland left another of Henry's sisters, Margaret, the queen dowager, regent of Scotland. But her second marriage, with the Earl of Angus, made her unpopular, and afforded an opening for French intrigues. The death of Louis XII. and the accession of Francis I. in 1515, again led to European war, which was ended in 1518, by a confederacy between England, France, and Spain.

Henry's chief adviser was Thomas Wolsey, who rose by his abilities, and showed his capacity especially by managing the details of the campaign of 1513. Next year he was made Archbishop of York, and Chancellor. He soon was created cardinal, and made papal legate in England. His civil and ecclesiastical authority combined gave him a commanding position. He was devoted to the king's service, and bent upon exalting the royal authority. He likewise upheld stoutly the authority of the Church, though he wished to reform some of its abuses. Above all he laboured to make England influential and respected in European affairs. At home he exercised arbitrary power. From 1515 to 1523 no Parliament was summoned, but money was collected by forced loans and benevolences.

The death of Maximilian in 1519 raised the question of succession to the Empire. Henry VIII. offered himself as a candidate; but the contest really lay between Francis I. and Charles, grandson alike of Ferdinand and Maximilian. The election of Charles V. was the beginning of a long rivalry between France and the house of Hapsburg. Both wished to secure the support of England, and Wolsey enhanced the importance of the English alliance by temporising between the two powers. Charles V. condescended to visit Canterbury for a conference with Henry VIII. Francis I. arranged an interview on the plain of Ardres, with such magnificence that it was known as the "Field of the Cloth of Gold." But in Wolsey's eyes the interests of England could be better served by siding with Charles V., and in the war which followed, England saw its ally everywhere successful. France retaliated on England, as usual, by raising disturbances in Scotland, where the Duke of Albany attacked the English borders. He was, however, outgeneralled by the Earl of Surrey, and in 1523 a peace for eighteen years was made with Scotland.

In 1523 Henry VIII. had hopes of reviving the English claims on the French throne. But Charles V. had no wish to see his ally become too powerful. His object was to use the help of England to enable him to make a satisfactory peace with France in his own interests. Wolsey soon saw this, and the alliance of England with Charles V. began rapidly to cool. The complete success of Charles V. at the battle of Pavia, in 1525, where Francis I. was taken prisoner, showed still more clearly that England had nothing to gain from her ally. Henry VIII. and Wolsey came round to the French side, and in 1528 England declared war against Charles V.

During this period Henry VIII. was regarded as a gay, pleasure-loving king, ambitious, and full of great schemes, which he

was content to leave in the hands of Wolsey to be worked out. Wolsey's hand was heavy on the people, and his taxation was arbitrary that he might raise adequate supplies. Henry VIII. stood aloof from these questions. He retained his own popularity, and allowed all the responsibility and all the odium to fall upon Wolsey's shoulders. The country was prosperous and contented under a strong government, and looked with fervent loyalty upon the king who secured their peace. But Henry VIII. had no male heirs. All his children by Catherine died in infancy, save a daughter, Mary. Uncertainty about the succession to the throne would again plunge England into a bloody conflict. Henry VIII. repressed all speculation about the future with sternness. In 1521 the Duke of Buckingham was condemned and executed as a traitor on slight charges of attempting to forecast the duration of the king's life. But Henry VIII. was uneasy at the want of a male heir. His wife, Catherine, was older than himself, and was sickly. So long as he remained in alliance with Charles V., Catherine had a political significance. On the breach with Charles V., she became an obstacle in the way of the new policy. The marriage with a brother's widow had sufficient irregularity to give grounds for a divorce, and a desire for a divorce gradually took possession of the king's mind. It became a determined object when the king fell in love with Anne Boleyn, a lady of Catherine's court. Wolsey had favoured the divorce scheme in the interests of the alliance with France. When he found that it was urged to make room for Anne Boleyn, he was dismayed, but none the less obeyed the king. The question was, however, an awkward one, and it was difficult to find good reasons for urging it on the Pope. Clement VII. was cowed by the sack of Rome in 1527, and was afraid of drawing on himself the wrath of Charles V. He consented to constitute Cardinals Wolsey and Campeggio commissioners to examine into the king's plea, and the legates sat in London in 1529. But the case was revoked to Rome, and Henry was left disappointed. Every effort was made to override or outwit the unfortunate Catherine; but her resolution left the Pope no chance of evading the main issue, which was the validity of the dispensation issued by a previous Pope. It is no wonder that Clement VII. hesitated.

The immediate result of Henry's disappointment was the disgrace of Wolsey, who had so faithfully served his master that he had no other friend. Wolsey was brought under the penalties of the Statute of Præmunire for having exercised the office of legate. He died in November, 1530, foreseeing the great questions that would arise. "The king," he said, "is of royal spirit, and hath a princely heart; rather than he will miss or want part of his appetite, he will hazard the loss of half a kingdom." Henry was resolute for his divorce, and was still anxious to obtain the papal sanction. In dragging before the world all the secrets of his domestic life, and showing openly his attachment to Anne Boleyn, he entered upon a career which led to momentous results. The Lutheran revolt in Germany had done much to shake the foundation of the papal authority, and Henry VIII. had shown his orthodoxy by writing against Luther, and receiving from the Pope the title of "Defender of the Faith." But the demand for reform was loud inside the Church, and Henry VIII. encouraged the Parliament of 1529 to pass measures for remedying clerical abuses. He tried to bring further pressure to bear upon the Pope by gathering opinions of the universities of Europe upon the question of the papal power to grant a dispensation for marriage with a brother's widow. In 1531 he went further, and threatened all the clergy of England with the penalties of Præmunire because they had recognised Wolsey's legatine authority. They bought off the royal displeasure, but were driven in their bill to give the king the title of supreme head of the Church. Still the Pope did not give way, and next year Parliament was encouraged to continue the war against the clergy, and the payment of annates or first-fruits to the Pope was attacked. At last the king's patience was exhausted, and in January, 1533, he was secretly married to Anne Boleyn. The Pope threatened excommunication, whereon an Act was passed forbidding appeals to Rome. The divorce question was then tried before the court of Archbishop Cranmer; and Catherine, who refused to plead, was pronounced contumacious, and sentence was given against her. The Pope declared the divorce illegal. The breach with Rome was complete. Henry VIII. had done what he could to avoid the breach; but step by step he was drawn on until it was inevitable. The Parliament of 1534 finished the work of separating the Church of England from the papal headship, and instituting it as a national church under the headship of the king.

Henry VIII.'s chief adviser in these measures was Thomas Cromwell, who had risen to notice in Wolsey's service. Cromwell wished to re-establish the royal power as supreme over Church and State alike. The discontent created by these sweeping measures was sternly repressed. The Succession Act, which settled the crown upon the children of Anne Boleyn, was made a test of loyalty. The royal supremacy was enacted by Parliament, and it was high treason to question that title. Cromwell's spies and informers crowded the land. The monks of the Charterhouse perished on the scaffold for refusing to admit the royal supremacy. Sir Thomas More and Bishop Fisher were executed because they could not conscientiously take oath that they

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Photo : Emery Walker.

HENRY VIII.

From the portrait in the National Portrait Gallery.

heartily approved of these changes. By these examples the discontented were cowed into acquiescence. The royal supremacy, exercised by Cromwell as Vicar-General, was used for clearing away seedplots of disaffection. In 1536 the smaller monasteries were visited and suppressed, and in 1539 the larger monasteries were involved in the same fate. Their lands passed into the hands of a class of new nobility, who thus had a direct interest in maintaining the new state of things. The abbots disappeared from the House of Lords, and the Parliamentary influence of the Church was at an end.

There was no limit to the royal power, or to the subserviency of Parliament. Henry VIII. seems to have regarded himself as beyond all recognised principles of human conduct. In 1536 Anne Boleyn was accused of unchastity, and was beheaded. The day after her execution the king married Jane Seymour. Again the succession to the throne was altered by Act of Parliament. Henry VIII. was even allowed to nominate his successor by will. But the king's position was dangerous. In Ireland there was a serious rising of the Fitzgeralds. In Lincolnshire, an army of discontented folks presented their grievances. In Yorkshire, a more serious rising, "the Pilgrimage of Grace," was put down by the Duke of Norfolk. To guard against a rising of the old Yorkist faction in the west, the grandson of Edward IV., Edward Courtenay, Marquis of Exeter, was executed as a traitor. By the end of 1537, the disaffection created by the violent changes had been stamped out.

Henry VIII. desired nothing more than the absorption into the crown of the powers previously exercised by the Pope. But it was difficult to repress the zeal of those who were inspired by the teaching of Luther, and discussed the doctrines of the Church with freedom. Religious change and doctrinal reform spread more widely than Henry VIII. liked. He was willing to use it so far as it enabled him to make good his position, but no further. In 1539 Parliament passed the Bill of Six Articles, which asserted the chief points of the old system against the attacks of the Reformers. Cromwell was disposed to go further, and seek political advantages by a close alliance with the Protestant princes of Germany. In 1540 he negotiated Henry VIII.'s fourth marriage, with Anne, daughter of John, Duke of Cleves. His new wife displeased the king; the German princes were too irresolute to be of any political service. Henry VIII. repudiated his wife, and abandoned Cromwell, who was condemned by bill of attainder, and was executed. The king married Catherine Howard, niece of the Duke of Norfolk, and a reaction against Cromwell's policy set in. Catherine Howard was, in the year 1542, convicted of misconduct, and was executed Next year Henry married, as his sixth wife, Catherine Parr, widow of Lord Latimer; with her he contrived to live in peace.

The remainder of Henry VIII.'s reign was spent in war with Scotland and France, which, to his great annoyance, had renewed their old alliance. The young king, James V., married a French wife, and, in 1542, ravaged the borders; but died in consequence of the ignominious rout of his army at Solway Moss. Still the French party prevailed in Scotland, and the English generals on the borders kept up a merciless system of plundering raids. Indignant against France, Henry again allied himself with Charles V., and, in 1544, captured Boulogne. But Charles V. made peace for himself, and abandoned his ally. Still Henry VIII. carried on the war single-handed till, in 1546, peace was made at Boulogne, and France agreed to pay a large pension to the English king. Meanwhile, Henry VIII.'s health was giving way, and his popularity had greatly waned. There was a secret strife between religious parties, which only the strong hand of the king could repress. The Duke of Norfolk led the reactionary party; the Earl of Hertford, uncle of the young Edward, heir to the throne, favoured the Reformers. Norfolk and his son, the Earl of Surrey, behaved so as to awaken the king's suspicions. Henry VIII. was above all things careful that there should be no disturbance during the minority of his son. In December, 1546, Norfolk and Surrey were suddenly imprisoned. Surrey was beheaded, and Norfolk was about to share the same fate when Henry VIII. died on Jan. 28, 1547.

Henry VIII. was by nature a highly-gifted man, of a strongly-marked character, which won the hearts of all. He attached his ministers to him as few rulers have ever succeeded in doing. He used their loyal devotion to the full, and then remorselessly abandoned them. He was above all things a king. No king had a higher sense of the privileges of royalty; no king exercised them more fully, or succeeded in obtaining for them a fuller recognition from his people. Henry is equally remarkable for what he did, and for what he abstained from doing. He clothed his own caprice in the forms of justice; he elevated his own personal desires to principles of national policy; he strained the Constitution to its furthest point, but he did not break it; he was a tyrant, but he clothed his tyranny under the forms of parliamentary sanction; he so far identified himself with the general interest of his people, that they were ready to trust him with larger powers than any previous king enjoyed. In his private life his coarseness was strangely mixed with questions of the national welfare; and the morality required from the ordinary man was set aside in the case of the sovereign. Everything was pardoned in a ruler who had a hand strong enough to maintain order, and who

could hold a firm balance between contending factions. Under Henry VIII. England passed through a great crisis without material change of the constitution either of Church or State. A great revolution was accomplished with comparative peace.

Calendar of State Papers; Stow, *Chronicle;* Holinshed, *Chronicle;* Wriothesley, *Chronicle* (Camden Society); Cavendish, *Life of Wolsey;* *Zürich Letters* (Parker Society); Strype, *Ecclesiastical Memorials;* Lord Herbert of Cherbury, *Life of Henry VIII.;* Pocock, *Records of the Reformation;* Dixon, *Hist. of the Church of Eng.;* Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.;* J. S. Brewer, *Reign of Henry VIII.;* Froude, *Hist. of Eng.* and *Divorce of Catherine of Aragon.* [M. C.]

Henry, Prince of Wales (*b.* 1594, *d.* 1612), the eldest son of James I., was a prince of great promise. It was for his benefit that his father wrote the manual of conduct entitled, *Basilikon Doron*, or *The Royal Gift.* He seems to have been very popular with the Scots as well as with the English, and owing to his violent dislike of Popery the young prince was the hope of the Protestant party of England; and his character and attainments offered high promise. He died in November, 1612, from a fever probably brought on by over-violent exertions. The suspicion that he was poisoned seems to have been altogether unfounded.

Bacon, *In Henricum Principem Walliæ Eulogium;* *Court and Times of James I.;* Cornwallis, *Life of Prince Henry* (*Somers's Tract II.*); S. R. Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng., 1603—1642.*

Henry, son of Henry II. (*b.* 1155, *d.* 1183), was married at an early age to Margaret, daughter of Louis VII. of France. His father had destined him to succeed him in England, Normandy, and Anjou, while the rest of his dominions was to be divided between his other sons. In 1172, in pursuance of this scheme, the young Henry was crowned king, and in 1173 was re-crowned with his wife. Next year Henry II., anxious to make some provision for John, requested his elder sons to give up to their brother some few castles out of their promised shares of his dominions. The young King Henry refused, and joined the French king in the great confederation he had formed against Henry II.; but the allies were defeated everywhere, and Henry was only too glad to seek reconciliation with his father. But his intrigues continued both against his father and his brother Richard, his whole aim being to establish an independent dominion for himself. In 1183 these intrigues ended in an open revolt in which Henry and Geoffrey were ranged against Prince Richard and their father. A miserable civil war ensued, in the course of which Henry died at Martel. Of his character Giraldus Cambrensis speaks in terms of high commendation, which the facts of his life fail to justify.

Lyttelton, *History of Henry II.*

Henry, Prince of Scotland (*d.* 1152), was the son of David I. Stephen, soon after his coronation, conferred on him the fiefs of Northampton and Huntingdon, which his father repudiated, and at the Treaty of Durham, 1139, added Northumbria as well. Henry led a division of the Scottish army at the Battle of the Standard, 1138. He died June, 1152, to the sorrow of all, for we are told by the chroniclers that he was a brave and able soldier, and walked like his father in the paths of justice and of truth. He married Ada, daughter of William de Warenne, Earl of Surrey.

Henry of Almayne (*b.* 1235, *d.* 1271) was the son of Richard of Cornwall, King of the Romans. In 1263 he joined the barons against his uncle Henry III., and was taken prisoner by the king, but in the civil war which ensued he fought on the royalist side, and took part in the battle of Lewes. He was afterwards given as one of the hostages to the barons for the performance of the Mise of Lewes, and was by them sent over to France to negotiate a new arbitration by St. Louis. After the defeat of the barons at Evesham, Henry received valuable grants of land, and in 1268 accompanied his cousin Prince Edward on his Crusade. On his return he was murdered at Viterbo in Italy by Simon and Guy de Montfort.

Heptarchy, The, is a term often applied to the English kingdoms which existed previous to the time of Egbert. It has been used generally by most of the historians of the 18th century, and is still a common term in historical text-books. It is, however, inappropriate, as the word Heptarchy (ἑπταρχία) strictly means a government of seven persons. Besides this, it conveys the erroneous idea that there were in England from the fifth to the ninth centuries, always seven independent kingdoms. This was very far from the case: there were often more than seven kingdoms and more frequently fewer; but if every state which at any time had a king of its own were to be reckoned, the number of kingdoms would very far exceed the number. Those writers who use the term Heptarchy, understand by it the kingdoms of Wessex, Sussex, Kent, Essex, East Anglia, Mercia, and Northumbria. [For the whole subject see Anglo-Saxon Kingdoms.]

Herat is a city of immemorial antiquity, situated in Afghanistan on the high road from India to Persia, and Central Asia. Since the foundation of the Afghan monarchy in the middle of the 18th century, Herat has been more or less subject to the claims of Cabul; and when in 1838 the Persians attempted to seize it, the English helped the people of Herat to resist. The Afghans, under Lieut. Eldred Pottinger, endured a famous siege which lasted till the English Government sent a message to the Shah, informing him that his occupation of Herat would be fol-

lowed by war, whereupon the Persians raised the siege Sept. 9, 1838. In 1857 England compelled the Shah to recognise the independence of Herat; in 1863 it was definitely incorporated with Afghanistan.

Sir W. Napier, *Administration of Scinde.*

Herbert OF CHERBURY, EDWARD, LORD (*b.* 1583, *d.* 1648), was educated at Oxford, and, after travelling abroad, where he made the acquaintance of Casaubon and other great scholars, serving in the Netherlands under the Prince of Orange (1615—16), and visiting Italy, was appointed English ambassador at Paris (1618). Seven years later he retired into private life, and devoted himself to literary pursuits. In the Civil War he ultimately sided with the Parliament, though at first somewhat inclined to the Royalist cause. Lord Herbert's chief historical writings are a *History of Henry VIII.*, an account of the *Expedition to the Isle of Rhé* (in which he defends Buckingham's conduct), and a celebrated *Autobiography.* Lord Herbert also wrote several philosophical works, in which he laid down the principles of Deism.

Herbert OF LEA, SIDNEY HERBERT, 1ST LORD (*b.* 1810, *d.* 1861), entered Parliament as member for Wiltshire in 1832, and attached himself to the party of Sir Robert Peel and the Conservatives. In 1841 the last-mentioned statesman appointed him Secretary of the Admiralty, from which office he was, in 1845, promoted to be Secretary for War. In common with almost every other member of Sir Robert Peel's government, he changed his views with regard to the question of Protection, and became an ardent advocate of free trade. On Sir Robert's death, Sidney Herbert, in company with Sir James Graham, Mr. Gladstone, and a few others, formed a party by themselves called "Peelites." When the Earl of Aberdeen became Premier, nearly the whole of the Peelites took office, and Sidney Herbert once more became Secretary for War, but was not altogether successful as the head of this department at the breaking out of the Crimean War. When Lord Palmerston succeeded to Lord Aberdeen, Mr. Sidney Herbert was made Colonial Secretary. In 1859 he again became Secretary of State for War under Lord Palmerston, and introduced some important reforms. In the midst of these labours Mr. Herbert's health began to fail. He was called to the Upper House by the title of Lord Herbert of Lea in 1860.

Herbert, SIR THOMAS (*b.* 1605, *d.* 1682), was a member of the family of Pembroke, and had distinguished himself as a traveller when, on the outbreak of the Civil War, he joined the Parliamentary party. He was employed as commissary of Fairfax's army, and when Charles I. was betrayed by the Scotch, he was made one of the king's attendants. The *Threnodia Carolina,* which he published in 1678, gives a minute account of Charles I.'s life during his imprisonment. He was made a baronet in 1660, but took no farther part in public affairs, devoting himself almost exclusively to antiquarian researches. Sir Thomas Herbert published an account of his travels in 1634, and this work has been subsequently reprinted. His account of Charles I.'s last days was re-published in 1701 and 1813.

Hereford first appears in history as the place where Bishop Putta settled (676), on the exercise of his episcopal functions after he was obliged to leave Rochester. Here, according to Dr. Bright, he may have acted as a kind of suffragan for Saxulf, Bishop of Mercia, though we are not to consider him the first of a continuous line of bishops belonging to this see. Hereford was destroyed by Gruffydd, of Wales, in 1055, but was re-fortified by Harold the same year. Its first charter dates from the reign of Richard I. (1189).

Hereford, THE PEERAGES OF. The earldom of Hereford was held by William Fitz-Osbern, the Conqueror's Justiciary, and by his son Roger. In 1140 the title was granted by the Empress Matilda to Milo of Gloucester, from whom it passed to his son, and then to the son of his daughter, Margery, wife of Humphrey de Bohun. Seven earls were descended from the Bohun family, until its extinction in this branch, in 1372. In 1397, Henry of Bolingbroke, afterwards king, was created Duke of Hereford, a title which became merged in the crown. In 1550 a viscounty of the same style was created for Walter Devereux, who was descended from Eleanor, daughter of the last earl of the Bohun family. Walter's son was made Earl of Essex (1572), but in the next generation, Robert, the famous Earl of Essex, was attainted and beheaded (1601). His son, Robert, was restored in blood and honours in 1603, but died childless in 1646, when the viscounty of Hereford devolved upon his cousin, Sir Walter Devereux, in whose issue it still remains.

Hereford, HUMPHREY DE BOHUN, 10TH EARL OF (*d.* 1298), Lord High Constable of England, succeeded to his grandfather's title and estates in the year 1275. His father had been a supporter of Simon de Montfort, and the son inherited the traditions of the baronial party. This Earl of Hereford is chiefly remarkable for having headed the opposition to Edward I.'s demands in 1297, and refused to serve the king abroad. It was in vain that Edward threatened or prayed, the earl and his fellow-baron, Bigod, stood their ground, and when the Council broke up raised a force of fifteen hundred cavalry to prevent the king from seizing the wool or collecting money. This contest led to the enactment of the statute *De Tallagio non concedendo.* Dr. Stubbs considers that Here-

ford's conduct on this occasion was not dictated by any strongly disinterested motive, but actuated by revenge for his imprisonment in 1292.

Hereford, Humphrey de Bohun, 11th Earl of (*d.* 1322), was the son of the tenth earl, and married Elizabeth, the seventh daughter of Edward I. He inherited something of the spirit of his father, and was one of the Ordainers in 1310. Eight years later he was appointed one of the four earls in the permanent Council of 1318. In 1321 he was forbidden to attend a meeting of the aggrieved lords, at which he meditated exposing his wrongs. His great cause of complaint was the power of the Despensers, who were threatening his influence on the Welsh Marches. In the same year he was the chief prosecutor of the Despensers in Parliament, and was formally pardoned for the part he took in these proceedings. Next year he was slain at the battle of Boroughbridge (1322).

Heresy, Legislation concerning. According to the canon law, heresy was a subject of ecclesiastical discipline. The suspected heretic was summoned before the bishop's court, was examined concerning his opinions, and was required to submit to the parental jurisdiction of his ecclesiastical father. If convicted, he submitted, did penance, confessed his errors, and amended his ways. The common law, in early times, took cognisance of heresy, but probably only in the case of those who were contumacious to their bishop, or relapsed after submission. Heresy was a subject of inquest at the sheriffs' tourn, and the punishment of avowed unbelief was burning. But in early times there were very few cases of heresy, and it did not cause any serious trouble till the rise of Lollardy. In the Assize of Clarendon heresy is noted, but heretics are treated with a leniency contrasting strongly with the legislation of later times. The Lollard preachers refused to obey the citations of the bishops summoning them to answer for their opinions. In 1382 a statute was passed enacting that commissions should be directed to the sheriffs to arrest persons certified by the bishops to be heretics, and to keep them in prison until they satisfied the Church. Archbishop Courtenay drew up a series of fourteen propositions which were condemned as heretical. The king, by royal letter, empowered the bishops to imprison all who maintained the condemned propositions. The chief Lollard teachers in Oxford were tried, and made submission. But in the Parliament of 1383 the Commons petitioned against the statute as not having received their consent. Though the statute was not repealed, no further proceedings were taken under it, though in 1391 Archbishop Arundel proceeded under the royal letters of 1382.

The spread of Lollardy was, however, a source of political as well as ecclesiastical discontent, and in 1401 a severely repressive statute was passed, *De Hæretico Comburendo* (2 Henry IV., c. 15). By this Act the bishop was empowered to arrest and imprison a heretic; he was bound to try him within three months; he had power to imprison or fine him, if he were convicted; if he refused to abjure, he was to be given over to the sheriff and publicly burned. During the session in which this Act was passed, a Lollard teacher, William Sawtre, was burned by the king's writ. Even the powers given by this statute were not found sufficient, and in 1406 the Commons petitioned the king to enact that all officers of the crown should make inquest for heretics and present them for trial before Parliament. Though the king gave his consent, nothing was done; possibly the archbishop objected to the confusion of spiritual and secular jurisdictions. But the principle contained in this petition was turned into a statute by Henry V. in 1414. This statute expanded the law of 1401, and provided further that all justices should inquire after heretics, and deliver them to the ordinaries to be tried by the spiritual court. Heresy was now made an offence against the common law; and the secular arm was not merely used to support the spiritual power, but had the duty of initiating proceedings against offenders. This statute seems to have been sufficient to suppress Lollardy. The number of trials, however, under all these statutes was not numerous, and the executions were few.

With the outbreak of the Reformation movement, heresy again became a crime, and the use of the old statutes was revived. The executions for opinion during the sixteenth century were carried out by virtue of them, and the legislation of that period was concerned rather with determining what was heresy than how heretics were to be tried and punished. By a statute of 1533 offences against the see of Rome were declared not to be heresy. In 1539 the Bill of the Six Articles declared what opinions were heretical. We need not follow the variations in this definition during the two succeeding reigns. On the accession of Elizabeth in 1559, former statutes were repealed. Heresy as a simple offence was visited by spiritual punishment in a spiritual court; contumacious or relapsed heretics, after conviction by a provincial synod, were handed over to the secular arm to be burned. At the same time heresy was defined to be such opinions as were contrary to (1) canonical scripture, (2) the four general councils, (3) future declarations of Parliament with the assent of Convocation. Still Anabaptists were burnt under Elizabeth, and Arians under James I. The punishment of death for heresy was abolished under Charles II. in 1677, and the heretic was subject only to ecclesiastical

correction "pro salute animæ." An Act of 1698 made apostacy or denial of Christianity an offence liable to imprisonment.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, vol. iii.; *Report of Ecclesiastical Courts Commission*, Appendix; Blackstone, *Commentaries*. [M. C.]

Heretoga (lit., the army leader) was the Anglo-Saxon title given originally to the commander of the army; but in later times it seems (like its Latin equivalent "dux") to have become hereditary, and was sometimes used synonymously with the titles of "ealdorman" and "earl." Heretoga is the word used in the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* to describe Hengest and Horsa; whereas Cerdic and Cynric are called "ealdormen."

See *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, in the Rolls Series, vol. i., pp. 21 and 24.

Hereward (*d. circa* 1073), called the Wake, was the son of Leofric, Lord of Bourne, in Lincolnshire. He seems to have fled from the country for some time after the Conquest, but had returned and was in possession of the Isle of Ely in 1070. Round him were soon gathered the bravest and most resolute of the English outlaws, Bishop Ethelwine, of Durham, Siward, and even Earl Morcar. Hereward's first recorded exploit was the plunder of the monastery at Ely, which had just received a new Norman abbot, Turold, from Malmesbury. The fame of his courage was now spread abroad, and we read of an unsuccessful effort made by the men of Berkshire to join his camp. William therefore determined to crush, in person, a rebellion which was assuming such large proportions. Fixing his head-quarters at Cambridge, he commenced a regular siege, and forced the greater part of the defenders to yield (1071), but Hereward with a few followers broke through the enemies' ranks and escaped. Legend asserted that he long continued his predatory incursions against the monastery of Ely, and that he was in later times reconciled to William by the offices of his wife Ælfthryth. According to Geoffrey Gaimar, William took him over to help in the reduction of Maine when that province revolted in 1073.

Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, vol. iv.

Heriot (a word derived from the Anglo-Saxon Here-geat, war-gear) was the right of the lord on the death of his tenant to seize either the best beast or the best chattel of which the tenant is possessed at the time of his death. It originated from the fact that the lord used to lend his vassal horse and armour for life, which on the tenant's death reverted to the lord. The custom is by some held to have been introduced into England by the Danes, and continues down to the present day on copyhold land, though either the lord or the tenant can compel the extinguishment of the right. Heriot differs from Relief, as it is paid out of the estate of the last tenant, not by the heir.

Hermitage Castle, in Roxburghshire, is the place where Sir Alexander Ramsay was starved to death by the Knight of Liddesdale (1342). In Jan., 1347, it was taken by the English. In later years it passed from the hands of the Douglases to the Earl of Bothwell, who was visited there by Queen Mary, after he had been wounded in a border fray, 1561.

Herries, John Maxwell, Lord (*d.* 1583), though at first an adherent of the Lords of Congregation, became a supporter of Mary Queen of Scots, whom he warned in solemn terms against marrying Bothwell. On the queen's escape from Lochleven, Herries joined her at Hamilton, and, in company with Lord Fleming, was sent as her ambassador to Elizabeth, and subsequently acted as one of her commissioners at the inquiry of York. He was accused of aiding the Hamiltons against the Regent Murray, but obtained an indemnity. Lord Herries was a subtle diplomatist, and no mean rival to such men as Lethington and Cecil.

Herrings, The Battle of (Feb. 12, 1429), was fought near Rouvrai between the English and the French. The English had been besieging the town of Orleans since the summer of the year 1428, and Sir John Fastolf was commissioned to conduct a convoy of provisions for the use of the English army. The French made an effort to prevent its arrival at the besiegers' camp, and attacked Sir John, who had only 1,700 men under him, with very superior numbers. Sir John, however, entrenched his men behind the waggons, and succeeded in routing the enemy, finishing their confusion by ordering a charge when he perceived that his opponents were disorganised. This success seemed to have rendered the fall of Orleans almost unavoidable; and, indeed, the town must soon have surrendered had it not been for the appearance of Joan of Arc. The Battle of Herrings was so named from the fact that a large part of the provisions convoyed by the English troops consisted of salted fish for the use of the besiegers.

Hertford was a place of considerable importance under the Anglo-Saxon kings. An ecclesiastical synod was held there as early as the year 673. It was the site of one of the numerous castles founded by Edward the Elder in the first decade of the tenth century. The castle was reconstructed and fortified after the Norman Conquest. It held out for Henry III. in the rebellion of the barons, and was captured by Louis the Dauphin, Dec., 1216. The castle and earldom of Hertford were conferred on John of Gaunt in 1345.

Hertford, Edward Seymour, 2nd Earl of (*d.* 1621), was the son of the Duke of

Somerset, Protector of England. On the accession of Elizabeth, the earldom was revived in his favour (1559). Shortly afterwards (1561) Hertford was imprisoned in the Tower and fined £15,000 for having secretly married Lady Catherine Grey, who was regarded by Elizabeth as a possible dangerous rival. Archbishop Parker declared their union illegal, and the issue illegitimate. Hertford underwent a long imprisonment, and continued in obscurity during Elizabeth's reign. He was afterwards married again, and lived to extreme old age.

Hervey, JOHN, LORD (*b.* 1696, *d.* 1743), second son of the Earl of Bristol, succeeded to the courtesy title on the death of his elder brother in 1723. During most of his career he supported Walpole. In 1731 he fought a duel with Pulteney, on account of a libel against himself which Pulteney refused to disavow. Both combatants were slightly wounded. In 1740 he was appointed Lord Privy Seal against the wish of the Duke of Newcastle, and we find him subsequently intriguing with Pulteney and Chesterfield against Sir Robert Walpole. In 1743 he distinguished himself by a speech against the Gin Act. Lord Hervey left behind him certain memoirs of his own time, which form a most valuable addition to the history of the period of which they treat. He had the misfortune to offend Pope, who has branded him under the pseudonym of Sporus in the *Prologue to the Satires.*

Lord Hervey's *Memoirs of the Reign of George II.* were first published by Mr. J. W. Croker in 1848.

Hexham, in Northumberland, was the site of a great abbey founded by Wilfrid in 674 Four or five years later he instituted it a bishopric. In 875, however, the town and abbey were sacked and burned by the Northmen, and in 883 the diocese was annexed to Lindisfarne.

Hexham, THE BATTLE OF (May 15, 1464), was fought during the Wars of the Roses soon after the battle of Hedgeley Moor, by Montague against Somerset and the remnant of the Lancastrians. The latter were totally defeated and Somerset slain. Henry IV. found a refuge in Lancashire, while Margaret and her son fled to Flanders.

Hexham, JOHN OF (*fl.* twelfth century), was the author of the *Continuation to the History of Simeon of Durham.* This continuation extends from 1130 to 1154, and is, for the most part, a mere compilation. From the year 1139 to the end it is, however, much fuller, and is specially valuable for Northern transactions, though it is not free from chronological errors. It seems to have been compiled towards the close of the twelfth century. John was Prior of Hexham, but beyond this fact nothing seems to be known of his life.

John of Hexham's *Continuation* is published in Twysden's *Decem Scriptores.*

Heylin, PETER (*b.* 1600, *d.* 1662), was educated at Oxford, and recommended by Laud for the office of chaplain to the king. During the Civil War he was stripped of his property and forced to hide himself. In his retirement he devoted himself to literature; and on the Restoration he was restored to his benefices. Dr. Heylin's chief historical work is entitled *Cyprianus Anglicanus: a History of the Life and Death . . . of Archbishop Laud.* He was also the author of *A Short View of the Life of Charles I.*, and several other works.

Hicks Beach, SIR MICHAEL EDWARD (*b.* 1837), was Parliamentary Secretary to the Poor Law Board from February till December, 1868. In February, 1874, he took office under Mr. Disraeli as Chief Secretary for Ireland. In 1878 he became Colonial Secretary, in 1885 Chancellor of the Exchequer and Leader of the Lower House, in 1886 Irish Secretary, in 1888 President of the Board of Trade, in 1895 Chancellor of the Exchequer. In 1905 he retired from active political life, and was made Viscount St. Aldwyn..

Hidage was a tax anciently paid to the king for every hide of land. Bracton reckons it with carucage as an extraordinary imposition, and not as a regular service or custom. Under Ethelred the Unready (994) the land was taxed by hides at the time of the Danish invasion, eight hides furnishing a man in full armour, and every three hundred hides a ship. [HIDE.]

Hide, THE, was originally the extent of land allotted for the support of one family. The size of the hide is a question which has given rise to the most various conjectures. Kemble has assigned it thirty-three acres, whereas Grimm gives the corresponding German *huda*, from thirty to forty acres. But in later times the hide was reckoned at 120 acres. Dr. Stubbs has suggested that the different sizes assigned to the hide may be due to a confusion between a man's share in each one of four common fields and in the total, which would, of course, vary from one to four, or from 30 acres to 120; but he adds the warning that this is not by any means a full explanation, and that regard must be had to local custom. Under Norman and Plantagenet rule, when division into knights' fees seem to have become more and more paramount, it is difficult to discover that they bore any fixed proportion to the hide. In the *Liber Niger de Scaccario*, the size of the knight's fee varies from two and a half hides to six hides. Other authorities have reckoned it as equivalent to eight, but probably it bore no direct relation to the extent of land, but rather to its value. In Anglo-Saxon times the hide was used as a unit for rating and for estimation of a man's social and political standing. The freeman with five hides and a burh-geat seat ranked

as a thegn; the freeman with forty hides as an eorl.

Dialogus de Scaccario in *Select Charters*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Kemble, *Saxons in England.*

Higden, Ralph (*d.* 1364), a monk of St. Werburgh's, Chester, was the author of a work entitled *Polychronicon*, a universal history and geography, divided into seven books. It is of no great value as an original authority, but as Mr. Gairdner says, "its real interest lies in the view it affords of the historical, geographical, and scientific knowledge of the age in which it appeared." It was translated into English by John Trevisa, vicar of Berkeley, in Edward IV.'s reign, and was one of the earliest works issued by Caxton (1480). Two years later the same printer brought out an edition of Trevisa's translation.

The *Polychronicon* has been published in the Rolls Series with Trevisa's translation.

High Church. This term first appears about 1703 to designate that party in England which demanded the strict enforcement of the laws against Dissenters, and the passing of such additional measures as the Occasional Conformity Bill; it was, in fact, practically synonymous with Tory. In more modern times, however, it is only used to denote those members of the Church of England who hold certain doctrines, and the name has by analogy been given to the party associated with similar doctrines in the seventeenth century. Under Elizabeth the majority of the bishops, and of the more zealous clergy, were Calvinist in theology. Episcopacy was defended as a matter of expediency; conformity was only enforced for the sake of order, and because it was part of the established law. But towards the end of the reign, a party arose among the younger clergy, who "met Calvinism by the assertion of its inconsistency with the ancient doctrine and constitution of the primitive Church, and the claim of a divine right for the Presbyterian polity by claiming a divine right for Episcopacy. They asserted against the individualism of the Puritan theology and worship, the reality of sacramental grace, of the power of absolution, of the authoritative ritual of the Church." (Dr. Barry.) Of this school the most important writer was Bishop Andrewes (1555—1626), the most active practical leader, Laud (1573—1645). It did not become prominent till the later years of James I. That king, though a firm supporter of Episcopacy, and of the established ecclesiastical system, was of distinctly Calvinist sympathies. But his love of order tended to make him favour the growing party; and in 1616, Laud, its leader at Oxford, was appointed to the deanery of Gloucester, to put an end to the irregularities in the cathedral worship, which the Calvinist bishop of that see had allowed. He at once caused the communion table to be removed from the middle of the choir to the east end of the chancel, and placed "altarwise." But his example was not largely followed; and it was not till 1622 that Laud gained much political power. In that year he had taken part in a discussion with the Jesuit Fisher, on the relative claims of the English and Roman Churches, in order to prevent if possible the conversion to Rome of Buckingham's mother. His ability then secured for him considerable influence over Buckingham, and access to Prince Charles, to whom, upon his accession, he became chief adviser in ecclesiastical matters. The new teaching rapidly spread; in its protest against the dogmatic definitions of Calvinism on predestination, it resembled, and was doubtless influenced by, the Arminianism of Holland; so that, in spite of their protests, the term Arminian was generally applied to the members of the party. In 1624 a reply by one of them (Montague) to a Roman Catholic pamphlet, wherein he had denied that the popular Calvinist doctrines were the creed of the Church of England, called forth a remonstrance from the Commons. Montague, however, gained the king's sympathy, and wrote a second book, *Appello Cæsarem*, to explain the same principles. The movement represented by Montague was, however, almost entirely a learned movement; it had little hold upon the country gentry or town traders, and irritated them by exalting the royal prerogative. In 1625 the Commons attacked the second book, and Montague was committed for a short time to the custody of the Sergeant. But Charles was now king, and Laud was supreme in Church matters. Laud was requested to draw up a list of orthodox and Puritan clergy, that preferment might be reserved for the former; and in 1628 Montague became Bishop of Chichester, and Laud himself Bishop of London. In the previous year, Dr. Cozins had prepared for the use of the queen's attendants a book of devotions, which gave to the new teaching an expression startling to the ordinary Englishman of the time; and the declaration prefixed to the Articles in 1629, which was intended to put an end to controversy, still further annoyed the Puritan clergy. In the Parliament of 1628—29 the storm broke, and one of the celebrated three resolutions of 1629 was to the effect that "whosoever shall bring in innovation in religion, or seek to extend Popery or Arminianism, shall be reputed a capital enemy to this kingdom and the commonwealth." Undeterred by this expression of national feeling, Laud, now archbishop, revived in 1634 the disused right of metropolitical visitation, and everywhere caused the communion table to be removed to the east end, fortified by a decision of the king in Privy Council, which was of more than doubtful legality. Laud's action aroused bitter opposition among the clergy, and was one of the main causes of the Civil War.

The Act of Uniformity of 1662 almost completely removed from the English Church the Puritan element; at the same time the country gentry rallied round the Church, and Anglo-Catholic teaching no longer met with the opposition it had encountered in the first half of the century. But as the Church had identified itself with the doctrine of passive obedience, it was with great reluctance that the main body of the clergy took the oath to William III.; eight bishops and 400 clergy preferred to suffer deprivation, and created the nonjuring schism. But though the Church was thus weakened, legitimist feeling, associated with the doctrine of non-resistance, revived under Anne, who was known to favour the Tories and the claims of her brother, the Old Pretender. A bitter warfare of words began between High and Low Church, the latter term meaning the Whig clergy, most of them Latitudinarian, with a few Calvinists. Swift declares, "our State parties, the more to inflame their passions, have mixed religious and civil animosities together, borrowing both their appellations from the Church, with the addition of 'High' and 'Low,' how little soever the disputes relate to these terms." The tide quickly rose; in 1705 Hoadley, preaching against the doctrine of passive obedience, was condemned by the Lower House of Convocation; and in 1710, the impeachment of Sacheverell, for his sermon on non-resistance, brought about the victory of the Tory—*i.e.*, the High Church party. Their period of power (1710—14) was marked by the passing of the Occasional Conformity and Schism Acts, by the building of fifty new churches in London, and by the temporary withdrawal of the Regium Donum from the Irish Presbyterians. But the political ill-success of Tories and Jacobites reacted on the Church, and when Convocation was prorogued in 1717, and not again allowed to meet, the clergy were unable to create any popular movement in their favour. During the earlier part of the eighteenth century, the majority of the bishops were Whig and Low—*i.e.*, Latitudinarian, while the mass of the clergy were Tory and High. But the old doctrinal questions ceased to be discussed; popular preaching concerned itself with morality, and theological controversy touched rather the foundation of Christianity than its superstructure. Soon after the beginning of George III.'s reign, however, the Puritan remnant in the Church were roused to fresh life by the Wesleyan movement, and by the beginning of the next century, the Evangelical party had gained a preponderating influence in the English Church.

It was under these circumstances that the Tractarian movement began at Oxford in 1833. It was thought by several that the only way to meet the ecclesiastical changes threatened by the Whigs (it was the year of the suppression of ten Irish bishoprics) was to fall back on the teaching of the seventeenth century English divines. The "real founder" of this party, according to Dr. Blunt (see article on High Church in *Dict. of Sects and Schools of Thought*) was Hugh James Rose, who was soon joined by John Henry Newman, John Keble, Edward Bouverie Pusey, Hurrell Froude, William Palmer, and Isaac Williams. These commenced the series of *Tracts for the Times*, which brought about a rapid increase of their numbers, and excited the fiercest opposition. In 1841, the *Remonstrance of Four Tutors* (including A. C. Tait, afterwards archbishop) led to the condemnation by the Hebdomadal Council of Newman's Tract No. 90. Four years later Mr. Ward was censured for a treatise by the Convocation of the University of Oxford, though the proctors prevented Newman's name being included. In 1845 Newman joined the Roman Church. In spite of this and other secessions, the party continued to spread. In the Denison case (1856) a sentence of deprivation pronounced by Archbishop Sumner upon a clergyman for certain teaching as to the Eucharist, was reversed by the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, though on technical grounds; and in the Bennett case (1872), high sacramental teaching was distinctly declared permissible. The revival of Anglo-Catholic doctrine had been accompanied by a renewed interest in archæology, and by improved ecclesiastical architecture, under the influence of Pugin and Scott. The Public Worship Regulation Act, 1874, failed to suppress the return to pre-Reformation usages known as "Ritualism," though several clergymen were imprisoned under it. Archbishop Benson's judgment in the Bishop of Lincoln's case (delivered Nov. 21, 1890; confirmed on appeal to Judicial Committee, Aug. 2, 1892) has increased the latitude permissible in ritual.

**Far the best account of the seventeenth century movement will be found in Gardiner, *Hist. Eng., 1603—1642.* See also Blunt, *Reformation of Church of England*, ii.; Church on *Andrewes* in *Masters in Eng. Theology*; Mozley on *Laud*, in his *Essays.* The most characteristic writings of the time are Montague, *Appello Cæsarem* (1625); Prynne, *Survey of Mr. Cozins his cozening devotions* (1628); Heylin, *Coal from the Altar*, replied to in Williams, *Holy Table, Name, and Thing* (1637); Land, *Diary*; Prynne, *Canterbury's Doom* (1646). For the eighteenth century, see Macaulay, Lecky, and Abbey and Overton, *Eng. Church of Eighteenth Century.* For the nineteenth, J. A. Froude, *The Oxford Counter-Reformation*, in *Short Studies*, 4 ser.; *Tracts for the Times* (1833—1841); Palmer, *Narrative of Events* (1843); Ward, *Ideal of a Christian Church* (1844); Newman, *Apologia* (1864); Coleridge, *Memoir of Keble* (1869); Ashwell and Wilberforce, *Life of Bishop Wilberforce*; Mozley, *Reminiscences of Oriel*; Stanley, *Essays on Church and State*; Church, *Oxford Movement.*

High Commission, The Court of, was the name given to a judicial committee instituted in the reign of Elizabeth to investigate ecclesiastical cases. Edward VI. and Mary frequently had recourse to the

plan of exercising their jurisdiction in ecclesiastical matters through special commissioners. General commissions were issued by Edward in 1549 and 1551 to a number of royal councillors, theologians, and lawyers, to inquire into heresy and nonconformity, and a somewhat similar commission appeared in 1557, though in this case it was restricted to inquiry, and further action was left to the bishops' courts. The statute (1 Eliz., c. 1) restoring the royal jurisdiction in matters ecclesiastical empowered the queen to nominate commissioners to exercise this power; accordingly two months later (July, 1559) a commission was directed to inquire, "as well by the oaths of twelve good and lawful men, as also by witnesses, and *other ways and means ye can devise*," into offences against the Acts of supremacy and uniformity, heresy, adulteries, and other ecclesiastical crimes. The subsequent commissions were drawn on the model of this one. In the reign of James I. frequent disputes arose with the common-law courts as to the limits of the power of the High Commission; in 1611 Coke laid down that it had no right to fine or imprison, except in cases of heresy and schism. During the whole of its existence the court busied itself in enforcing uniformity. The court was abolished by Act of the Long Parliament (July, 1641). In spite of the Act of 1641, and that of 1661, confirming it, James II., in July, 1686, created a new Court of Commission for ecclesiastical causes. It was abolished by the Bill of Rights.

The main authority is Stubbs, in *Report of Eccles. Courts Commission* (1883), p. 49. For other commissions not there mentioned, see the *Calendars of Domestic State Papers;* that for 1547–80, pp. 203, 368, 671; for 1581–90, 194, 242; for 1601–3, 510. Burnet, *Hist. Ref.* (ed. 1681), p. 311; Neal, *Hist. of Puritans*, p. 274; Gardiner, *Hist. Eng.*, ii. 123; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.;* Evelyn, *Diary*, July 14, 1686.

High Court of Justice, The (Ireland), was established in 1652. It was intended that it should try all Catholics who had shed Protestant blood, otherwise than in open battle, since 1641. Altogether some 200 persons were convicted.

High Treason. [Treason.]

Highlands, The, of Scotland, in a strictly geographical sense seem to commence in the south near Loch Lomond, and thence to be separated from the Lowlands by the great valley of Strathmore. But from an historical point of view the word must be considered to embrace the Celtic-speaking part of Scotland. In the eighth century there appear to have been seven provinces, each of which was ruled over by its own *ri*, or king, who had a sub-king dependent on him. The names of these provinces (with the sub-provinces also), so far as can now be ascertained, were (1) Angus and Mearns, (2) Athole and Gowrie, (3) Strathearn and Menteith, (4) Fife, (5) Mar and Buchan, (6) Moray and Ross, (7) Caithness. Under the kings of Alban and of Scotia (889–1092), we have still seven provinces bearing more or less relation to the earlier seven. At this period these provinces are no longer ruled by kings and sub-kings, but each has its own mormaer, or great steward. Meanwhile, in the extreme north, Harold Harfagr had, about the year 889, given the Orkneys to Jarl Sigurd to be held subject to the King of Norway. By about the year 969, the Earls of Orkney had conquered all the country north of the Spey. But when Sigurd of Orkney was slain at the battle of Clontarf (1014), while the Orkney Isles passed to his elder sons, to be held of the King of Norway, we read that his younger son, Thorfinn, was sent to Malcolm's court, and there invested with the jarldoms of Caithness and Sunderland. But Moray and Ross now fell off from both Norse and Scotch dependency, and were ruled by their own ri, Finleikr. By the time of Duncan's accession (1034) Thorfinn had united the Orkneys to his original jarldom of Caithness, and the Scotch king attempted to confer the latter province on his nephew Moddon, and even went so far as to support his right by arms. It was on this occasion that Macbeth, the Mormaer or Ri of Caithness, deserted, and perhaps murdered the Scotch king (1040). Scotland was now divided between Thorfinn and Macbeth. It was probably on the death of Thorfinn (*circa* 1057) that Duncan's son, Malcolm Canmore, was able to drive back Macbeth. About the same time the other earldoms of Thorfinn, with the exception of Caithness, seem to have been recovered by their native mormaers subject probably to vague claims on the part of Malcolm as ardri or head-king. It is during the years 1107 and 1124, when Malcolm's son Alexander was reigning over the Celtic part of Scotland north of the Forth, that we come across the first mention of the seven earls—four of whom certainly, and probably all seven, represented the old mormaers who, having lost their original title of ri, were now changing their later one for the Latin *comes*. During the reign of David I. (1124–53) Moray, which rose in rebellion under its mormaer, Angus, was far more firmly than ever united to the Scotch crown. Ross was thoroughly subdued by William the Lion in 1179, though an attempt was made a few years later to separate the districts north of the Tay from the rest of Scotland by setting up a new king, who combined in his own person Norse blood with that of Malcolm Canmore. After the suppression of this insurrection (1187) William forced Harold, Earl of Orkney and Caithness, to acknowledge his dependence on the Scottish king as regards the half of the latter province by the payment of 2,000 merks (1202); while Sutherland, the other half, ultimately became an earldom in the family of De Moravia, *circa*

1230. On the death of the last Norwegian Earl of Caithness, in 1231, his lands were divided between the last-mentioned family and that of the Earl of Angus. Lastly, about the year 1222, the sole remaining Celtic province of Argyle seems to have submitted to Alexander II. But, though the whole county was now nominally subject to one king, yet there was a broad line of demarcation between that part of Scotland which had become thoroughly feudalised, and had been so long subject to the head king at Scone or Edinburgh, and the Celtic-speaking districts of the north and west. In 1411, Donald, Lord of the Isles, who claimed the earldom of Moray, was defeated by the Earl of Mar at the great battle of Harlaw, which seems to have finally checked the dangers threatened by the growth of this Celtic and Highland power. From this time onwards the incursions of the Highlanders on the Lowlands were limited to occasional plundering raids. Till the eighteenth century the Highland districts remained a province inhabited by an alien and semi-barbarous people; and though nominally part of the kingdom of Scotland, it was in fact ruled by the various tribal chiefs under their own laws and customs. In the wars of the seventeenth century, the Highlanders were easily enlisted on the side of the Stuarts against the Covenanters; and they made the last stand both under Montrose and Dundee. After the suppression of the rebellion of 1715, a determined attempt was made to break up the tribal organisation. An Act was passed (1724) ordering the Highlanders to be disarmed, and the disarmament was effected by General Wade (1725). The same officer also completed between 1726 and 1737, the great military roads through the Highlands, by means of which, together with a chain of fortified military posts, a vigorous police was established and plundering stopped. A happy idea was conceived of utilising the military instincts of the Highlanders for the service of the country, and regiments of Highland troops were embodied in the regular army [Black Watch]. In 1746, the national dress was prohibited in the Highlands by Act of Parliament (19 Geo. II., c. 39, repealed 22 Geo. III., c. 63). Under the influence of these measures, the Highlands gradually became as peaceable and orderly as the rest of Scotland, and by the beginning of the nineteenth century little was left to mark their distinctive character except the survival in many districts of the native language.

Skene, *Celtic Scotland*; J. H. Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*; E. W. Robertson, *Scotland under her Early Kings*; Macaulay, *Hist. of England*; Lecky, *Hist. of England in the Eighteenth Century*.

[T. A. A.]

Hill, Rowland, 1st Lord (*b.* 1772, *d.* 1842), a son of Sir John Hill, a Shropshire baronet, was educated at Chester, and at sixteen entered the army. He was sent as secretary of a diplomatic mission to Genoa, whence he proceeded to Toulon, and acted during the siege as aide-de-camp to Lord Mulgrave, and afterwards to Sir David Dundas. He was wounded, and, returning to England, was soon promoted to be lieutenant-colonel of the 90th, with which he went to Egypt. In the battle of Alexandria he was severely wounded. In 1805 he became a major-general, and was despatched to the Peninsula on the first outbreak of war. He served at Rolica and Vimeiro, and at Corunna commanded Sir John Moore's reserve. In 1811 he succeeded to the command of General Paget's corps, and continued to be one of Wellington's most trustworthy officers. He was present in high command at nearly all the battles of the war, and always acquitted himself well on the many occasions on which Wellington entrusted him with a separate command. After his success at Almarez, where he destroyed the enemy's works after a most desperate resistance, he was raised to the peerage (May, 1814). He afterwards served at Waterloo, and was personally thanked by Wellington for his services there and elsewhere, and was second in command of the army of occupation in France in 1815. He was appointed commander-in-chief in 1828. He was a brave and able soldier, beloved and entirely trusted by his men, to whom his relations are best understood by the nickname which they gave him of "Daddy Hill."

Alison, *History of Europe*; Sir W. Napier, *Peninsular War*.

Hill, Sir Rowland (*b.* 1795, *d.* 1879), was born at Kidderminster. In early life he was a schoolmaster. His attention had been directed to the question of Australian colonisation, and, as secretary to Gilbert Wakefield's scheme for settling that country, he wrote a pamphlet on *Home Colonies*. It was in 1837 that he issued his paper on *The Postage System*. By a careful series of investigations and calculations, he had arrived at the conclusion that, as the chief expenses of letter-carrying were not in the carriage itself, but in the distribution of the letters, the distance might be disregarded, and a uniform charge made for the conveyance of all home letters to any distance. He also showed how the almost nominal charge of one penny for every half ounce would, in view of the great increase in correspondence likely to ensue on such a reduction of cost, yield an ample profit on the transaction; and, at the same time, he suggested the use of postage-stamps. Despite the opposition offered to so entirely novel a scheme, a committee was appointed by the House of Commons to investigate the question (1838); and when Rowland Hill's proposals received its approbation, a bill was at once brought in for carrying out the new project (1839). On Jan. 10, 1840, the penny rate was inaugurated. Rowland Hill was

appointed to an office in the Treasury, for the purpose of superintending the execution of his reforms, but had to retire in 1842, when the Liberals were out of office. In 1846 he was presented with £13,000, as a mark of public gratitude, and when the Liberals returned to office, the same year, he was made secretary to the Postmaster-General. In 1860 he was knighted, and when, in 1864, he resigned through ill-health, he was allowed to retain his full salary of £2,000 a year.

Hoadly, Benjamin, successively Bishop of Bangor, Hereford, Salisbury, and Winchester (*b.* 1676, *d.* 1761), was educated at the Catharine Hall, Cambridge. When he removed to London he appeared as the antagonist of Calamy on the question of conformity, and of Bishop Atterbury on that of non-resistance. He was a staunch Low Churchman. In 1705, Hoadly was attacked in the House of Lords by the Bishop of London for having advocated the duty of resistance and countenanced rebellion, in a sermon preached before the Lord Mayor. Burnet, in reply to this speaker, told him that he was the last person who ought to complain of the sermon in question. A few years later Hoadly was one of the most prominent opponents of Dr. Sacheverell. In 1715 he was appointed Bishop of Bangor, and next year published his famous tract against the Nonjurors. This was quickly followed (1717) by the issue of his sermon on the Kingdom of Christ, printed by royal command. Both these works were devoted to questioning the divine authority of the king and the clergy, and were the occasion of the famous Bangorian Controversy. The matter was at once taken up by Convocation, and led to such wrangling and discord that this body was suddenly prorogued by the government. From this time (1717) till the year 1852 Convocation was allowed to meet only as a matter of form. Dr. Hoadley was translated to the sees of Hereford, Salisbury, and Winchester in the years 1721, 1723, and 1734 respectively, and died at Chelsea.

Hobbes, Thomas (*b.* 1588, *d.* 1679), was educated at Oxford, where he took his degree as Bachelor of Arts in 1608. The same year he was appointed tutor to the eldest son of the future Duke of Devonshire, and accompanied his pupil in his Continental tour. Before the year 1620 he seems to have become acquainted with Francis Bacon, and was by him employed on the Latin version of the *Essays*. In 1631 he undertook the education of the new Earl of Devonshire, his former pupil's son. While abroad with this boy he made the acquaintance of Galileo, and spent several months at Paris, returning home in 1637. It was about this time that he began his philosophic career. In 1642 the *De Cive* was printed; in 1650 his *De Corpore Politico* (English in everything but its title), and in 1651 the *Leviathan*, which made him famous. Charles II., who had once been Hobbes's pupil in mathematics, gave his old teacher a pension of £100 a year after the Restoration, and hung his portrait up in his private room. After the Great Fire of London a bill levelled against the *Leviathan* was introduced into the House of Commons, and passed early in the next year (1667). The *Behemoth*, or history of the Civil War, was published 1679, just before its author's death, but without his consent. The last years of his life were spent in Derbyshire; and his literary labours were continued till the very end, in the quiet of the country. Hobbes's influence on philosophical thought has been equalled by few English writers. Even greater has been his influence upon political and ethical speculation. He aimed at finding a scientific explanation for the phenomena of man in society, and this gave an impulse to a movement of thought which has been followed by English thinkers ever since. His main political conception was that of the right of all men to seek their own happiness, and their tendency to seek it, even at the expense of their fellows. In a state of nature the selfishness of every man would have free play, and would only be limited by the selfishness of others. The state of nature, therefore, would be a state of warfare and of suffering. Government has been instituted to limit this; and government in its perfect form should have absolute control over civil, moral, and ecclesiastical affairs alike. The demonstration of the supremacy and irresponsibility of the sovereign power in a state, which is one of the most remarkable features in his philosophy, caused Hobbes to be often classed with the defenders of despotism, and roused against him the champions of constitutionalism and of ecclesiastical freedom in his own day; but at a later time the conception formed the foundation of the theory of utilitarian legislation, which was worked into a regular system by the school of Bentham.

The works of Hobbes have been edited by Sir W. Molesworth, 16 vols., Lond., 1839—45.

[S. J. L.]

Holinshed, Raphael (*d. circa* 1580), is the author, or perhaps, rather, the editor, of the large folio *History of England* which furnished Shakespeare with much of his knowledge of English history. According to the dedicatory preface, inscribed to Lord Burleigh, the history as published was a fraction of the original scheme, which embraced the idea of a universal history, apparently on the largest scale. The work in its later form consists of (1) a description of England, followed by the history of this country down to the Conquest; (2) a description of Ireland, followed by the chronicles of that island; (3) a description of Scotland, followed by *The Historie of Scotland* down to the year 1575; (4) the history of the

English kings down to the year 1577. Holinshed was largely assisted in his great work by the most learned men of the time, such as Stow and Harrison.

Holkar is the family name of one of the chief dynasties of Mahratta princes. Mulhar Rao Holkar took part in the Mahratta invasion of Guzerat in 1721, and in 1735 led a large army to Delhi. He succeeded in extorting from the emperor a considerable territory in Malwa (1736), which was erected into the principality of Indore, and became the hereditary dominion of the Holkar family. After suffering a severe defeat from the Afghans in 1761, Mulhar Rao died in 1763. In 1774 his successor, Tuckagee Holkar, took a prominent part in the war against the English. He was defeated by Colonel Goddard in 1782, and subsequently joined the British alliance against Tippoo Sahib.

Holkar, Jeswunt Rao (*d.* 1811). In 1797, on the death of Tuckagee Holkar, a dispute arose between his sons, and Jeswunt Rao, an illegitimate son, fled to Nagpore to escape the enmity of Scindiah, who had espoused the cause of his half-brother Khassee Rao. Holkar now became a freebooter, collected an army of Patans, Mahrattas, and Pindarries, and joined himself to Ameer Khan. The warfare between Scindiah and Holkar, which laid all Malwa and Khandeish in ruins, ended in the battle of Poonah, Oct. 25, 1802, in which Holkar, assisted by English troops, defeated the united forces of the Peishwa and Scindiah. The result was the Treaty of Bassein (Dec., 1802). Holkar was now alarmed at the introduction of English influence, and concerted with Scindiah and the Rajah of Berar the conspiracy which produced the Mahratta War. The reduction of Scindiah and Berar, 1803, produced no effect on Holkar, who was compelled to plunder to pay his army; and the foolish contempt of the English, which induced them to underrate him and produced the disastrous retreat of Monson, gave him a new lease of life. He returned to Hindostan (1804) with a larger force than ever, and besieged Delhi. Lake's advance, however, drove him away, and he fled, followed by the English, who surprised his cavalry at Ferruckabad, and chased him in the direction of Deeg. At this fortress his disciplined army was destroyed, and after hanging about Bhurtpore for some time, he fled with Ameer Khan to Scindiah's camp, and thence to Ajmere, and across the Sutlej. Lake pursued him, beating him repeatedly, and at last forced him to conclude the Treaty of Raipoor Ghaut (1806), which would have greatly limited his power. The declaratory articles of Sir John Shore, however, removed all these limitations and gave him unlimited licence to plunder in Rajpootana and elsewhere, a licence of which he freely availed himself. He was troubled first by mutinies in his army, and then by an insurrection in favour of his nephew. This disturbance led Holkar to put his unfortunate kinsman to death, a crime which was soon followed by the murder of his own brother, Khassee Rao. Remorse for this double offence drove him mad, and after three years of restraint he died in Oct., 1811.

Grant Duff, *Mahrattas*; *Wellesley Despatches*; Mill, *Hist. of India*; Malleson, *Native States of India in Subsidiary Alliance with the British Government.*

Holland, Thomas (*d.* 1400), was the eldest son of the Earl of Kent. In 1397 he was made Duke of Surrey, but was degraded in 1399. In 1400, being implicated in a plot against Henry IV., he was beheaded.

Holland, Henry Rich, Earl of (*d.* 1649), was a younger son of Lord Rich. He served in the Dutch wars, and on his return to England, attracted the favourable notice of James I., who heaped honours upon him. In 1639 he was made Lord General of the Horse in the Scotch War, but seceded two years later to the Parliament. He rejoined the king in 1643, and fought with considerable bravery in the first battle of Newbury; but, finding himself coldly received by Charles, he quickly deserted to the enemy. In 1648 he took part in the abortive Royalist rising, was captured by the Parliamentary troops, tried before the High Court of Justice in 1649, and executed.

Holland, Henry Fox, 1st Lord (*b.* 1705, *d.* 1774), second son of Sir Stephen Fox, was a political disciple of Walpole. In 1743 he became one of the Commissioners of the Treasury, under the Pelham administration, and on Lord Granville's failure to form a ministry he was appointed Secretary for War. But dissensions sprang up among the ministry, and he violently opposed Lord Hardwicke's Marriage Act. On the death of Pelham, his brother, the Duke of Newcastle, attempted to form a government. It was difficult to find a leader of the Commons. Newcastle applied to Fox, as Pitt was obnoxious to the king. But they quarrelled about the disposal of patronage; and Robinson, a man of little influence, was made manager of the Commons. The next month, however, Newcastle secured Fox's services by making him Secretary of State, and removing Robinson. He soon quarrelled with his chief; and seeing that the blame for the loss of Minorca was to be cast on his shoulders, he resigned, in 1756, and was shortly followed by Newcastle. It was hoped that he and Pitt would unite, and form an administration; but his quarrel with Pitt, caused by his acceptance of office in 1754, was too serious. However, after the failure of Pitt's first administration, Fox

accepted the subordinate position of Paymaster of the Forces, whereby he lost even a seat in the cabinet, but secured a large income. On the accession of George III., he joined Lord Bute in his attack on the Whigs, and deliberately set to work to buy a majority in the House. The Paymaster's office became a shop for the purchase of votes. It is said that £25,000 was thus expended in one morning. But the whole feeling of the Commons was against him, and his colleagues refused to support him. Hints of bribery were freely thrown out, and he became thoroughly unpopular. "He had always been regarded as a Whig of the Whigs." On the sudden resignation of Bute, he retired to the House of Lords as Lord Holland. He continued to hold office for two more years, but he had ceased to play any part in politics. In 1767 he was not ashamed to solicit his old enemy, Chatham, for an earldom. Fox, though a very able man, was, in the opinion of some, a distinct failure as to his public career.

Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; Macaulay, *Essays*; Trevelyan, *Early Life of C. J. Fox.*

Holland, Henry Richard Vassall Fox, 3rd Lord (1773–1840), succeeded to the peerage while still an infant, but it was not till the year 1798 that he entered on his parliamentary career, during the whole of which he maintained the views and principles of his uncle, Charles James Fox. In 1805 the Whigs came into office, and Lord Holland was sworn a Privy Councillor, and appointed in conjunction with Lord Auckland to negotiate with the American plenipotentiaries for the settlement of some differences between the two governments. In this, however, they were not successful, as Mr. Jefferson, the President, refused to ratify the treaty. On the death of Mr. Fox, Lord Holland entered the cabinet as Privy Seal, but early in 1807 the ministers were dismissed. He was present in various parts of the Peninsula during the Spanish War. On his return to England (1809), he became a follower of Mr. Canning, to whom he lent aid on his accession to power though he did not become a member of his cabinet. In 1830 he entered Lord Grey's ministry as Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, which office he continued to fill with a slight interval when his party was not in power, until the time of his death. Lord Holland was the author of, among other works, *Memoirs of the Whig Party* (1832).

Holland, Relations with. The name Holland, properly belonging to the Imperial county of that name, which subsequently became the leading State of the Republic of Seven United Provinces, is commonly used loosely for the United Provinces as a whole; and, though the official title of the modern kingdom is the kingdom of the Netherlands, the same inexact designation is still applied to it. With the mediæval county of Holland the relations of England were frequent and friendly. Count William I. fought for Otto IV. at Bouvines, and, subsequently changing sides, followed Louis, the son of Philip II., to England, in 1215. Floris V. established intimate relations with Edward I., got the wool-staple placed at Dort, and secured fishing rights on the English coast. But in 129[illegible] he reverted to the French connection. His son, John I., restored the alliance by his marriage with a daughter of Edward I. The new Hainault line was again closely bound to England by the marriage of Philippa, daughter of William III., to Edward III. (1328). On his son's death in 1345, Edward and Philippa made an ineffectual attempt to seize the country. In the next century the attempt of Humphrey of Gloucester to win Holland, and the counties attached to it, for his wife Jacqueline, was the means of breaking up the Anglo-Burgundian alliance which had given the English mastery of France. On his failure, Holland became included in the Burgundian dominions, which the accession of Charles V. transferred to Spain. Burgundy and Spain were both English allies, and so the old friendship was kept up. Intimate commercial relations still further tightened the bonds of union between the two countries.

The Reformation, which broke up the alliance of England and Spain, led to the revolt of the Protestants of Holland from the absolutism and Catholicism of the Spanish monarchy. England, under Elizabeth, was also engaged in a life and death struggle with Spain. This ultimately compelled the queen, despite her reluctance, both to help rebels against their sovereign, and to take a decided Protestant line, to afford the revolted Hollanders very material assistance. At first, English help took the form of secret subvention or popular subscriptions, or of the willing bands of volunteers, who flocked to join a Protestant cause. Subsequently the queen assisted the Dutch in a more formal way. Elizabeth's first decided intervention began with the lavish grants to her lover, the Duke of Anjou, who aspired to lead the southern provinces of the Netherlands, but on his disastrous failure, and the murder of William the Silent, in 1584, Elizabeth, though declining the proffered sovereignty of the Seven Provinces, sent her favourite Leicester as governor-general with a small army, receiving in return, some "cautionary towns." In 1586, Sidney fell at Zutphen. In 1587 Leicester's incompetence necessitated his recall. In 1588 the Dutch did good service by blocking up the army of Parma in their ports which the great Armada hoped to land in England. Up to the date of Elizabeth's death our relations with the Hollanders continued cordial, and materially assisted their efforts for liberty.

With James I. a new epoch begins. That

monarch's peace with Spain was followed by the restitution of the cautionary towns, and the growing theological differences between the two countries, and the increasing rivalry between English and Dutch merchants produced a deeply-rooted and enduring hostility. When the Twelve Years' Truce with Spain (1609—21) came to an end, James's sympathies were altogether Spanish. Holland found in France the protector she had lost in England. The Amboyna massacre was but the prelude of a long struggle of the two naval powers in the East Indies. The eventful marriage of the Stadtholder, Frederick Henry, with Mary, daughter of Charles I. (1641) rather increased than diminished the hostility of England and Holland. Flushed with the glorious recognition of their liberty by the Treaties of Westphalia (1648), the Dutch plunged into their famous naval war with England. The passing by the Long Parliament of the Navigation Act, dealt a deadly blow at the Dutch carrying trade. But the war which ensued, and lasted from 1651 to 1654, was on the whole unfavourable to Holland. The restoration of the Stuarts, closely followed by the re-enactment of the Navigation Act, rather intensified the opposition of the Amsterdam oligarchs to their commercial rival. The war (1665—1667) was on the whole favourable to the Dutch, though the Treaty of Breda lost them New Amsterdam. In 1667 the two powers united to check Louis XIV. by the Triple Alliance; but, in 1670, Charles II. signed a treaty with France to partition Holland, as Charles I. had nearly forty years earlier concluded a similar treaty with Spain. In 1672, Charles joined Louis in his great attack on Holland. But common political hostility to the tyrant of Europe now proved so strong a bond of union between England and Holland that even commercial rivalry was powerless to separate them. The restoration of the house of Orange personally united the two courts; and the marriage of William III. with Mary of York (1677) completed the alliance. The Revolution which brought William to England made it indissoluble. Henceforward, the "Maritime Powers," as England and Holland were now called, had a common policy and common interests. Marlborough simply continued the work of William of Orange. But the narrow basis of Dutch prosperity now began to show itself. It was perhaps only because England had won the commercial race, that her alliance with Holland had become possible. Though the Treaty of Utrecht gave the Dutch all they could wish, they gradually sank into a decided condition of dependence on their great ally. It was English influence, now extended to internal affairs, that made William IV., the son-in-law of George II., Stadtholder in 1747. But George's grandson, William V., was a weak ruler; and despite his sympathy with George III., the rising Dutch democracy, which warmly supported the American colonists, insisted on Holland adopting the "Armed Neutrality" (1780), and rushed into a naval war with England. But the glory of Holland had now departed, and the States willingly accepted an inglorious peace in 1783. In 1787 the English and Prussians combined to restore the Stadtholder, an act which directly led to the conquest of Holland by the French Republic, with the approbation of the Dutch democracy. Holland was forced to lend its naval strength to France, and remained in antagonism to England until 1815. It was largely through English influence that the Congress of Vienna erected Holland and Belgium into a kingdom for the house of Orange. In 1830, after the revolt of Belgium, England and France blockaded the Dutch ports, and insisted on the signature of the Convention of London in 1833, giving Belgium independence. The territory had been determined, and its neutrality guaranteed by the Five Great Powers in 1831.

Grattan, *Hist. of the Netherlands*, and for the earlier period, the works of Mr. Motley; Wageneer, *De Vaderlandsche Historie*; Leo, *Zwölf Bucher Niederlandischer Geschichte*; Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; Cunningham, *Hist. of Eng. Commerce.*

[T. F. T.]

Holles, Denzil, Lord (*b.* 1599, *d.* 1680) was the younger son of the Earl of Clare. On entering Parliament (1624) he joined the popular party, and was one of the most ardent opponents of Buckingham. On March 2, 1629, when the Speaker was about to adjourn the House in obedience to the king's order, Holles forced him back into his chair, for which act he was fined a thousand marks and imprisoned. At the opening of the Long Parliament he was much valued and esteemed by the whole popular party. In the year 1644 he was one of the commissioners sent to Oxford to negotiate with the king, showed himself very anxious to effect a reconciliation, and was consequently accused of treachery by Lord Savile. Holles was the leader of the Presbyterian party in their contest with the Independents and with the army. In August, 1647, he was excluded from the House of Commons, returned to share the short triumph of the Presbyterians, and was forced again to take refuge in Normandy, and to console himself by attacking Cromwell in his *Memoirs*. Holles reappeared in Parliament in 1659, and was spokesman of the deputation of the Commons sent to Breda. Six months later he sat in the court which judged the regicides, and was raised to the peerage by the title of Baron Holles, in 1661. In 1663 he was sent as ambassador to Paris, recalled in 1665, and negotiated the Treaty of Breda in 1667, but utterly disapproved the foreign policy of Charles. "Save what the government of the Parliament did," he wrote, "we have not taken one

true step or struck one true stroke, since Queen Elizabeth's time." His last public act was to vote for the acquittal of Lord Stafford (1680). He died February 17, 1681. Burnet describes him as "a man of great courage, and of as great pride. He had the soul of a stubborn old Roman in him."

Memoirs published in Masere's *Tracts*; Guizot, *Monk et ses Contemporains.*

Holy Alliance, The, was a treaty concluded at Paris on Sept. 26, 1815, between Alexander, Emperor of Russia, Francis, Emperor of Austria, and Frederick William I., King of Prussia, without the intervention of their ministers. The Emperor of Russia was the instigator of the step, and he is supposed to have taken it under the influence of Madame Krudener, a visionary Pietist. The main points of the agreement were as follows: (1) European Christendom was regarded as forming a single family, "the only principle either between governments or subjects is to regard themselves as members of the same Christian nation, the three allied princes considering themselves as delegated by Providence to govern three branches of the same family." (2) Three States, representing three forms of Christianity, the Greek Church, the Roman Church, and Protestantism, were asked to rise above their differences, and to form a union depending on their common agreement. (3) Christianity was proclaimed as the foundation of all government and all civilisation, "the sublime truths which are taught us by the eternal religion of a God Saviour." "The present act has no other object than to show in the face of the universe the determination to adopt no other rule of conduct, either in the administration of government, or in the political relations with other governments, than the precepts of this holy religion, precepts of justice, charity, and peace," which were as well fitted to guide the public acts of princes as they were to guide the lives of private persons, and the only means to consolidate human institutions and remedy their imperfections. (4) The three sovereigns declared themselves bound together by the ties of a true and indissoluble fraternity. (5) They were to consider themselves in the light of fathers to their subjects. The treaty was offered for signature to all European powers, except the Pope and the Sultan. Great Britain alone declined to accede to it, but the Prince Regent declared his personal adherence to its principles.

The Treaty is printed in Koch and Schoell, *Histoire des Traités de Paix*, iii. 547.

[O. B.]

Holyrood Abbey was founded by David I. in 1128. It was plundered by the English in 1332 and 1385, and destroyed by Hertford in 1544. The foundation was suppressed in 1547. *Holyrood Palace* was made a royal residence by James V. in 1528, and became the dwelling-place of the Kings of Scotland. It was the scene of the murder of Rizzio in 1566. Charles I. was crowned there in 1633. In 1650 it was partly destroyed by Cromwell's troops. In 1745 it was for a short time occupied by the Young Pretender. After being allowed to fall almost into ruins it was repaired in 1850, and again in 1903.

Homage (*homagium*, sometimes *hominium* from *homo*, through the earlier Latin form *hominaticum*), was that profession of feudal subjection which the vassal (*homo*) made to his lord on receiving a fief from his hands. It could only be received by the lord himself. With solemn ceremonies the vassal uncovered his head, laid aside sword and spear, and knelt before his suzerain, and formally declared, "I become your man for the lands which I hold of you, and will be faithful to you against all men, saving the fealty which I owe to my lord the king." The oath of fealty and the grant of the fief followed the formula of homage. Every feudal tenant on acquiring his property was compelled to do homage to his lord. Besides *liege homage*, as mentioned above, there was a *simple homage*, in which the oath of fealty did not follow, and a homage that involved no feudal duties, such as the Palatine earls proffered to the English kings or the great peers of France (*homagium per paragium*), or such as the Duke of Normandy performed to the King of France.

Ducange, s.v. *homagium*; Bracton, lib. 2, cap. 35, § 8; Glanvill, lib. 9, cap. 1.

Home Rule Movement. [Ireland, *ad fin.*]

Homildon Hill, The Battle of (Sept. 1402), was fought near Wooler in Northumberland, between a marauding party of the Scotch under Douglas, and an English force under Hotspur and the Earl of March. The victory was won for the English by the archers, there being little or no fighting at close quarters.

Homilies, The Book of. In the year 1542 Convocation decided to issue "certain homilies for the stay of such errors as were then by ignorant preachers spread among the people," and this determination resulted in the publication of a volume of sermons, fitted to be delivered by preachers whose ability and knowledge were not equal to the task of writing their own discourses (1547). A reprint of this volume appeared in 1560. The leading writers of this first book of *Homilies* appear to have been Cranmer, Hooper, and Latimer, but one or two of the sermons, at least, were borrowed from earlier publications. The second book of *Homilies* was published in 1563.

Honduras, British, situated on the east coast of Central America, was visited by Columbus in 1502, and was for many years in the possession of Spain, although the

coast was frequently swept by English buccaneers, and a few English colonists were also settled there. In 1670 the Spaniards confirmed Great Britain's right to the Laguna de Terminos and the parts adjacent in the province of Yucatan, those places having been actually in possession of British subjects through right of sufferance or indulgence. But despite this concession, the Spaniards some fifty years later (1717) attempted to deprive the English of all share in the country, and a desultory war, which lasted forty years, was the result. It was not till 1786 that Honduras finally became British territory; and even later than this it was, in 1796 and subsequent years, again attacked by the Spaniards. Honduras was at first a dependency of Jamaica, but a democratic government had grown up spontaneously. About 1830 an intermittent struggle began between the "superintendents" sent from Jamaica and the popular element. It was made a crown colony in 1870, and finally separated from Jamaica in 1884. England resigned the protectorate of the Mosquito Coast by the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty of 1850.

Hong-Kong, an island off the south-east coast of China, was occupied by the English during the Chinese War of 1840, and in 1842 was formally ceded to Great Britain by the Treaty of Nankin. Since that time the colony of Hong-Kong has become a centre of trade and a naval and military station. The government is vested in a governor, aided by an executive council of eight members, and a legislative council consisting of seven official and six non-official members.

Honorius, Archbishop of Canterbury (627—653), was one of the companions of Augustine, and was famous for his skill in music. On the death of Justus he succeeded to the archbishopric. During his long tenure of office he saw the completion of the conversion of Northumbria and the evangelisation of Wessex by Birinus.

Hook, *Archbishops of Canterbury.*

Honour. The term honour was used especially "of the more noble sort of seigniories on which other inferior lordships or manors depend by performance of some customs or services to those who are lords of them." The honour, or liberty, was one of the great baronial jurisdictions, and often consisted of many manors. Though each of the various manors composing the honour had its own separate jurisdiction, yet only one court was held for the whole: hence the rights of the honour are, in the main, those of the manor or liberty. From the later Anglo-Saxon times there existed large "liberties," whose jurisdiction lay outside that of the hundred courts, and was in private hands. The tenants in these liberties attended the court of their lord, instead of the hundred court, and were judged by the lord's steward. The greater part of the Anglo-Saxon honours seem to have belonged to churches, but the thegn possessing five hides had also a right of judging on his own property. In other cases, the hundred seems to have fallen into private hands, and, under these circumstances, would be practically a manor. But exemption from attending the hundred court did not excuse attendance at the shire-moot. Under the Norman kings, the number of these greater franchises or honours increased largely, and it was a most important part of the work of Henry I. and Henry II. to force the barons to admit the royal officers into the privileged courts. The above remarks apply equally to the manor, which differed from an honour mainly in that the latter was composed of several distinct manors. These great honours, when they escheated into the hands of the crown, were not generally joined on to the ordinary county administration, but were either allowed to continue in the possession of the king, and were farmed like a shire, or were granted out again as an hereditary fief. But even if retained in the king's hands, the tenants of the honour did not, according to Dr. Stubbs, rank as tenants-in-chief of the crown; nor was the king justified in claiming dues from them or their immediate lord. In later years, honours were often created by Act of Parliament, *e.g.*, Ampthill, Grafton, and Hampton Court, by 33 Henry VIII. Again, four years later, Henry VIII. was empowered to make Westminster and Kingston-on-Hull honours if he would.

T. Cunningham, *Law Dictionary;* Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*

Hood, Samuel, Viscount (*b.* 1724, *d.* 1816), entered the Royal Navy in 1740. In 1754, he was in the command of a sloop stationed at the Bahama Islands. Several years later he served under Rodney in the bombardment of Havre, and passed the four years which preceded the Peace of Paris in duty off the coast of Ireland, and in the Mediterranean. In the course of the next twenty years he was created a baronet, 1778, and later was appointed rear-admiral, with the command of a squadron of eight ships which was being sent to reinforce Rodney in the West Indies, 1780. On Rodney sailing away to England with a large convoy, Hood was left in command of the fleet off the Leeward Islands. On learning that De Grasse had sailed to America, Hood hastened after him, and a partial engagement occurred between the French and English fleets. Again De Grasse sailed for the West Indies, and was followed by Hood, who baffled for some time the combined efforts of the French fleet and army to take possession of the island of St. Christopher's. The island at length capitulated, and Hood sailed away unmolested to join Rodney at Barbadoes. On April 9, 1782, Sir Samuel Hood, in command of the advanced

squadron, consisting of eight ships, came up with the French, and was at once vigorously attacked by fifteen French ships; but so ably did he fight his small detachment, that on Rodney's arrival with the centre squadron, De Grasse sailed away. The next two days were occupied in a chase; but on the 12th Rodney managed to bring the French fleet to an engagement off the north-west corner of Dominica. Hood's division was engaged with the French van, and the contest was maintained with much obstinacy and spirit, until the *Ville de Paris*, De Grasse's ship, struck to the *Barfleur*, the flagship of Hood. Hood was rewarded for this victory by the title of Baron Hood in the peerage of Ireland. On the conclusion of peace he returned home, and in May, 1784, was returned as M.P. for Westminster. In 1786 he was appointed port admiral at Portsmouth, and two years later was constituted one of the commissioners for executing the office of Lord High Admiral. In 1793 he was appointed vice-admiral of the red, and was at once ordered to the Mediterranean as commander-in-chief, with the object of taking possession of Toulon. After a siege of two months this town was reduced. At the end of 1794 he was appointed Governor of Greenwich Hospital, being soon afterwards raised to the English peerage with the title of Viscount Hood (1796). He survived his elevation nearly twenty years.

Allen, *Naval Battles*; Lodge, *Portraits*.

Hooker, Richard (*b.* 1553, *d.* 1600), the author of the famous *Ecclesiastical Polity*, was educated at Oxford, where he remained until 1584. In the following year he became Master of the Temple, and was involved in a controversy with Travers, a Puritan, in which he was vigorously supported by his friends Archbishop Whitgift and Bishop Sandys. Travers was suspended, and "to justify his suspension we are in possession of Hooker's immortal work," which has gained for him the epithet of "judicious." The *Ecclesiastical Polity* has other claims to remembrance besides its literary excellence. It is in reality a defence of the Church of England as then established; and in the course of his argument Hooker has to deal with those principles which, underlying the Puritan doctrines, were at that time forcing their way into such prominence. He first of all inquires into the nature of law, and finds that it is divided into two distinct sections—laws immutable and laws variable; and then applies the touchstone of criticism to decide to which category the various texts of scripture belong. The extreme Puritans, who would have borrowed even their criminal jurisprudence from the pages of the Old Testament, are met at the threshold by Hooker's challenge. Passing on from general to particular points, he comes to the burning question of episcopacy; and here, though adhering to the belief that this form of Church government is to be found in the Scriptures, he bases his chief argument on the fact that no special form of ecclesiastical rule is laid down in its pages as being absolutely binding on all nations. The varying circumstances of different peoples will, he argues, lead them to form a mode of discipline fitted to their necessities. It is hardly necessary in this place to draw attention to his theories of secular government, and of the king's limited power, widely as they differed from the notions generally upheld by the Church party in the ensuing reigns.

Keble's edition of the *Ecclesiastical Polity*.

Hooper, John (*b.* 1475, *d.* 1555, at first a Cistercian monk, became, during the reign of Edward VI., one of the leaders of the Reformation, and acquired great fame as a preacher. In 1550 he was made Bishop of Gloucester, though for some time he refused to enter upon his office, owing to his objection to obey any spiritual authority but the Scriptures, or to wear the episcopal dress. In 1552 he received the bishopric of Worcester *in commendam*, and "by his activity, his fervid declamation, and his bold though intemperate zeal, deserved the applause and gratitude of the well-wishers to the new doctrines." On the accession of Mary, Hooper was at once marked out as a victim, was ejected from his see, and imprisoned in the Fleet, September, 1553. In the beginning of 1555 he was condemned for heresy, and sent to Gloucester, where he was burnt on Feb. 9. "His charities," says Professor Tytler, "were extensive and unwearied; his hospitality generous and noble, his manners simple, his piety unaffected and profound."

Foxe, *Martyrs*; Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Tytler, *Hist. of Eng. under Edward VI., Mary, and Elizabeth.*

Hopton, Sir Ralph, afterwards Lord (*d.* 1652), first distinguished himself in the wars of the Low Countries. On the outbreak of the Civil War he was sent into the western parts of England to assist in forming an army for the king. His success in Cornwall was complete. In 1643 he defeated Sir W. Waller at the battle of Lansdowne, but was himself severely wounded. In the same year Charles I. appointed him Governor of Bristol and created him Baron Hopton. Next year, after taking Winchester, he was defeated at Alresford by Sir W. Waller with Haselrig's "Lobsters," and was appointed a member of the Prince of Wales's council at Bristol. In 1646 he was routed by Sir T. Fairfax at the battle of Torrington, after which disaster he dissolved his army and withdrew to the Scilly Islands, and subsequently to the Continent. He died at Bruges.

Horestii, The, were an ancient British tribe occupying the modern counties of Clackmannan, Kinross, and Fife, with the eastern

part of Stratherne, and the country to the west of the Tay.

Horsa (*d. circa* 455) is said to have been the brother of Hengest, whom he accompanied in his expedition to Britain, where, according to tradition, he was slain in the battle of Aylesford (455). The town of Horstead, in Kent, is said to derive its name from him, and a barrow in the neighbourhood is pointed out as the tomb of Horsa. The very existence of Horsa has been questioned of late years, and his name has been made to be no more than a representation of the steed which has so long figured on the standard of Kent. But his name occurs more than once in the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, and there is no reason why he should not have been a real historical character, even though his name bears the signification attributed to it. [Hengest.]

Hospitallers, The Knights, or Brethren of St. John at Jerusalem, were one of the two military orders of Crusaders. They derived their name "from their hospital built at Jerusalem for the use of pilgrims coming to the Holy Land, and dedicated to St. John Baptist." The order was instituted about the year 1092, but they do not seem to have had a house in London till the year 1100. They were much favoured by the first two Kings of Jerusalem, Godfrey of Boulogne and Baldwin, and in England soon acquired large possessions. The superior in England became in process of time a lay baron, and had a seat among the lords in Parliament. They had numerous manors scattered over different counties in England. Each settlement of Hospitallers was under the rule of a commander, who answered to the preceptors of the Templars. They were followers of St. Augustine's rule, and wore a black habit, with a white cross upon it. Their chief establishment in England was the Hospital of St. John, at Clerkenwell, founded by Jordan Briset, about 1100. Its revenue at the time of the Reformation seems to have been between £2,000 and £3,000. Other commanderies of this order were at Beverley (Yorkshire) and Warwick. In Dugdale's *Monasticon* (edit. 1839) more than fifty others are enumerated.

Dugdale, *Monasticon*; Tanner, *Notitia Monastica*; Porter, *Hist. of the Knights of Malta*; *Knights Hospitallers in England* (Camden Soc.).

Hotham, John de (*d.* 1336), was Chancellor of the Exchequer in Ireland in the second year of Edward II., and in 1311 is found as guardian of Gaveston's houses in London. Next year he was made Chancellor of the Exchequer in England, and in 1313 was sent on a mission to France. Two years later he was despatched to Ireland for the purpose of inducing the barons there to make a stand against Edward Bruce. In 1318 he was appointed Chancellor, and continued to hold the Great Seal till January, 1320. Some four years before this last date (1316), he had been elected Bishop of Ely. On the accession of Edward III. he was once more made Chancellor, but was struck with paralysis some two years before his death, which happened in 1336.

Hotham, Sir John (*d.* 1645), took a prominent part in the attack on the Earl of Strafford, having some personal grudge against that statesman. In the debate upon the Remonstrance he sided with Hyde [Clarendon]. Next year (1642) Hotham was despatched by the Parliament to take command of Hull and secure the large magazines of that important town for the popular party. When Charles demanded admittance to this fortress Hotham refused him, and the Parliament approved the conduct of their officer. But he was not entirely in the confidence of his employers, who sent his son to play the spy upon his father's movements. Unfortunately, when Lord Digby fell into their hands, Sir John allowed his honour to be tampered with, and promised to deliver up the town on the first shot fired against it by the king's army. Accordingly Hotham permitted Digby to depart for the purpose of carrying the news to York, but soon found out that he had no power to achieve his purpose. A little later both Sir John Hotham and his son were executed for treasonable correspondence with the Marquis of Newcastle (January, 1645), and died leaving on men's minds the impression that had it not been for their weakness, the Parliament would have become the absolute masters of the whole of Yorkshire.

Hotspur. [Percy, Henry.]

Houghers, The, made their first appearance in Connemara in the winter of 1711. They consisted of armed parties, disguised by white sheets, and spread over Mayo, Sligo, Roscommon, Galway, and Clare, slaughtering and "houghing" the cattle, from which last practice they derived their name. Notices were posted up, signed by "Captain Evan," bidding the shepherds remain indoors. None of the Houghers, who were evidently directed by men of birth and education, had been apprehended, when a government proclamation was issued, promising a free pardon to all who would confess. Upon this, sixteen young gentlemen belonging to the best Catholic families, came forward in Galway, and by the end of 1713 the movement had ceased. It is difficult to decide whether it was merely intended to check cattle-farming and Protestantism, or whether it had a Jacobite origin: but, in any case, the priests do not appear to have been implicated in the disturbance. Afterwards, the Houghers were identified with the Whiteboys (q.v.). In 1783 the Houghers directed their efforts against soldiers, and a bill was passed against them in 1784.

Housecarls, The, or Thingamen (*Hus carls*), were a body-guard formed by Canute from the remains of the fom-wikings, who, after the battle in which these pirates' power was broken, came to England, under Thurkill the Tall, and took Canterbury. Canute organised them into two bodies, of about 2,000 men each, picked soldiers, from all lands under his rule. "This force," says Mr. Freeman, "was, in fact, a revival of the earliest form of the primitive Comitatus, only more thoroughly and permanently organised; receiving regular pay, and reinforced by volunteers of all kinds and of all nations, they doubtless gradually departed from the higher type of Comitatus, and approached more nearly to the level of ordinary mercenaries. They were, in fact, the germ of a standing army, an institution which later kings and great earls, English as well as Danish, found it to their interest to continue." The English king's Housecarls were almost exterminated at the battles of Stamford Bridge and Senlac.

Hoveden, Roger of (*d. circa* 1201), one of the most valuable of our early chroniclers, was probably a native of Howden, in the East Riding of Yorkshire. He may have been introduced to public life by Bishop Hugh de Puiset, of Durham; but, in any case, he was employed in the king's service by 1174, for in this year we find him in attendance on Henry II. in France. Next year Henry sent him into Galloway, to induce the princes of Galloway to acknowledge the King of England as their lord. A few years later Roger was employed in the monastic elections of 1185, and in 1189 was justice itinerant for the forests in the north of England, from which time he is lost sight of. Dr. Stubbs has divided the *Chronicle* of Roger Hoveden into four parts:—part 1 comes down to 1148, part 2 extends from 1149 to 1169, 3 from 1170 to 1192, 4 from 1192 to 1201. Of these four divisions, the same authority remarks that part 1 is a copy of an earlier Durham compilation, to which he has made a few additions; part 2 is Hoveden's own narrative, but is largely indebted to the *Melrose Chronicle*, and is by no means free from chronological errors; part 3 is a revision, or, rather, a new edition, of the *Chronicle*, that goes by the name of *Benedict of Peterborough*, to which, however, Roger has added some important documents; part 4 appears to have been Hoveden's own work, and is of special value for the time of which it treats. Hoveden has been edited, with invaluable prefaces, by Dr. Stubbs for the Rolls Series.

Stubbs, Introd. in the Rolls Edition; Sir J. D. Hardy, *Descriptive Catalogue.*

Howard, The Family of. According to Sir Bernard Burke, the family of Howard was established in Norfolk in the tenth century. In the fifteenth century Sir Robert Howard married Margaret, daughter of Thomas Mowbray, Duke of Norfolk (who was descended from Thomas of Brotherton, son of King Edward I.), and of Elizabeth, daughter and heiress of Richard Fitzalan, Earl of Arundel. Thus the estates of the Mowbrays and Fitzalans came into possession of the Howards. In 1470 Sir John Howard, son of this Sir Robert, was created Lord Howard, and in 1483 Earl Marshal and Duke of Norfolk. Among other peerages in this family are those of Howard-de-Walden (created 1597), Howard of Glossop (1869), Carlisle (1661), Effingham (1554), Suffolk (1603).

Howard, Sir Edward (*d.* 1513), was the son of Thomas Howard, Earl of Surrey and second Duke of Norfolk, the victor of Flodden. Occupying the position of Lord High Admiral of England, he distinguished himself on several occasions. In 1511, supported by his brother, Sir Thomas Howard, as a subordinate officer in his fleet, he killed the Scotch privateer, Andrew Barton, and captured two of his ships. In 1512, on his return from Spain, where he had conducted the English forces, under the Marquis of Dorset, Sir Edward Howard captured many French merchantmen, and made several destructive descents on the French coast. Having refitted at Southampton, and being reinforced by a further squadron of twenty-five sail, he engaged with a French fleet of thirty-nine sail near Brest, on Aug. 10. Victory once again inclined to the side of the English, but a complete triumph was prevented by the dismay occasioned to both the contending parties upon the conflagration of the two largest ships on each side, the *Regent* and the *Cordelier*, whose entire crews, to the number of 1,700 men, perished in the flames. In 1513 Sir Edward Howard was killed in an attempt to destroy the French fleet near Brest (April 25). He was succeeded in his office of Lord High Admiral by his brother, Sir Thomas Howard, who became in later years the third Duke of Norfolk.

Howard of Effingham, William, Lord (*d.* 1573), was the son of Thomas, second Duke of Norfolk, Marshal of England. On the charge of concealing the incontinence of his niece, Catherine Howard, Lord William was declared guilty of misprision of treason, and condemned to perpetual imprisonment. He soon, however, recovered his liberty, and was, under Henry VIII. and Edward VI., employed on various diplomatic missions, the most important of which was one to the Czar of Muscovy, in 1553. Soon after Mary's accession he was raised to the peerage, and made Lord High Admiral of England. In 1554 he greatly distinguished himself in crushing the Kentish rebellion, and successfully prevented Sir Thomas Wyatt from entering London. It was owing to his influence as head of the naval power of Eng-

land, that Gardiner found it expedient not to press the charge against Elizabeth of being implicated in Wyatt's rebellion; and throughout the whole reign of Mary he exercised a constant watch over the princess, by whom, after her accession, he was created Lord Chamberlain and Lord Privy Seal, as a reward for his devotion. In 1559 he was sent as commissioner to Cambrai, in conjunction with Dr. Wotton and the Bishop of Ely, and subsequently did his best to bring about the marriage of the queen with the Archduke Charles of Austria.

Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Tytler, *England under Edward VI., Mary, and Elizabeth*; Aikin, *Memoirs of the Court of Queen Elizabeth.*

Howard OF EFFINGHAM, CHARLES, LORD (*b.* 1536, *d.* 1624), was the son of William, Lord Howard of Effingham, and grandson of the second Duke of Norfolk. In the year 1569 he held a command in the royal army during the Northern rebellion, and, in 1587, very strongly advised the execution of the Queen of Scots. In 1585, although a Catholic, he was appointed Lord High Admiral of England, and had command of the fleet during the alarm of the Spanish Armada, his resolution and bravery being conspicuous throughout the crisis. In 1596 he was associated with the Earl of Essex in the expedition against Cadiz, and was created Earl of Nottingham as a reward for his services. In 1601 he was instrumental in suppressing the insurrection of Essex, with whom he had quarrelled after the Spanish expedition. Under James, Lord Howard continued to hold his office as admiral, and filled the post of Lord High Steward at the coronation. Though without very great experience or commanding ability, Lord Howard was fairly successful. He had some naval skill, and was both bold and prudent. He knew whose advice to follow, and was very popular in the navy. [ARMADA.]

Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*

Howard, LORD WILLIAM (*d.* 1640), was the second son of Thomas, fourth Duke of Norfolk, and ancestor of the Earls of Carlisle. He was suspected of being implicated in Francis Throgmorton's plot, 1583, but, though he was arrested, no proof of his complicity could be obtained. Having become lord of Naworth Castle in right of his wife, he was made Warden of the Western Marches.

Howard OF ESCRICK, EDWARD, LORD (*d.* 1675), was the seventh son of Thomas Howard, Earl of Suffolk, and was created Baron Howard of Escrick, in Yorkshire, 1628. He sided with the Parliament throughout the Civil War, and, after the abolition of the House of Lords, consented to become a member of the Commons, where he represented Carlisle; he also became a member of the Council of State. In July, 1650, he was accused by Major-General Harrison of taking bribes from wealthy delinquents. A year later he was convicted, expelled from the House, sentenced to be imprisoned in the Tower and to pay a fine of £10,000. He was soon released, and the fine was not exacted, but he took no further part in public affairs.

Howard, JOHN (*b.* 1726, *d.* 1790), a distinguished philanthropist, was born in London, and after being for some time apprenticed to a grocer, travelled over Europe. In 1756 he undertook a voyage to Lisbon, but on the way was captured by a French privateer, and was for a short time held in captivity. In 1773 his attention was directed to the state of the English prisons, and he visited most of the countries of the Continent to examine their prisons. In 1777, he published *The State of the Prisons in England and Wales*, which had the effect of drawing public attention to the abuses which prevailed, and ultimately leading to great reforms. He died at Kherson while prosecuting researches into the plague.

Howard v. Gossett, CASE OF. Mr. Howard, who had been Stockdale's solicitor in his action against Messrs. Hansard in 1839 and 1840, brought an action against the officers of the House of Commons, who had taken him into custody, and obtained a verdict for £100. He then obtained a second verdict against Sir W. Gossett, the Sergeant-at-Arms, on the ground that the Speaker's warrant was informal. The question was once more brought before the Court of Exchequer, and here the verdict of the lower court was reversed. The case forms a constitutional precedent of some importance. As Sir Erskine May points out, "The act of the officer and not the authority of the House itself was questioned."

May, *Const. Hist.*

Howe, JOHN (*b.* 1630, *d.* 1705), Puritan divine, a native of Loughborough. After his appointment to the living of Great Torrington in 1652, and while on a visit to London, he attracted the notice of Cromwell, who made him his domestic chaplain. He was also appointed Lecturer at St. Margaret's, Westminster. At the Restoration he returned to Torrington, but was ejected by the Act of Uniformity, and became a Nonconformist minister in London. He was an erudite and eloquent preacher, and was universally esteemed for his liberality and piety.

Howe, JOHN (*d.* 1722), was returned as member for Cirencester to the Convention of 1689, having previously been known as the author of some savage lampoons. He was appointed Vice-Chamberlain to Queen Mary. He proved himself a zealous Whig, and proposed sending Dutch troops to suppress a Scotch regiment, which had mutinied when ordered to the Continent. He attacked Car-

marthen and Halifax, demanding that they should be removed from the king's councils, but without effect. He was dismissed from his office in 1692, apparently for imagining that Queen Mary was in love with him. From this time he displayed the most rancorous hatred against the queen and her husband, and moved the impeachment of Burnet for writing an obnoxious pastoral letter. Shortly afterwards he became a Tory, and a zealous advocate for peace. In 1702 he received the office of Joint Paymaster of the Forces. He moved without success that the Prince of Denmark should have the enormous income of £100,000 a year on the death of Queen Anne. Howe was sworn of the Privy Council in 1708, but on the accession of George I. he was dismissed from his offices, and passed the remainder of his life in retirement.

Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*; Stanhope, *Reign of Queen Anne.*

Howe, Richard, 1st Earl (*b.* 1726, *d.* 1799), a third son of the second Viscount Howe, entered the navy at the age of fourteen, and was employed under Lord Anson. After serving for some time in the West Indies he was appointed commander of a sloop in 1745. In 1748 he returned to England, and spent three years in studying navigation and tactics. He was then appointed to perform a semi-diplomatic mission in the Mediterranean, and executed it with great skill and judgment. In 1754, while attached to Boscawen's fleet, he captured a French ship. Three years later he was returned to Parliament for Dartmouth, and in the following year made himself conspicuous in Hawke's attacks on the French coast, and in the same year succeeded to the family title and estates on the death of his brother, Viscount Howe. Once more he distinguished himself at the action in Quiberon Bay in 1759. During the American War he was employed on that station; but his force was so small and ill provided that he could effect little or nothing. He returned to England in 1778, and in 1782 was sent to relieve Gibraltar, a service which he accomplished in spite of the superior number of the enemy. On his return in 1783 he was appointed First Commissioner of the Admiralty, and, except during the short Coalition administration, held that post until 1788, when he resigned and was created an earl. In 1793, when the war with France broke out, Lord Howe was appointed to the command of the Channel Fleet. On May 2, 1794, he sailed from St. Helens, and on June 1 gained a decisive victory over the French. Honours were heaped upon him; and on the outbreak of the mutiny in the fleet in 1797, Lord Howe was armed with full powers to restore order in the navy. To effect this purpose he exercised so much moderation, firmness, and tact, that he soon brought back the sailors to their allegiance. As a commander, Lord Howe has been accused of being too cautious; as a man, however, he seems to have had many estimable qualities.

James, *Naval Hist.*; Allen, *Battles of the British Navy.*

Howe, Sir William (*d.* 1814), brother of Earl Howe, was appointed commander-in-chief of the English army in America in 1775. Acting in this capacity he won the battle of Bunker Hill (1775), and took New York (1776). Next year he defeated the enemy at Brandywine River and occupied Philadelphia, but was re-called in 1778 at his own request.

Howel Dha (Howel the Good) was the most famous of the early Welsh kings (*reigned* 915—948). He was the son of Cadell and the grandson of Rhodri Mawr. Howel seems to have had a vague sort of overlordship over North Wales, whose chief king was his cousin, Idwal Foel. Later writers have spoken of him as king of all Wales; but he at most possessed over his contemporary princes the authority of superior ability and power. He never disputed the West Saxon overlordship, and in 922 accepted Edward the Elder as "father and lord." He seems to have attended the English witenagemots, attested charters, and there is ground for the belief that he joined the expedition of Edmund against Cumbria in 946. Howel is most famous for his collection of Welsh laws and customs, which he made at a great gathering of Welsh prelates and princes at his hunting lodge, near Whitland, in Carmarthenshire, known as Ty Gwyn ar Daf. He is said to have been aided by Blegywryd, the first scholar of his time, and to have taken the laws in person to Rome to obtain papal sanction (926). But the "Book of the White House" is no longer extant, and the bulky codes which now go by the name of the Laws of Howel Dha can only in their present form be referred back to the eleventh or twelfth century, though doubtless based on earlier collections. They comprise three varying laws belonging to the districts of Gwynedd, Powys, and Dyfed respectively. They bear large traces of English influence, and, though largely occupied with minute details of fines and court duties, are very valuable sources of information. Howel died in 948, and the peace which seems to have attended his power died with him. "He was," says the native chronicler, "the wisest and justest of all Welsh princes, greatly loved by every Welshman and by the wise among the Saxons."

The *Laws of Howel Dha* were first printed by Wotton, and afterwards more completely and accurately edited by Mr. Aneurin Owen in the Record Commission's *Ancient Laws and Institutes of Wales*; *Brut y Tywysogion*; *Gwentian Brut*; *Annales Cambriæ*; *Liber Landavensis*; Williams, *History of Wales.* [T. F. T.]

Howick, Lord. [Grey, Earl.]

Hudibras. [Butler, Samuel.]

Hudson, Sir Jeffrey (*b.* 1619, *d.* 1682), was Charles I.'s favourite dwarf. He was faithfully attached to Queen Henrietta, whom he accompanied in her first flight from England; not long after this he was taken prisoner by Turkish pirates and sold as a slave, but before long he was released and served as a captain of horse in the royal army. When the royal cause became hopeless he again retired to France with the queen, but returned to England at the Restoration, and in 1679 was accused of complicity in the Popish Plot. On this account he was imprisoned, and died very soon afterwards in captivity.

Hudson's Bay Territories, The (or Prince Rupert's Land), which extended over a vast area in the north-west of British America, received their name from the explorer Hudson, who in 1610 penetrated into the bay which still bears his name. It had been previously visited by Sebastian Cabot in 1517, and by Davis in 1585. The example of Hudson was followed a few years later by various exploring parties, and the regions about the bay were found to be abundantly stocked with animals furnishing valuable fur. In 1670 the Hudson's Bay Company was formed, and settlements were established in various places. Frequent collisions took place between the English settlers and the French, who in 1685 took most of the English factories. The Peace of Utrecht in 1713 restored the English possessions, and although there were subsequent attempts on the part of the French to drive out the British again, they were unsuccessful. The Hudson's Bay Company was carried on in accordance with the charter of 1670, which "authorises the governor and company to make laws and ordinances for the good government of their territory, and the advancement of trade, and to impose penalties and punishments not repugnant to the laws of England." In 1858 part of the territory was formed into the colony of British Columbia, and in 1870 the remaining portion, then known as the North West Territories, was incorporated with the Dominion of Canada (q.v.), with which British Columbia was united in 1871.

R. M. Martin, *English Colonies*; Sir E. Creasy, *Britannic Empire*.

Hue and Cry is derived from the French words *huer* and *crier*, both of which signify to cry aloud. In early English law it was one of the recognised processes of common law for securing the arrest of a felon. The plaintiff who had been robbed had by this process the right of acquainting the constable of the township with the wrong he had suffered, and the description of the culprit. The constable might then call upon all the inhabitants to join in the pursuit of the suspected criminal with horn and voice; and so follow up the offender's tracks to the limits of the township, at which limit this constable would generally hand on the duty of pursuit to the constable of the neighbouring parish. It was enjoined by the Statute of Westminster, 1275, and regulated by Acts made in the years 1285, 1585, 1735, and 1749.

Huguenots. [Protestant Refugees in England.]

Hull, or Kingston-upon-Hull, derives its second name from Edward I., who, seeing its advantageous position, took much trouble in fortifying the place. But it seems to have been of considerable importance even before this time. The great house of De la Pole were Hull merchants. About the year 1300, Edward, in an ordinance having reference to the establishment of mints, appointed it one of the places for the erection of furnaces. Its prosperity, though occasionally interrupted by plague and famine, seems to have been continuous during the succeeding centuries. In 1642 the town came into great prominence as one of the most important magazines of arms in the country. Owing to this it was entrusted by Parliament to the keeping of Sir John Hotham, whose refusal to admit the king within the gates was almost tantamount to a declaration of war. Before long, however, Sir John was found in correspondence with the Royalists, treating for the surrender of his charge. For this offence he suffered death; while the town of Hull held out against the siege of the Marquis of Newcastle.

Humble Petition and Advice, The (1657), was the second paper Constitution of the Protectorate. When Cromwell's second Parliament met in 1657, great anxiety was felt for the course events would take if the Protector were to be suddenly carried off by death or murder. On February 23 Alderman Pack, member for the city of London, brought in a motion to this effect, and enunciated his proposals, which bore the title of "An Humble Address and Remonstrance." These propositions were, after a long debate, accepted by the House, in spite of the opposition of the military members. On April 4, when a committee had been appointed to discuss the whole question with him, Cromwell definitely refused to exchange the title of Protector for that of king; but with this and a few other minor exceptions, the whole of the Humble Petition and Advice received the Protector's assent (May 25, 1657). The chief provisions of this document were, that Cromwell should name his own successor in his lifetime; that a Parliament of two Houses should be called every three years at the furthest; that Papists be disabled from sitting in Parliament and voting in the election of members; that an Upper

House be constituted, consisting of from forty to seventy members, whereof twenty-one should form a quorum; that the members of this Upper House should be nominated by Cromwell in the first place—the right of filling up vacancies being, however, inherent in the chamber itself; that a constant revenue of £1,300,000 a year be granted for the maintenance of the army and navy, other supplies being granted by Parliament specially, as need should arise; that the Protector's council should consist only of "such as are of known piety and of undoubted affection to the rights of these nations," even in matters of religious faith; that this council be not removed but by consent of Parliament; that it shall appoint to the military and naval commands on Cromwell's death; that the Chancellor, Treasurer, chief justices, &c., be approved by Parliament; that Parliament should issue a public confession of faith, to which, however, none should be *compelled* to assent, nor be molested for holding other views so long as they did not abuse this liberty; but that neither Papacy nor Prelacy be suffered. When, however, Parliament once more met in Jan., 1658, Cromwell found the Lower House, from which his chief supporters had been withdrawn to form the new House of Lords, calling in question all that had been done in the previous year. The Lower House now refused to recognise the Upper. Cromwell, in despair, dissolved Parliament early in 1658, and the Humble Petition and Advice fell to the ground.

Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*; Whitelocke, *Memorials*, 655—661.

Hume, David (*b.* 1711, *d.* 1776), was born at Edinburgh and educated for the law, though his own tastes ran strongly in the direction of letters. A few years after coming of age he went to France, returning to London in 1737, for the publication of his *Treatise on Human Nature.* It was not till fifteen years later that he published his *Political Discourses* (1752), and about the same time being appointed librarian of the Faculty of Advocates, conceived the idea of writing a history of England. The first volume of this work containing the reigns of James I. and Charles I. was published in 1754, and fell almost still-born from the press. Two years later appeared the continuation of the *History* to the Revolution of 1688. In 1759 Hume published his history of the House of Tudor, and in 1761 the earlier portion of his history. By this time the sale of the new history was very considerable, and its author realised such sums of money from the booksellers, that he became, in his own words, "not only independent but opulent." In 1763 he was appointed secretary to the Earl of Hertford in his embassy to Paris, and in 1765 remained *chargé d'affaires* in that city, till the arrival of Lord Hertford's successor, the Duke of Richmond. He then returned to Edinburgh, where he died. Hume's *History* was long the most widely popular of all the general histories of England. This popularity it owes in great part to the lucid elegance of its style, and the literary skill with which it is composed: qualities which still entitle it to rank as an English classic. To the historical student its value at the present day is comparatively slight. Hume's acquaintance with the subject was not very close, and of the earlier periods and the origin and growth of the constitution, he had little accurate knowledge; nor was the time taken in the composition of the *History* sufficient to allow of very deep research; while his narrative of events in the seventeenth century is vitiated by his strong prejudice against all who asserted popular rights. Still the literary merits of the book, and the acuteness of some of the observations of one of the greatest thinkers of the 18th century, must always give it a certain value of its own.

Hume, Joseph (*b.* 1777, *d.* 1855), was born of humble parents at Montrose. After studying medicine at Edinburgh he was appointed surgeon to one of the Indian regiments (1797), and did not return home till 1808. From this time he devoted his attention to the practical side of English politics, and in 1812 entered Parliament as member for Weymouth—a borough which he did not long continue to represent. A few years later he was returned for Aberdeen, and after one or two changes finally became member for Montrose. The chief object which Hume set to himself as a politician was the reduction of taxation, and to secure this reduction he investigated and, when necessary, challenged every item of public expenditure. But it was not to this line of work only that Mr. Hume confined his attention. Almost every branch of domestic policy in turn called for his inquiries: he proposed reforms in the army, the navy, and the ecclesiastical courts. He secured the repeal of the laws forbidding machinery to be exported, and workmen from going abroad. He was also a determined enemy of imprisonment for debt, of flogging in the army, and the system of impressment for the navy. In such useful work he passed the last years of his life.

Hundred, The. Tacitus, describing the Germans, says that their chiefs are assisted in matters of justice by a hundred companions, and that in war each *pagus*, or district, furnishes a hundred warriors and the host. These bands, he tells us, are called "hundreds," but "what was once a number is now a name only." Thus the tribe is divided into "hundreds," which are already beginning to lose their connection with a definite number

of warriors, or fully free men. There is no trace of any such division in England till Edgar's "Ordinance how the Hundred shall be held." But in the Frank kingdom the court of the hundred had been the most important part of the judicial machinery as early as the fifth century; and an arrangement of the land in hundreds seems to have been common to most German peoples. It is, therefore, probable that Edgar's measure was not the creation of the division into hundreds, but the employment for judicial and police purposes of a primitive method of grouping. It does not, however, follow that the hundreds were all originally of the same size; the district given to a hundred warriors would naturally vary in size according to the natural characteristics of the country, and to the amount of land at the disposal of each tribe at the time of the allotment. According to William of Malmesbury, the division into hundreds and tithings was due to Alfred; possibly Alfred revived the hundred as a basis of rating. Connecting this tradition with the fact of the first appearance of the name under Edgar, we may regard the revival or development of the hundredal system as a part of the work of reorganisation after the Danish attack. The laws of Edgar mention a "hundreds-ealdor" who is to be consulted on questions of witness, and a "hundred-man" whose duty it is to pursue thieves. These may or may not be the same. In the thirteenth century the hundred was represented in the shire-moot by an elected ealdorman; it is therefore likely that the hundreds-ealdor, or hundred-man, was from the first an elected officer. He can scarcely be regarded as more than the convener of the court. In the twelfth century the hundreds were fast becoming dependent upon great lords who managed and took the profits of the court. The hundred-moot, wherein the whole body of suitors or freeholders present were judges, and which was probably presided over by a deputy of the sheriff, was held monthly. It had jurisdiction in all cases; was the court of first instance in criminal matters; and Canute decreed that no case should be brought before the king until it had been heard in the hundred court. The laws of Ethelred direct that "the twelve senior thegns go out and swear in the relic that they will accuse no innocent man nor conceal any guilty one;" the presentment of criminals was therefore probably part of the immemorial work of the hundred court, and a representative body of twelve seems to have acted on behalf of the suitors as a sort of judicial committee. Upon the creation of the system of frank-pledges, a distinction arose between the great court of the hundred held twice yearly for the sheriff's tourn or view of frank-pledge, and with specially full attendance, and the lesser court of the hundred under the bailiff for petty questions of debt. Its criminal jurisdiction was gradually taken from it on the one hand by the growth of the manorial courts-leet and of franchises, and on the other by the creation of the system of itinerant justices. From the twelfth century the hundred ceased to be of much political importance.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.* The laws are printed in Schmid, *Gesetzte der Angel-Sachsen* (see also his Glossary, s.v. *Hundred*); those of Edgar and the *Leges Henrici Primi* are in Stubbs's *Select Charters*. See also Gneist, *Self-Government*; and as to Tacitus, Waitz, *Deutsche Verfassungs. Gesch.*, i. 218–222. [W. J. A.]

Hundred Rolls, The, are the result of inquisitions taken by a commission appointed by Edward I. at the beginning of his reign, to inquire into various grievances relating to illegal tolls, encroachments on royal and common lands, unlawful tradings, oppressions by the nobility and clergy, &c. These returns are of the greatest importance to the local historian and the genealogist. They derive their names from the fact that the inquiry was conducted from hundred to hundred. A jury in each hundred gave witness to the extent of the demesne lands of the crown; of manors alienated from the crown; the names of tenants-in-capite with their services, and the losses incurred by the crown owing to subinfeudation; the extent of lands held in frank-almoign; the wardships, marriages, escheats, &c., wrongfully withheld from the crown, and many other items of importance. These Rolls were published by command of the king in 1812.

Hundred Years' War, The (1338–1453), is the name generally applied to the long period of scarcely interrupted hostility between England and France, which began with Edward III.'s assertion by arms of his claims to the French throne, and did not finally end until the expulsion of the English from France during the reign of Henry VI. As roughly and vaguely indicating, at least, the culminating century of the long mediæval struggle between the two nations, the term is a useful one enough. But it must not be taken to indicate any definite war in the way that the Thirty Years' War, or the Seven Years' War do. The long warfare was interrupted by more than one interval of peace, and more than once changed its character and objects.

Despite the claims raised by Edward III. in 1328 [Edward III.], the accession of Philip of Valois was peaceful, and it was not until 1338 that hostilities began. A variety of secondary causes of quarrel had long embittered the relations of England and France, when the strong support which Philip gave to the Scots made war inevitable, and Edward did his best to make the breach irreparable by his obtrusive reassertion of his old claim to the French throne. Strong in his national leadership of the English hatred of France, Edward, as Duke of Guienne, relied also on

rallying the feudalists of the south to his side, while he concluded a close alliance with Louis of Bavaria, the imperial vassals of the Netherlands, and the anti-French party in the Flemish cities. From 1338 to 1340, an indecisive war was waged on the northern frontier of France, only memorable for Edward's naval victory of Sluys (June 24, 1340). The lukewarmness and desertion of Edward's allies necessitated a truce, that continued until the dispute between John of Montfort and Charles of Blois for the duchy of Britanny gave English and French, as partisans of Montfort and Charles respectively, an opportunity of renewing their quarrel. In 1345 the general war was resumed. Edward again established intimate relations with Ghent, and Derby, in Guienne, won the victory of Auberoche, though compelled the next year to stand a siege in Aiguillon. In 1346, Edward, in person, landed with a great army in Normandy, and after a destructive inroad, won the famous victory of Crecy (Aug. 6, 1346), gave the English enduring prestige, and the possession of Calais, which surrendered after a famous siege in 1347. The Black Death now compelled a truce, and the war was not renewed until 1355, when a bloody foray of the Black Prince, at the head of the chivalry of Guienne, bore more fruit than Edward's abortive expedition from Calais. During a similar inroad in 1356, the Black Prince won the victory of Poitiers, where King John of France was taken prisoner. A period of extreme anarchy now set in, in France, which King Edward availed himself of to conclude the very favourable Peace of Bretigny (1360). The treaty was never really carried out, and the war in Britanny continued until the battle of Auray gave Montfort the duchy; and after the Black Prince had lost health and reputation in Spain, the appeal of the barons of Aquitaine led Charles V. to renew the war openly in 1369. The skilful strategy of the Constable Duguesclin avoided pitched battles, and wore down the enemy by a partisan warfare of sieges, skirmishes, and ambuscades. The capture of Limoges was the last of the Black Prince's exploits. Lancaster traversed France from end to end in 1373, but he found no enemy and could win no durable results. By 1374 all Guienne was lost except two or three towns on the coast, and in the north Calais alone remained English. The feeble government of the minority of Richard II. led the French, even under Charles VI., to retaliation on England; but the war continued very slackly, and with constant truces, until in 1397, Richard II., intent on despotism, established a close alliance with France, cemented by his marriage with Isabella of Valois. But the revolution of 1399 again embroiled England and France in hostilities, and nothing but the weakness of Henry IV. and the outbreak of the Burgundian and Armagnac factions prevented a serious renewal of the war; as it was, the judicious trimming of Henry led in 1411 to his securing full possession of Guienne. Henry V., with greater resources, renewed vigorous hostilities. On Oct. 25, 1415, the battle of Agincourt (q.v.) gave him a victory over Burgundian and Armagnac, combined for once to defend their country. In 1417 a second expedition profited by the renewal of civil strife in France; and the capture of Rouen completed the conquest of Normandy. In 1419, the murder of John the Fearless drove the whole Burgundian party on to the English side. A marvellous change of feeling brought the monarchical north of France to welcome the national enemy and head of the feudal separatists. Paris opened its gates to Henry, and the Treaty of Troyes (q.v.) (1420) secured him the succession to the French throne. But Henry's premature death in 1422 led the Dauphin, now Charles VII., to renew the war against the regent Bedford. Despite the victories of Crevant and Verneuil, the Anglo-Burgundian party failed to hold their own south of the Loire. The mad folly of Bedford's brother alienated Burgundy. A national reaction set in, in France, which found its highest expression in the heroic career of the Maid of Orleans. In 1429 Joan relieved Orleans and defeated the English at Patay; marched to Rheims to crown Charles king, and, though unsuccessful in her attacks on Paris, succeeded in rekindling the spirit of nationality through all North France. The coronation of Henry VI. at Paris, Joan's capture and execution in 1431, failed to stem the tide. In 1435 Burgundy abandoned the English at the Congress of Arras, and the death of Bedford completed their discomfiture. In 1437 Paris was lost. A peace party that recognised the futility of continuing the war, now grew up in England, but their temporary triumph, though it led to the truce of 1446, and the marriage of Henry VI. and Margaret of Anjou, failed to secure a permanent peace. In 1448 the war was renewed, and by 1449 all Normandy fell into the hands of the French. Guienne next fell, and in 1453 Calais alone remained in the English possession in France. The outbreak of the Wars of the Roses finally prevented any prolongation of the long struggle—which had caused so much misery and had been so barren of results—and which, if resulting in bracing up the national life of France, brought little to England but barren glory, chequered with disgrace, and a factious and unruly spirit that found its outcome in the civil wars that now fell upon the land.

Pauli, *Englische Geschichte*; Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.*; Longman, *Hist. of Edward III.*; Brougham, *House of Lancaster*; H. Martin, *Histoire des Français*; J. Michelet, *Histoire des Français* (especially for Joan of Arc). [T. F. T.]

Hungarian Refugee Question, The (1851). In 1851 Kossuth, the Hungarian revolutionary leader, came to England, and was received with great enthusiasm. The Austrian government (already offended by an attack at Barclay's brewery on the Austrian general, Haynau, Sept., 1850, and by an unconciliatory note of Lord Palmerston's on the subject) looked on these proceedings with great distrust and suspicion, over-rating, much as Kossuth himself did, the value of these demonstrations. Lord Palmerston had already used English influence to protect the Hungarian refugees in Turkey, and it became almost understood that if Lord Palmerston received Kossuth at a private interview, as he proposed doing, the Austrian ambassador would leave the country. Lord John Russell grew alarmed, and the result of his remonstrances with Lord Palmerston was that the latter promised to avoid an interview with Kossuth. He consented, however, to receive some deputations from various metropolitan parishes at the Foreign Office. The addresses brought by these bodies contained strong language with regard to the Austrian government. The whole transaction was eventually made one of the charges of independent action brought against Lord Palmerston, which caused his dismissal in 1852.

Ashley, *Life of Palmerston; Annual Register; Hansard.*

Hunsdon, Lord, Henry Carey (*d.* 1596), cousin of Queen Elizabeth, one of her truest friends and most trusted advisers, was frequently employed on confidential missions, and filled many posts of trust. In 1564 he was sent to France, to invest Charles IX. with the Order of the Garter, but was usually in attendance on the queen at court. Vehemently opposed to the scheme of a marriage between Mary Stuart and the Duke of Norfolk, Hunsdon, in 1569, was sent to Scotland with proposals for the delivery of the Queen of Scots into the hands of Murray, in order to get her out of the way of any movement in her favour on the part of the rebel lords. Later in the same year, he was associated with Lord Sussex in the command against the insurgents of the north. In the beginning of 1570 he attacked the forces of Leonard Dacres on the banks of the river Chelt, in Cumberland, and completely routed them, doing such good service to the queen that Elizabeth wrote to him. In 1584 he was sent on a special mission to Scotland. During the alarm which held England in the days when the Spanish Armada was threatening, Lord Hunsdon had command of a body-guard of 36,000 men, enrolled especially for the queen's defence. A soldier rather than a statesman, Lord Hunsdon gave the queen frequent momentary offence by his plain speaking, but he remained till the end one of her most trusted supporters.

Nares, *Life of Burleigh; Burleigh Papers.*

Hunt, Henry (*b.* 1773, *d.* 1835), better known as "Orator Hunt," was born at Widdington, Wiltshire, and was a farmer in very well-to-do circumstances. In consequence, however, of some misunderstanding, he was expelled from the Marlborough yeomanry by Lord Bruce. He demanded satisfaction, and for this he was indicted in the King's Bench, found guilty, fined, and imprisoned. In prison he met with Waddington and some other Radicals, who converted him to their party. In 1812 he stood for Bristol, where for some time he had been following the trade of a brewer. The poll was kept open for fourteen days, serious riots took place, and Hunt was beaten in this, as in many subsequent attempts to enter Parliament. He now took to stump oratory, held Reform meetings at Westminster, and was especially conspicuous at Spa Fields and Manchester. A warrant was issued against him, and he was arrested at Manchester, tried and imprisoned (1820). During the excitement of the Reform Bill, he displaced Lord Stanley as member for Preston, and entered the House of Commons (1830). Here he estranged most of his former associates, and he was defeated at the 1832 election.

Annual Register, 1835.

Hunt, Leigh (*b.* 1784, *d.* 1859), held a clerkship in the War Office from the time of his leaving school till the year 1808, when, in company with his brother John, he started the *Examiner*, a journal of advanced political views. In 1812 the two brothers were fined £500 apiece and sentenced to undergo an imprisonment of two years for publishing a satire upon the Prince Regent in the pages of their paper. On his release from prison, he edited the *Indicator*, and about 1822 was associated with Byron and Shelley in their new venture, *The Liberal*, of which only four numbers were issued. Leigh Hunt received a government pension of £200 a year in 1847. He was the author of many poetical and other works, and of an *Autobiography*, published in 1850.

Huntingdon was the seat of one of Edward the Elder's castles, built about 916. It was made an earldom for Waltheof, son of Siward, in 1070. In the Middle Ages the history of the town is unimportant. It was one of the great centres of the Parliamentarians in the Civil War, and was plundered by the Royalists in 1645.

Huntingdon, Peerages of. Waltheof, Earl of Huntingdon, was beheaded in 1075. His daughter Maud married first Simon de St. Liz, and secondly David, afterwards King of Scotland, who successively bore the title of earl. The title then passed to David's son, Henry, and at his death to his half-brother, Simon de St. Liz. Afterwards it reverted to the Scottish house, and was held by David's grandson, Malcolm, and by the

latter's son William, Kings of Scotland. William, however, was divested about 1174, and Simon de St. Liz, son of the Simon last named, became earl. Then followed David, brother of William, King of Scotland, with whose son the title became extinct. A new earldom was subsequently created in favour of William of Clinton (1337), and again of Guiscard, Lord of Angle in Poitou (1377); but neither of these persons left heirs. In 1387 John Holland, afterwards Duke of Exeter, was made Earl of Huntingdon; this title was forfeited when his grandson Henry was attainted (1461). Ten years later, Thomas Grey, afterwards Marquis of Dorset, was granted the earldom, which, however, he is stated to have resigned on receiving the marquisate; the former being now granted to William Herbert, Earl of Pembroke, who died without male issue. In 1529, George, Baron Hastings, was created Earl of Huntingdon, and by his family the honour is still held.

Huntingdon, Francis Hastings, 2nd Earl of (*d.* 1561), was employed, in 1550, in an expedition for the relief of Calais and Boulogne, with Sir James Crofts. In 1554, he did good service to Mary in the Duke of Suffolk's rebellion, and succeeded in taking that nobleman prisoner. He married Catherine, daughter of Lord Montague, and granddaughter of Margaret, Countess of Salisbury, and so handed on to his son a remote possibility of inheriting the English crown.

Huntingdon, Henry Hastings, 3rd Earl of (*d.* 1595), was, soon after the accession of Elizabeth, regarded as her possible heir, especially by Cecil and the Protestant party; but the plan of recognising him proved impracticable. He subsequently strongly opposed the contemplated marriage between Mary Queen of Scots and the Duke of Norfolk, as one which would be fraught with much mischief to the Protestant cause. In the year 1569 he became Mary's gaoler at Tutbury, and proved himself the bitter enemy of the Scotch queen and the Catholic party. In 1581 he was sent to levy troops against Lennox, though he was prevented from taking any further steps against the regent by Secretary Randolph. Huntingdon married Lady Catherine Dudley, daughter of the Duke of Northumberland, and was, therefore, the brother-in-law of the Earl of Leicester.

Huntingdon, Henry of (*d. circa* 1154), was brought up by Bloet, Bishop of Lincoln, and subsequently became Archdeacon of Huntingdon. His chief work is his *Historia Anglorum*, which goes down to the reign of Stephen. The importance of this work is chiefly owing to the fact that it incorporates a number of popular songs and stories, the originals of which have been lost. His style is grandiloquent and often turgid, and he abounds in classical allusions. His *Epistle to Walter*, his friend, is a cynical sketch of many of his most famous contemporaries in Church and State.

Henry of Huntingdon's works have been edited for the Rolls Series. A translation of his history is given in Bohn's *Antiquarian Library*.

Huntly, Alexander de Seton, 1st Earl of (*d.* 1470), was created earl by James II. of Scotland (1449—50). He was the head of the Setons and the Gordons, and received his title in reward for his services against the Douglas faction. He defeated the Earl of Craufurd, one of the Douglas leaders, in the battle of Brechin (1452).

Huntly, George Gordon, 2nd Marquis of (*d.* 1649), was appointed Charles I.'s lieutenant in Scotland, and after having refused all the overtures made to him by the Covenanters, took the field in opposition to the Marquis of Argyle (1644). Next year he refused to lay down his arms even at the command of the king, who was then under the control of the Parliament. In 1647 he was taken prisoner and beheaded at Edinburgh on March 22, 1649.

J. H. Burton, *History of Scotland;* Sir R. Douglas, *Peerage of Scotland.*

Huntly, George Gordon, 4th Earl of (*d.* 1562), was one of the last peers in Scotland to oppose the Reformation. He was a man of vast power and wealth, his possessions lying chiefly in the north and west of the Highlands. In his earlier years he had defeated the English troops at Haddenrig (1542), and at the head of the Scotch army had narrowly watched the Duke of Norfolk's invasion of the same year, on which occasion, though avoiding an engagement, he succeeded in materially checking the progress of the English. He was one of the commanders at the battle of Pinkie, where he was taken prisoner (1547). After escaping from prison, he became a great supporter of Mary of Guise, the queen-regent, and in later years a strong opponent of the Lords of the Congregation. When Mary Queen of Scots returned to her own country (1561), the Earl of Huntly found part of the estates which had been in his possession transferred to James Stuart, the queen's half-brother (Earl of Murray), and plotted the murder of that nobleman. In 1562 he took up arms, and openly denied Mary admittance to her castle of Inverness, which he then held. The castle, however, was soon taken by the royal troops, and shortly afterwards Huntly was defeated and slain at Corrichie, near Aberdeen.

Huntly, George Gordon, 5th Earl of (*d.* 1576), the son of that Earl of Huntly who fell at Corrichie, 1562, and for whose rebellion the family estates had been forfeited to the crown, was restored to his title and possessions, August, 1565. Soon afterwards his sister, Lady Jane Gordon, was married to Bothwell, while Huntly himself

married a daughter of the Duke of Chatelhérault. After the murder of Darnley (1567), Huntly accompanied Mary to Seton, and was one of the councillors who presided at Bothwell's trial. Having afterwards taken up arms against the Regent Murray, he was forced to make submission (1569), and to join the party of the government. On Murray's death (1570), the Earl of Huntly once more raised forces on behalf of Queen Mary, but was soon forced to enter into a pacification with the new regent (1573). His death occurred a few years later, in 1576.

Huntly, George Gordon, 6th Earl and 1st Marquis of (*d.* 1636), was one of the supporters of James VI. after the Raid of Ruthven (q.v.). A staunch adherent of the Catholic faith, he was accused in the year 1589 of being in league with Philip of Spain, and a year or two later signed the "Spanish blanks." In 1592 he put the Earl of Murray to death, nominally as an accomplice in Bothwell's rebellion (1591), but most probably in revenge for the treatment which the Gordons had experienced from the Regent Murray. In 1594 he defeated the Earl of Argyle, who attacked him at the instance of the government; but became reconciled to him in 1597, when he also changed his faith and obtained the reversal of his forfeiture. He was not, however, a particularly zealous convert, as in 1616 he was excommunicated on suspicion of receiving and protecting Jesuits in his castle. In 1630 his feud with the Crichtons culminated in the loss of his eldest son at the "burning of Frendraught." Shortly afterwards the Marquis of Huntly himself died of a broken heart (1636).

J. H. Burton, *Hist. of Scotland;* Sir R. Douglas, *Peerage of Scotland.*

Huskisson, William (*b.* 1770, *d.* 1830), the son of William Huskisson of Oxley, near Wolverhampton, was educated for the profession of medicine. Shortly before the French Revolution he accompanied his uncle to Paris, and warmly entered into the feelings of the revolutionary party. He became a member of the Club de Quatre-vingt-neuf, and of the London Corresponding Society, and turned his attention to international policy and commerce. He attracted the attention of Lord Gower, the British ambassador, who offered him the situation of private secretary (1790). In 1793 he was appointed to assist in the projected arrangement of an office for arranging the affairs of the French refugees in England. In 1795 he became Under-Secretary of State for War, and was Secretary for the Treasury under Pitt (1804) and Perceval (1807). He was Chief Commissioner of Woods and Forests in 1814, and elected member for Liverpool in 1823. In that year he was made President of the Board of Trade, and with him a complete alteration came over our commercial policy, and the reign of protection began to give place and yield to free trade. In his first year he was not able to do much. He offered to remit the import duty on raw cotton if the manufacturers would consent to give up the export duty. This they declined. An attempt was made to free the Spitalfields silk manufacture from restrictions such as the settlement of their wages by a magistrate, but 11,000 journeymen petitioned against this, and it was dropped. He was, however, successful in practically abolishing the old Navigation Act, and thus freeing English and foreign shipping. In 1824 he reduced the duty on raw and spun silk, and lowered the import and export duty on wool. Under Canning's ministry Huskisson still retained his old post at the Board of Trade. On the death of Canning, Huskisson succeeded Lord Goderich as Secretary for the Colonies (1827). A quarrel, however, shortly broke out about the appointment of a chairman to a Finance Committee, which was to be formed at the opening of the session, and Huskisson at once sent in his resignation. This produced the downfall of Lord Goderich's government. In 1828 he joined the Wellington ministry, but in a very few months a slight difference of opinion enabled the duke to insist upon his resignation. On Sept. 15, 1830, Huskisson was accidentally killed on the occasion of the opening of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway.

Annual Register; Spencer Walpole, *Hist. of England from 1815.*

Hutchinson, John (*b.* 1615, *d.* 1664), was the son of Sir Thomas Hutchinson of Owthorpe, Notts. During the Civil War he was Governor of Nottingham for the Parliament, a position of great importance as commanding the passage of the Trent. In 1645 he was elected member for Nottingham, and three years later sat in the High Court of Justice, and signed the king's death warrant. On the expulsion of the Long Parliament (1643) he retired into the country until it was reinstated by the army (Oct., 1659). He was returned to the Convention (May, 1660), but, though his life was spared, he was, as a regicide, incapacitated from public employment. In Oct., 1663, he was imprisoned, and died Sept. 11, 1664. A certificate presented to the House of Lords in his favour in Jan., 1661, affirmed that "above seven years ago, and from time to time ever since, Colonel Hutchinson hath declared his desire of the king's majesty's return to his kingdoms, and his own resolutions to assist in bringing his majesty back." It goes on to state that he had been in correspondence with conspirators for that purpose, collected arms for it, and on all occasions assisted the king's friends. These statements, made with Hutchinson's knowledge and approval, throw considerable

doubt on the account of his conduct given in his biography by his wife, noticed in the next article.

Life of Col. Hutchinson, by Mrs. Hutchinson; *Papers of the House of Lords* (Seventh Report of Hist. MSS. Commission).

Hutchinson, Lucy (*b.* 1620, *d.* 1659), was the daughter of Sir John Apsley, Lieutenant of the Tower, where she was born. In 1638 she married Colonel John Hutchinson, was his faithful attendant in all the dangers of his subsequent life, and compiled the memoirs of his life. This work, which is of the greatest importance for the period over which it extends, has been published many times.

A convenient edition of the *Life of Colonel Hutchinson* for general use is published in Bohn's Standard Library.

Hutchinson, Thomas (*b.* 1711, *d.* 1780), was born at Boston. In 1760 he was appointed Chief Justice of Massachusetts. Nine years later he was made governor of the colony. In this capacity he refused to consent to the wishes of the people, when they desired that the tea-ships should be sent back without discharging their cargo (1773), and his conduct thus led to the famous destruction of the tea by the citizens of Boston. By this time Hutchinson had lost all the confidence of those whom he governed. Dr. Franklin had exposed the letters he had written to England, advocating a restriction of colonial liberty, and the despatch of troops to Boston. Recognising his unpopularity, Hutchinson retired to England in 1774.

Bancroft, *Hist. of the United States*; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*

Hwiccas, The, were an Anglian tribe, occupying the present counties of Gloucester and Worcester. Of the date of their settlement we have no certain indication; but they were in later days merged in the great kingdom of Mercia, and seem to have preserved some traces of their old independence even so late as the close of the eighth century, when Archbishop Theodore gave them a bishop of their own.

Hyde, The Book of, gives a brief history of England from the landing of Hengest till the year 959, together with a chartulary of that monastery. It was written at the New Minster or Hyde Abbey, Winchester. Sir T. Hardy says, "it is apparently a reconstruction of earlier materials, which have been blended along with information of a comparatively recent period, certainly some time after the year 1354." Besides King Alfred's Will, and some important charters, it contains some traditions and anecdotes, which, though not perhaps very trustworthy, are certainly interesting.

The *Book of Hyde* has been translated in the *Church Historians of England*; it is edited in the Rolls Series.

Hyde, Anne (*b.* 1637, *d.* 1671), was the daughter of Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon. In 1654 she became maid of honour to the Princess of Orange, and in 1659 a secret contract of marriage took place between her and the Duke of York. On Sept. 3, 1660, she was privately married to the duke. Great efforts were made by the queen-mother to get the marriage annulled, and a plot was got up amongst the courtiers of the queen's party, by Sir Charles Berkeley and others, to induce the duke to repudiate her. These intrigues failed, and she was publicly acknowledged as Duchess of York in December, 1660. Pepys describes her as "a plain woman, and like her mother." Burnet says that she was "a very extraordinary woman, of great knowledge and great spirit." Her daughter Mary was born April 2, 1662; Anne, Feb. 6, 1664. In August, 1670, the duchess became a Catholic. She died on March 31 of the following year.

Hyde, Edward. [Clarendon.]

Hyde, Lawrence. [Rochester.]

Hyde, Sir Robert (*b.* 1595, *d.* 1665), was a first cousin of the Earl of Clarendon. In 1640 he was returned to the Long Parliament as member for Salisbury, and joined the court party; and in 1644 he was a member of the Oxford Parliament. During the Protectorate he continued to practice at the bar, and on the Restoration was made a judge of the Common Pleas. In 1663 he was promoted to the chief-justiceship of the King's Bench.

Hyderabad, The Battle of (March, 1843), was fought during the war against the Ameers of Scinde (1842—44). After the battle of Meanee, Shere Mohammed collected an army for another attempt at independence. He appeared near Hyderabad, and Sir Charles Napier, with 6,000 men, found him encamped with about 20,000 men, in a strong position behind the dry bed of the Fullallee. The British artillery opened fire on the enemy's centre, till they began to give way; the cavalry charged the left wing, while the 22nd Foot, who had advanced to within forty paces of their opponents without firing a single shot, stormed the entrenchments, and, after a severe struggle, the victory was complete.

Hyder Ali (*b. circa* 1702, *d.* 1782) was a Mohammedan soldier of humble extraction, the son of a petty revenue officer. He entered the service of the Rajah of Mysore, and about the year 1759 he succeeded in making himself master of the whole country. Out of the wrecks of the old principalities of South India, he soon founded for himself a compact Mohammedan kingdom, and became a most formidable enemy to the English. He was the terror of all his neighbours, the Mahrattas of Poonah, the Nabob of the Carnatic, and the Nizam of Hyderabad; while at the same time he was intriguing with the French at Pondicherry. This roused the suspicions of the English,

and more especially so when Nizam Ali deserted their side for that of Hyder. The two new allies invaded the Carnatic, but were driven back, whereupon Nizam Ali renewed his alliance with the English (1768). For the next ten years Hyder Ali was engaged in quietly strengthening his army and his state. At last, on the breaking out of war between the English and the French, in 1778, he was enraged at the English expedition sent by way of Mysore from Madras, against the French settlement of Mahé. This action decided Hyder Ali's mind. Bursting into the Carnatic at the head of 100,000 men, he laid the whole country waste with fire and sword (1780). He had allied himself with the French; Nizam Ali and the Mahrattas had engaged to support his arms, and the case of the English seemed very desperate for a time. But Warren Hastings, the Governor-General, was more than equal to the occasion. Negotiations secured the friendship, or at least the neutrality, of the Nizam; while Sir Eyre Coote was despatched against Hyder himself. The great leader of the war was defeated at Porto Novo (1781), and all immediate danger was over from that side. A year and a half later Hyder Ali died suddenly at Chittore (1782).

Mill, *Hist. of India*; Talboys Wheeler, *Hist. of India*; Grant Duff, *Hist. of the Mahrattas*.

[B. S.]

I

Ibea is the name of territories in East Africa on and behind the Suahili coast which the Imperial British East Africa Company (from whose initials the name is formed) was incorporated in 1888 to administer. In 1895, however, the Company surrendered its rights to the Government, who at once arranged for the construction of a railway from the coast.

Iberians, a name given to the pre-Celtic population of the British Isles, who are supposed to have been of Eastern origin, and to have followed the northern shore of the Mediterranean and the western shore of the Atlantic in their migrations. They were of short stature and swarthy countenance, and were conquered by the Celts, whose serfs they became. Traces of their language are supposed to exist in certain peculiarities of Welsh, and the Druidic religion is said to have been derived from them by the Goidelic Celts. The population in parts of South Wales, moreover, is of the Iberian type, and Mr Boyd Dawkins in his valuable *Early Man in Britain*, and in several papers written previously, has also found the Iberian characteristics in the small dark Highlander and the Black Celts to the west of the Shannon.

Rhŷs, *Celtic Britain*; Edwards, in *Social England*, I.

Ibhar, or **Iberius,** St. (*d. circa* 500), Bishop of Begerin, was probably a pupil of St Patrick, and received the name of Ibhar on becoming a Christian. He lived first in the Arran Islands in Galway Bay, afterwards on Geshille Plain, King's County, and later in the Island of Begerin in Wexford Haven. He kept a school, and soon gathered monks around him, and his memory is preserved in various local traditions. He died at Begerin.

Iceni, The, were an ancient British tribe occupying the modern counties of Suffolk, Norfolk, Cambridge, and Huntingdon. According to Professor Rhŷs, they were a very hardy and warlike race, but were induced to make an alliance with the Romans through jealousy of the Trinobantes and Cassivelaunus. It has been supposed that they had no kings, as many of their coins bear the inscription "Ecene," without that of any prince; that there were two factions dividing the tribe; and that the head of one faction, Bericus, invited the aid of Claudius, and so was instrumental in bringing about the beginning of the long connection of this island with Rome (43 A.D.). In later years, though apparently still possessed of their own kings or queens, they revolted against the Roman rule in the time of Ostorius Scapula, who was appointed in 50 A.D., and again while Suetonius was occupied in Mona.

Rhŷs, *Celtic Britain*.

Ickham, Peter of (*fl. circa* 1290), is said to have been named from a small village near Canterbury. He spent some time at the University of Paris in close literary intimacy with Philippe de Grève, the Chancellor of the University. On leaving that place he seems to have become a monk at Canterbury. He is usually regarded as the author of *Chronicon de Regibus Angliæ successive regnantibus a tempore Bruti*, a meagre and somewhat confused chronicle. He is also thought to have written in French, during his stay in Paris, the *Genealogies of the Kings of Britain and England*.

Ida, King of Bernicia (*d.* 559), is said to have been the founder of that kingdom; but this phrase is perhaps to be interpreted as meaning that he united the various petty Anglian or Saxon settlements existing in that district into one kingdom. His descent is traced from Woden, and he is spoken of as having been a wise and temperate ruler. Ida is said to have been in the prime of his life when he became king. He built himself a fortress, called by the Britons Dinguardi or Dinguoaroy, and by the Angles Bebbanburch (the modern Bamborough), which was surrounded first by a hedge and afterwards by a wall. Ida's immediate kingdom did not probably extend south of the Tees, though

his power may have been felt beyond that river, for the kingship of Deira, between the Tees and the Humber, does not appear to have been founded previous to his death. He reigned twelve years, and is said to have fallen in a battle against the Britons. The advance of heathen power under him and his sons (six of whom reigned in succession over their father's kingdom) caused a widespread apostasy from Christianity among the Picts.

Anglo-Saxon Chronicle; William of Malmesbury.

Iddesleigh, Earl of [Northcote, Sir Stafford].

Iknield (or Icknield) Way, The, was one of the great Roman roads through Britain. It started from near Yarmouth, and passing by Newmarket, Royston, and Baldock, it reached Dunstable, where it crossed Watling Street. Thence, by Tring and Wendover, to Goring, where it crossed the Thames and threw off a branch known as the Ridgeway. Thence it proceeded by Aldworth, Newbury, and Tidworth to Old Sarum. Then across Venditch Chase, Bedbury, Marden Castle, Bridport, Axminster, Honiton, Exeter, Totnes, to Land's End. The name, as in other Roman ways, is often loosely applied.

Ikon Basilike: "or, the True Portraiture of his Sacred Majesty in his Solitudes and Sufferings," was a work published some ten days after Charles I.'s death, and purported to have been written by that king in the last years of his life. It is divided into twenty-eight chapters, almost every one of which is appropriate to some remarkable incident in the closing years of its author's life. A short sketch of some event or reflection upon it is given, and to this is appended a prayer applicable to the occasion. So chapter iii., entitled, "Upon his Majestie's going to the House of Commons," commences with an explanation of the king's reasons for this step—"To call in question half a dozen men in a fair and legall way, which God knowes was all my design;" an explanation of the fact that he was attended by some gentlemen of his ordinary guard, and a declaration that he had no design of overawing the freedom of the House. After two pages of such meditation follows a short prayer of some half a page in length, calling God to witness his innocence, and praying for forgiveness on his enemies. This work had an immense sale, though to modern eyes it must seem, as Professor Masson has said, a somewhat dull performance. Fifty editions are said to have been sold within a year, and it was in vain that Parliament gave orders to seize the book. So great was its popularity that in October, 1649, Milton had to publish his *Eikonoklastes*, or Image-breaker, in answer. The authorship of the *Eikon Basilike* has generally been attributed to Dr. Gauden, afterwards Bishop of Exeter.

Eikon Basilike; Milton, *Eikonoklastes*; Mas on, *Life of Milton*, vol. iv.]

Immigration. With the exception of the immigration of the Huguenot families from France to this country after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, the population of Great Britain has never been very largely increased from external sources until within the last thirty or forty years. The great influx within that period of destitute Russian, Polish, Roumanian, and German Jews has drawn public attention to the evil, and in 1888 and 1889 parliamentary committees were appointed to consider the questions of foreign pauper immigration and the sweating system. Later a Royal Commission was instituted, and in its report, issued in 1903, it recommended that State legislation should be adopted and enforced to prevent the country from being burdened with undesirable aliens. In 1905 an Aliens Act—which came into operation in 1906—was passed to check the immigration of such aliens.

Impeachment is the name given to the judicial process by which any man, from the rank of a peer downwards, may be tried before the House of Lords at the instance of the House of Commons. In this case the Commons are the prosecutors, while the Lords combine in their own persons the functions of judge and jury. The process of conducting an impeachment is explained by Sir Erskine May as follows:—Some member of the Lower House charges the accused with high treason, or any other offence of which he may be considered guilty. If he succeeds in winning the House over to his opinion, he is empowered to go to the bar of the House of Lords and there impeach the offender. A committee is next appointed to draw up the articles of impeachment, which are then forwarded to the Lords in writing, with a reservation of power on the part of the Commons to add to the original counts if necessary. A day is then appointed for the trial, which generally takes place in Westminster Hall. Certain managers conduct the case on behalf of the Lower House, and the accused may defend himself by counsel. Witnesses are called on both sides, and the whole series of charges is gone through article by article; the accusers are bound to confine themselves to the charges contained in the articles of impeachment, and when they have finished, the offender enters on his defence, after which the prosecutors have a right of reply. All the evidence being then completed, each peer in succession delivers his verdict on the first article in the words, "Guilty [or Not Guilty], upon my honour." And so on for every count. In conclusion, the Lord Chancellor or Lord High Steward reckons up the number

of votes, and a simple majority acquits or condeunns upon each charge. Though the House of Lords may have delivered its verdict, judgment is not to be pronounced unless the House of Commons demand it by their Speaker. On the other hand, in 1679, the House of Commons protested against the Earl of Danby's right to plead the king's pardon when impeached in 1679, and by the Act of Settlement (1701) it was made part of the law of the realm "that no pardon under the Great Seal of England shall be pleadable to an impeachment by the Commons in Parliament."

The first case of an impeachment in which both Houses took part would appear to be at the time of the attack on Richard Lyons and Lord Latimer, in the Good Parliament of 1376. Of course in this case we cannot expect to have the full course of proceedings which have characterised the impeachments of much later centuries; and in fact it seems to have been the whole Parliament, and not the barons alone, who imprisoned these offenders. The impeachment of the Earl of Suffolk some ten years later (1386) seems to have been more in accordance with those of later times, for the Commons were clearly the prosecutors in this case, while it was the Lords who decided the question of his guilt. In a similar way, the judges who had in 1387 given their decision against the legality of the commissioners appointed in the preceding year, were next year impeached by the Commons and found guilty by the Lords (1388). From this time it is hardly necessary to carry on the instances of impeachment down to later times in any detail.

The practice was not discontinued for any very long period till the accession of the house of York; but from the reign of Edward V., the institution seems to have fallen into disuse, till it was revived in the reign of James I.

Under the house of Tudor the Commons were too subservient to the royal authority to make use of their old privilege on their own account, and when the sovereign wished to be rid of an obnoxious subject he found a bill of attainder a readier instrument for effecting his ends. With the revival of the spirit of liberty in the first half of the seventeenth century, impeachments once more became frequent: the two first important instances being those of Francis Bacon in 1621 and the Earl of Middlesex in 1624. Buckingham, who had been very urgent in inducing the Commons to proceed against the latter nobleman, would in his turn have been impeached a few years later had not the king dissolved Parliament for the purpose of saving him (1626). The cases of Strafford, Laud, Danby, Warren Hastings, Melville, &c., will be found alluded to under the articles devoted to these statesmen; but that of Fitz-Harris in the year 1681 deserves a passing notice as being the occasion on which the Commons affirmed their "right to impeach any peer or commoner for treason, or any other crime or misdemeanour." This claim of the Commons seems to have been practically conceded to them, but Blackstone and Lord Campbell are both agreed on the point "that a commoner cannot be impeached before the Lords *for any capital offence* but only for high misdemeanours."

Sir T. Erskine May, *Law of Parliament*; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*

[T. A. A.]

Impressment. The practice of impressment, or compelling men to serve in the navy, seems to date back to a very early period of our history. It is said to have been in full force in the reign of John, that is, from the time of almost the first English king who was possessed of a regular royal fleet. Towards the end of the same century we find Edward I. empowering William Leybourne to *impress* men, vessels and arms for the manning of his fleet. So, too, we read in the Black Book of the Admiralty that if a mariner who had been pressed for the king's naval service ran away he should undergo a year's imprisonment. The same penalty for the same offence may be traced in the legislation of later sovereigns, Richard II. (1378) Henry VI. (1439), and Elizabeth (1562—63), showing that this method of manning the royal vessels was in full force during these centuries. Towards the middle of the sixteenth century we come across what seems to be a serious attempt to make it criminal for a man to take steps for eluding impressment. In 1555 (2 & 3 Philip and Mary, xvi. 6), a very harsh law was passed against the Thames bargemen, according to which, if any watermen "shall willingly, voluntarily, and obstinately hyde themselves in the tyme of prestying into secret places and out corners," they should suffer a fortnight's imprisonment and be debarred from following their calling for another year. A more generous enactment some seven or eight years later (1562—63) attempted to restrain the arbitrary character of impressments by enjoining that "no Fisherman haunting the sea should be taken by the queen's commission to serve her Highness as a mariner on the sea," without the commissioners having first consulted two neighbouring justices of the peace. Still more indulgent was the spirit displayed in the 7 & 8 William III., according to which the Lord High Admiral is empowered to grant letters "to any landsmen desirous to apply themselves to the sea services and to serve in Merchant shipps which shall be to them a protection against being impressed for the space of two years or more." The provisions of the Act of 1555, with somewhat altered details and increased penalties, however, were re-enacted

after a lapse of one hundred and fifty years under Queen Anne (1705). Under George II., the impressment question was once more taken up and its stringency modified (1739—40). By a statute passed in this reign it was decreed that all persons above fifty-five and under eighteen years of age, should be exempt from impressment; and an attempt to encourage men to adopt a sailor's life was made at the same time by a clause which granted freedom from the above liability to all sailors who chose to demand it for two years from the time of their first going to sea. An Act of William IV.'s reign improved the position of the impressed sailor still further by limiting his term of service to five years —unless in a case of urgent necessity, when the admiral might enlarge it by six months (1835). By this time, however, the practice of impressment, which had been very largely used during the great wars in the opening years of the century, had been rapidly losing ground, and its place is now altogether supplied by voluntary enlistment.

Black Book of the Admiralty (Rolls Series); Nicolas, *History of the British Navy; A Treatise on the Sea Laws*, 1724; James, *Naval Hist.*

[T. A. A.]

Incident, The (1641), is a name given to a supposed plot to assassinate the Earls of Hamilton, Argyle, and Lanark, during the visit of Charles I. to Scotland in the summer of 1641. Although a parliamentary inquiry was instituted, the circumstances still remain shrouded in mystery; and it is scarcely possible to do more than guess at the real nature of the affair. It is said that the scheme was Montrose's, and that Charles I. himself was privy to it; but there seems to be no foundation for the statement.

J. H. Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*; S. R. Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng.*, 1603–42.

Income Tax. The history of the income tax as a recognised means of supplementing the other financial resources of the State, dates from the time of William Pitt's premiership, when (in 1799) a bill was passed imposing a graduated tax on all incomes above £60 a year. This tax continued to be levied till the end of the Continental war, with the exception of a slight break for part of the years 1802 and 1803; and by the year 1806 had reached the rate of 10 per cent. It was not renewed after 1815 till the time of Sir Robert Peel's second administration (1841), when it was levied for three years at a rate of sevenpence in the pound. Time after time it was then renewed—but always for a limited period only, till in 1853 arrangements were made for its gradual extinction in seven years. Then, however, the Russian War intervened, and instead of being reduced it was doubled. From this time it has become a regular item of the revenue; and it has now almost entirely lost its original character of a special war-tax, though an increase in its rate still remains the readiest means of meeting the expenses of a war. In 1907 differential treatment was applied to earned and unearned incomes, a lower rate being imposed on the former.

Independents. As early as 1568 a congregation of Separatists existed in London, organised upon the principle that Christians ought to be gathered together in strictly voluntary and self-governing congregations or Churches. They numbered about two hundred, all poor, and the majority women, under the pastorate of a certain Richard Fitz. The first prominent teacher of this theory, however, was Robert Browne, a clergyman and graduate of Cambridge, whose greatest activity was during the years from 1571 to 1581. Owing to the protection of his powerful relative, Burleigh, Browne escaped punishment, and finally conformed. But his tracts formed the great storehouse of argument for those who had accepted his doctrine—especially numerous in the eastern counties—and they were long known only as Brownists. Several Separatist churches were formed, especially in London, which met in secret, and were often discovered and dispersed by the authorities; many of their members were imprisoned and five executed. Of these, Henry Barrowe, a barrister of Gray's Inn, executed in 1593 for the publication of seditious books — *i.e.* pamphlets against the Established Church—was the most important, and for some time "Barrowist" was used as a synonym of Brownist. The repressive measures of the government caused the members of a Brownist church, which had been formed in London about 1592, to flee to Holland, and they finally settled at Amsterdam. Another and more successful church was that of Nottinghamshire men at Leyden under John Robinson, aud this Leyden church is the true "parent of Independency alike in England and America."

The term "Independent" is supposed to have originated in the incidental use of the term in an *apology* addressed in Latin and English to the British and Continental universities about the year 1604. But the early maintainers of this form of church government were careful to repudiate certain inferences which might be drawn from the use of the word. One of them wrote: "We do profess dependence upon magistrates for civil government and protection; dependence upon Christ and his word for the sovereign government and rule of our administrations; dependence upon the counsel of other churches and synods when our own variance or ignorance may stand in need of such help."

In 1620 the first settlement was made in New England by Independents coming from Holland in the *Mayflower*; the New World

became the refuge of all who were attacked by the ecclesiastical authorities at home, and Independency became practically the established religion in the New England colonies. The example of New England was of the greatest importance when, with the meeting of the Long Parliament, the Independents at last obtained freedom of speech in England. It is not necessary here to show how the growth of Independency accompanied the victories of the New Model; and how the attempt to substitute the complete Presbyterian system for that of Episcopacy was defeated. Few of the early Independents advocated entire voluntaryism, and many accepted benefices and received tithes under the rule of Cromwell. But in such cases, while the minister preached to all the parishioners in the parish church, there was often an attempt to create, side by side with the parochial organisation, a special Independent Church. Difficulties arose when the Independent ministers refused to administer the sacrament to persons outside this inner church, and one at least of the justices on assize advised aggrieved parishioners to withhold tithes. In 1658 a synod of Independent Churches was held in London which drew up the *Savoy Declaration*, following in doctrine the Westminster Confession, but adding their peculiar theory of Church government. The Act of Uniformity drove Independents with Presbyterians out of the National Church, and the rigid penal code of Charles II. prevented their meeting in worship. Later in the reign of Charles II., and under James II., they again began to form churches, and under William III. obtained toleration. But their numbers were much diminished, and it was not till the evangelical movement of the latter half of the eighteenth century that they began to recover strength. As meanwhile the English Presbyterians had lost ground, and had largely become Unitarian, they became in the nineteenth century one of the most important of the Nonconformist bodies. During the eighteenth century they had long received a *regium donum* of £1,000 a year for the widows of ministers; but in the nineteenth the wrongfulness of endowment became one of their main tenets. They are now usually known as Congregationalists, and form a "Congregational Union of England and Wales," with subordinate "County Unions."

The best accounts of the history of Independency are—from the side of the Church of England, that of Curteis, in *Dissent in its Relation to the Church of England*; and from the Congregationalist side that of Fairburn, in his article on *Independents* in the *Encyclopedæa Britannica*; see also Stoughton, *Religion in England*; Gardiner, *Hist. Eng.*; Masson, *Life and Times of Milton*; Skeat, *History of Free Churches*.

India. ADMINISTRATION. The government of India in this country since the Act of 1858 has been vested in the secretary of state, aided by a council of not less than ten, who are usually selected from men who have served with distinction in various departments of government in that country. This is the agency through which India becomes answerable to Parliament, to the country, and to the king. In India itself the supreme authority is vested in the governor-general or viceroy in council (subject to the control of the secretary of state in council in England, and he in his turn is aided by a governor-general's council, corresponding to the cabinet of a constitutional country, and by a legislative council, consisting of the governor-general's council, reinforced by certain provincial delegates and nominated members of the non-official native and European communities. Besides these members the India Councils Bill of 1909 also provides that there shall be elected members to complete the legislative council. For administrative purposes, India is divided into nine provinces: Madras and Bombay (also styled Presidencies) being ruled by governors; Bengal, Eastern Bengal and Assam, the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, the Punjaub, and Burma are ruled by lieutenant-governors; the Central Provinces and the North-Western Frontier Province are ruled by chief commissioners. The governors of Madras and Bombay are appointed by the crown; the lieutenant-governors are appointed by the governor-general, with the approval of the crown; the chief commissioners by the governor-general in council. The India Councils Act (1909) provides for the enlargement of the provincial legislative councils and the election of a certain proportion of their members by popular vote; the Act also authorises the councils to discuss annual financial statements and matters of general public interest, and gives power to ask questions.

Theoretically, the governor-general is supreme over every part of India, but practically his authority is not everywhere exercised alike. Each province is usually broken into divisions under commissioners; these divisions are again separated into districts which form the units of administration. At the head of each district is one officer—usually styled collector or deputy-commissioner — whose principal duties are executive, magisterial and fiscal.

All over India are scattered native states of varying extent and independence. Many of these native principalities are attached to the various presidencies and provinces; others are grouped together under the superintendence of a political agent. Of this class are the Rajputana and Central Indian agencies; and others, such as Hyderabad or the Nizam's territories, Mysore, and Travancore, are quasi-independent. To define, however, the relations of the Indian native states to the

British crown would be a lengthy and complicated task, and would practically involve a review of the various treaty relations between those native principalities, numbering over 460, and the paramount power.

History. The history of the British connection with India dates from the days when Vasco da Gama made his memorable voyage round the Cape, and sighted the shores of Hindostan, on May 17, 1498. Indian products commenced to find their way to Europe first through the hands of the Portuguese, and then through the Venetians, who carried on their Eastern trade by way of Egypt and the Red Sea, thus anticipating the important route of modern times. But it was nearly a century after Da Gama's voyage that our first trading voyages were made, and it was in the last year of the sixteenth century that these commercial enterprises were organised on a recognised basis. On Sept. 22, 1599, the merchants of London held a meeting, at which it was resolved to form an association for the purpose of trading with India, and on Dec. 31 of the following year, a charter was granted to "the Governor and Company of the Merchants trading unto the East Indies," entitling them to exclusive trade with the countries between the Cape of Good Hope and the Straits of Magellan. The first vessels despatched returned home with cargoes of cinnamon, cloves, and pepper, and realised 95 per cent. profit on the capital invested. It was soon evident that the English would have to defend themselves against the jealousy of the Portuguese and Dutch, and a new charter was granted, with stringent provisions against "interlopers." In 1612 Captain Best, in command of a small squadron, was attacked in the roadstead of Surat by a vastly superior Portuguese fleet, but defended himself with such gallantry and effect that he was not only able to land all his goods at the Surat factory, but obtained a confirmation of a commercial treaty between the Mogul Emperor and the British.

During the following years subordinate agencies were started at Gogra, Ahmedabad, Cambay, and Ajmere, and at various places in the Indian archipelago. This led to numerous broils with the Portuguese and Dutch, and our relations with the latter were greatly embittered by the cruel torture and execution of Captain Towerson and about twenty sailors, at Amboyna, in 1623. For this outrage the Dutch had to pay £3,615 as compensation; but from that date until the great naval wars, which commenced in 1793, they became supreme in those parts, and practically monopolised the trade of the Indian archipelago. In 1634 the Company obtained a *firman* from the Great Mogul for permission to trade in Bengal, and the same year saw the expulsion of the Portuguese from the province. Five years later Fort St. George, or Madras, was founded by Francis Day; and in 1661 Bombay was ceded to the British crown as part of the dowry of Catherine of Braganza, and was subsequently transferred by Charles II. to the East India Company. The separation of Bengal from Madras, and the appointment of Mr. Hodges as "agent and governor" of the Company's affairs, with a corporal's guard, was the first beginning out of which arose the appointment of Sir John Child as the first titular governor-general of India, with full power to make war or peace. A few years later the famous resolution was passed by the company which was destined to turn their clerks and factors throughout India into conquerors and pro-consuls, and which ran thus: "The increase of our revenue is the subject of our care, as much as our trade; 'tis that must maintain our force when twenty acccidents may interrupt our trade; 'tis that must make us a nation in India. Without that, we are but a great number of interlopers, united by his Majesty's royal charter, fit only to trade where nobody of power thinks it their interest to prevent us. And upon this account it is that the wise Dutch, in all their general advices that we have seen, write ten paragraphs concerning their government, their civil and military policy, warfare, and the increase of their revenue, for one paragraph they write concerning trade."

Our earliest territorial possession in India properly so-called was Madras, which, as mentioned above, was founded by Day and purchased from the Rajah of Chandragiri, an annual rent of about £500 being duly paid to the representatives of the Mogul Empire. On the death of Aurungzebe, in 1707, Southern India broke up into a number of minor states. In 1744, war broke out between the French and English, Dupleix being at that time Governor of Pondicherry, and Clive a young writer at Madras; and two years later Madras surrendered to a French squadron, under La Bourdonnais. Indecisive hostilities followed, but the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, restored Madras to the English. Their first successes had, however, inspired Dupleix with the ambition of founding a French empire in India, under the shadow of the Mohammedan powers. At Hyderabad and Arcot the successions were in dispute, and the English and French favoured the claims of rival candidates to the throne of Arcot. A war ensued, the chief incident of which was the capture and subsequent defence of Arcot in 1751 by Clive. For some years it continued, and culminated in 1760 in a final struggle, which was crowned by the decisive victory obtained by Colonel (afterwards Sir Eyre) Coote at Wandewash over the French. Pondicherry and Ginjee subsequently capitulated, and the French were expelled from Hindostan.

To turn to the course of events in Bengal, in 1740 Ali Vardi Khan, a usurper, but the

last of the great Nawabs of Bengal, ruled over Bengal, and in his days the Mahratta horsemen began to ravage up to the walls of Calcutta. The "Mahratta ditch," constructed to keep them off, still bears the old name. Ali Vardi Khan's grandson, Surajah Dowlah, a youth of ferocious temper, marched on Calcutta with a large army in pursuit of an escaped kinsman who had aggrieved him, and thrust the remnant of the English who failed to fly at his approach into the "Black Hole," or military prison of Fort William. Out of 146 who were imprisoned therein during that fatal night in June, only twenty-three survived. Clive and Admiral Watson promptly sailed from Madras to the Ganges, and the speedy recovery of Calcutta with but little fighting induced the Nawab to conclude a peace advantageous to the Company. But the outbreak of hostilities between the English and French found Surajah Dowlah ranged on the side of the latter. With a force far inferior to that of his adversary, Clive marched out to the grove of Plassey, and there by dint of a daring attack on an angle of the camp, routed the Nawab's host (1757). Meer Jaffier, Clive's nominee, was placed on the viceregal throne at Moorshedabad, and enormous sums, aggregating many millions, were exacted as the price of this honour. The same year the Nawab made a grant to the Company of the landholders' rights over the district of the Twenty-four Pergunnahs, an extensive tract around Calcutta amounting to 882 square miles.

In 1758 Clive was appointed the first governor of all the Company's settlements in Bengal, and defeated the Shahzada, or imperial prince, who with the aid of the Nawab Vizier of Oude, was marching on the lower provinces of Bengal. He next despatched a force under Colonel Forde to Madras, and finally crushed French influence throughout the Nizam's territories. The return of Clive to England was followed by the dethronement of Meer Jaffier, and the substitution of Meer Cossim, his son-in-law, in his place. The new ruler, however, began to show signs of wishing to become independent, and having retired to Monghyr, proceeded to organise his army after the European fashion, and to ally himself with the Vizier of Oude. The trade privileges arrogated to themselves by the Company's servants formed a substantial grievance, and when the majority of the council at Calcutta (in spite of the wish of Mr. Vansittart, the governor, and Warren Hastings, a junior member of the council, to make some concession) refused to listen to the Nawab, the officers of the latter fired upon an English boat, and war arose. A massacre of Englishmen and Sepoys took place at Patna; and though checked by two defeats by Major Adams, the Vizier of Oude and Shah Allum, who had succeeded as emperor, threatened Patna. It was at this juncture that the first Sepoy mutiny, quelled eventually by Major Munro, broke out in the English camp. The battle of Buxar, won by the same officer in 1764, brought the ruler of Oude and the Mogul emperor to the feet of the British.

The following year Clive (now Baron Clive of Plassey, and for the second time Governor of Bengal) proceeded to Allahabad, and restored Oude to the Nawab Vizier on payment of half a million sterling. The dewannee, or fiscal administration of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa, and the territorial jurisdiction of the Northern Circars were granted to the Company, a puppet Nawab was maintained by us on an allowance at Moorshedabad, and a tribute paid to the emperor. Thus the English received the revenue and maintained the army, and the criminal jurisdiction was vested in the Nawab. A great reform was carried out by Clive in the reorganisation of the Company's service, their paltry salaries having led to much bribery and venality. Private trade and the acceptance of presents were prohibited for the future, while salaries were increased out of the salt monopoly.

Lord Clive left India for the last time in 1767. Five years later Warren Hastings assumed the governorship, the interval having been marked by a disastrous famine (1770), which is believed to have carried off one-third of the inhabitants. Warren Hastings abolished the dual system of government, removed the exchequer from Moorshedabad to Calcutta, and appointed English collectors to see to the collection of the revenues and the administration of justice. He also created the nucleus of a police. He was, however, much thwarted in his reforms by the wars forced on him by native princes, by the incessant pressure from home for money, and the constant opposition of his colleague in council, Philip Francis. Hastings reduced the large allowance paid to the Nawab; he resold to the Vizier of Oude the provinces of Allahabad and Kora, formerly assigned by Clive to the Emperor Shah Allum, but forfeited, as Hastings contended, by the seizure of the emperor by the Mahrattas, and withheld the tribute of £300,000 from the puppet emperor. British troops were also lent to the Vizier of Oude to enable him to put down the Rohilla Afghans, who had settled down in his dominions since Ahmed Shah's invasion (1761), and borne themselves with much arrogance and oppression. Warren Hastings also improved the financial position of the Company by the so-called plunder of Cheyte Singh and the Begum of Oude, transactions which, coupled with other alleged acts of oppression, formed the ground of the celebrated impeachment against him in the House of Lords, proceedings which dragged on their length for seven years, and eventually terminated in a verdict of not guilty. Warren Hastings was practically ruined by the cost of the defence, and

left dependent on the charity of the Court of Directors.

The Bombay government, being desirous of seeing a nominee of its own on the throne of Poonah, concluded in 1775 the Treaty of Surat, by which Ragunath Rao agreed to cede Salsette and Bassein in consideration of being recognised as the sovereign. Hastings disapproved of the treaty, but on the outbreak of the war (known as the first Mahratta War) despatched energetic officers across the peninsula, who conquered Guzerat, and captured the rock fortress of Gwalior. The reverse sustained by the Bombay force, however, equalised matters, and the Treaty of Salbai practically restored the *status quo*. Meantime Hyder Ali of Mysore, whose hostility had been roused, fell upon the British possessions in the Carnatic, and his cavalry ravaged the country up to Madras. The aged Sir Eyre Coote, the victor of Wandewash, with the aid of Colonel Pearse, hastened to the scene, but the contest was a tough one, and the peace concluded with Tippoo, Hyder's son and successor, was based on a mutual restitution of all conquests.

In 1786 Hastings was succeeded by Lord Cornwallis as Governor-General. His administration was signalised by two events—the introduction of the Permanent Settlement into Bengal, and the second Mysore War. The permanent settlement of the land revenue of Bengal appears to have recommended itself to the Court of Directors at home mainly from a desire to place their finances on a more assured basis. This assessment began in 1789 and terminated in 1791, and though at first intended to be decennial, was made permanent in 1793, a step which practically inflicted enormous loss on the Indian government by fixing *in perpetuum* at a low standard that tax which, according to all economic principles, should be proportioned to the increasing value of the land.

The second Mysore War of 1790—92 was undertaken by Lord Cornwallis in person at the head of the British army, the Nizam of the Deccan and the Mahratta confederacy being allied to the British. It resulted in the partition of half of Tippoo's dominions among the allies, and the payment of three millions sterling as indemnity.

Lord Mornington, better known as the Marquis of Wellesley, laid down during his rule the guiding principle that the English must be the one paramount power in India, and the gradual development of this policy culminated in the proclamation of Queen Victoria as Empress of India on the first of January, 1877. The presence of French battalions in the native states, and French intriguers in the islands of Mauritius and Bourbon, as well as in Hindostan itself, suggested to Lord Wellesley the idea of frustrating all possibility of a French invasion of India by crushing their hopes there. The Mogul empire was quite broken up, so the task of establishing our supremacy in northern India was at first easy. By the Treaty of Lucknow a large tract of territory was ceded to us by the Nawab Vizier of Oude, in lieu of a subsidy for British troops, and we thus became territorial rulers as far as the heart of the North-West Provinces. Beyond was the confederacy of the Mahrattas, with the puppet emperor in their hands, and farther to the south the Nizam of Hyderabad, and the defeated, but not subdued, Tippoo Sultan of Mysore. The Nizam was easily dealt with; his French battalion at Hyderabad was disbanded, and the Nizam bound by treaty not to take any European into his service without the consent of the English government, a clause of universal application nowadays in the treaties with native states. Tippoo's turn came next, and on his refusal to abandon his intrigues, and throw in his lot loyally with the British, war was declared. The decisive event was the capture of Tippoo's stronghold, Seringapatam, where Tippoo died bravely fighting in the breach (May 4, 1799). The victory created a profound impression on the natives, and earned General Harris a peerage, and Wellesley a marquisate. Tippoo's dominions were partially partitioned among the Nizams, the Mahrattas, and the English, and the central portion (Mysore) erected into a separate state, under a descendant of the Hindoo Rajahs, whom Hyder Ali had dethroned. The sons of Tippoo were treated with high consideration.

The Mahrattas, however, still held aloof, and Wellesley addressed himself to the task of bringing them into the net of his subsidiary system. The Peishwa of Poonah, the recognised head of the confederacy, after being defeated by Holkar, was induced to sign a treaty with the British, greatly extending our influence in the Bombay Presidency. This led to the second Mahratta War (1802—4), one of the most noteworthy of our campaigns in the East. Sir Arthur Wellesley (afterwards Duke of Wellington) and General (afterwards Lord) Lake led the armies, and the former in the Deccan soon won the battles of Assaye and Argaum, and captured Ahmednugger. Lord Lake in Hindostan fought with equal courage and success, winning the battles of Aligurh and Laswaree, and capturing Delhi and Agra. Scindiah's French troops were dispersed, and he himself ceded all territory north of the Jumna to the British, while the old emperor, Shah Allum, came once more under our protection. Orissa fell under our rule, and Berar was handed over to the Nizam. The latter years of Lord Wellesley's rule were marked by reverses, including the repulse of Lake before Bhurtpore; but, nevertheless, the result of the administration was to add the North-West Provinces to our dominions, to reduce the Peishwa, and constitute the Madras Presidency pretty much as it is at present.

Lord Wellesley's successor was Lord Cornwallis, now an old man, whose policy during his second and short tenure of office was to practise economy and relieve the financial pressure caused by prolonged military operations. The same policy was followed by Sir G. Barlow (1805), but on Lord Minto's arrival (1807) more resolute counsels prevailed, and though enjoined to abstain from drawing the sword, he managed to consolidate Wellesley's conquests. The islands of Mauritius and Java were occupied by us, and friendly missions were despatched to the Punjaub, Afghanistan, and Persia. Lord Moira, afterwards Marquis Hastings, was in power for nine years (1814—23), during which period two important wars were waged against the Goorkha mountaineers, or inhabitants of Nepaul, and against the Pindarries and Mahrattas. The first campaign against the former, waged in an unhealthy and difficult country, was unsuccessful; but in the cold weather of 1814 General Ochterlony compelled the Nepaulese to sue for peace, and in the following year, after a brilliant march from Patna, forcibly imposed his terms on them within a few miles of Khatmandoo, the capital.

In the meantime Central India was being overrun by the Pindarries, a mixed nationality of plundering bands, which appeared to have sprung out of the *débris* of the Mogul empire, and which were supported by the sympathy of the Mahratta chiefs. Lord Hastings collected an enormous army, numbering 120,000 men, and effectually crushed them (1817), but this success was coincident with the rising of the three great Mahratta powers at Poonah, Nagpore, and Indore. Elphinstone, our Resident at the court of the Peishwa, having withdrawn to Kirkee, was attacked by that ruler, but managed to repulse the onslaught. Holkar's army was defeated the following month at the battle of Mehidpore, and the fugitives having been followed up and dispersed, a pacification was established, in which Sir John Malcolm was one of the chief actors. The territory of the Peishwa was annexed to the Bombay Presidency, and he himself pensioned.

Lord Amherst's administration from 1823 to 1828 was signalised by the first Burmese War; operations rendered necessary by the aggressions of the King of Ava. The Burmese were in no way formidable in themselves, but the unhealthy character of the country lost us about 20,000 lives and £14,000,000 during the two years of hostilities. The Treaty of Yandaboo ceded the provinces of Aracan and Tenasserim to the British, the king retaining the valley of the Irrawaddy. Another important event was the capture of Bhurtpore, which had baffled the army of Lord Lake in 1805, and which, protected by its impenetrable massive mud walls, was regarded as impregnable.

The history of the British as benevolent administrators ruling with a single eye to the good of the natives may be said to have begun with Lord William Bentinck. He restored equilibrium to the budget, crippled by the Burmese War, by various important financial measures, and abolished *suttee*, or widow-burning, and the *thugs*, or hereditary assassins, two institutions which had shockingly corrupted the social system of the Hindoos. It is scarcely surprising to any student of Indian history to find that even such detestable practices as these found supporters among Europeans as well as natives. In 1833 the East India Company's charter was renewed for twenty years, but on condition the Company should abandon its trade and permit Europeans to settle in the country. [East India Company.] Other events of Lord William Bentinck's administration were the appointment of a commission to codify the law, the placing of the native state of Mysore under British rule (1830), and the annexation of Coorg, with the full consent of the inhabitants.

After a brief interregnum, during which Sir Charles (afterwards Lord) Metcalfe, the senior member of council, held the viceroyalty, Lord Auckland (1836—42) began his rule, which is conspicuous for the memorable Afghan War, the outcome of an ill-advised resolution on the part of the British to place on the Afghan throne Shah Soojah as one who would prove a subservient tool in the repression of French and Russian influence in Asia. For fuller details of all these events, which led to the disastrous retreat from Cabul see Afghan Wars (1). The news reached Calcutta just before Lord Ellenborough's accession, and the retributive expedition of Pollock took place the same year. The following year saw the conquest of the Ameers of Scinde by Sir Charles Napier, whose defeat of 20,000 Beloochees with only 3,000 British at Meanee, is one of the most brilliant feats in Anglo-Indian history. In 1844 Lord Ellenborough was recalled and succeeded by Sir Henry (afterwards Lord) Hardinge, whose arrival was followed, at no long interval, by the Sikh War, a contingency which had been foreseen by most ever since the death of Runjeet Singh, the capable and energetic founder of the Sikh kingdom. It was in 1845 that Sir Hugh Gough advanced to confront the Sikh army, numbering 60,000 men, with 150 guns. The battles of Moodkee, Ferozeshar, Aliwal, and Sobraon followed in quick succession, and the country was at the feet of the British. Dhuleep Singh, the infant son of Runjeet, was recognised as Rajah; a British Resident, supported by a British force, was sent to the Punjaub.

Probably, however, the most important results ensued from the administration of Lord Dalhousie (1848—56). Though sincerely desirous of peace, and of advancing the moral and material condition of the country, Dal-

housie found himself compelled to fight two wars and to annex extensive territory in the Punjaub, Burmah, as well as Nagpore, Oude, and other minor states. At the same time he founded the Public Works Department with a view to creating the network of roads and canals now covering India. He opened the Ganges Canal, the largest irrigation work in India, and turned the sod of the first railway. He promoted steam communication with England via the Red Sea, and introduced cheap postage and the electric telegraph. The second Sikh War (1848—49) was marked by the disaster of Chilianwallah, but before reinforcements from England arrived, Mooltan fell; and Lord Gough well nigh destroyed the Sikh army at the battle of Gujerat. The Punjaub became a British province, and thanks mainly to the successful labours of the two Lawrences and Colonel (afterwards Lord) Napier, became so contented and prosperous that the Indian Mutiny failed to turn its populace into rebels. The second Burmese War in 1852 arose out of the ill treatment of some merchants at Rangoon, and resulted in the annexation of the valley of the Irrawaddy, under the name of the province of Pegu, since which time British Burmah has made the most astonishing strides in material development. For full statistics we must refer our readers to the Provincial Administration Reports, which bear witness to a more rapid national progress than any other part of India can boast of. Lord Dalhousie annexed several native states, including Nagpore and Sattara, on the principle that the governors exist only for the good of the governed, and that persistent misrule cannot justify the paramount power in assenting to the continuance of the same. Oude was annexed after repeated warnings issued to the Nawabs, whose degraded rule had caused great suffering to the inhabitants. It was his last action of importance, for in March, 1856, the marquis returned home and was succeeded by Lord Canning.

The leading events of the Indian Mutiny which followed, will be found under the article so headed. The details have been excellently told by Sir John Kaye, while the share borne by Lord Lawrence is narrated in Mr. Bosworth Smith's *Life* of him. The causes of this great convulsion are still obscure, but may be probably traced to the excitable feelings of a fanatical though subject race alarmed by the sight of important annexations, such as those which have inevitably accompanied the development of the British power. The outbreak at Meerut occurred on May 10, 1857, and the mutinous Sepoys hastened to Delhi, which thus became the centre and rallying point of the rebellion. Under Lawrence's strong hand the Punjaub was enabled not only to hold its own, but also to send relays of troops to Delhi, which, though held by 30,000 mutineers, was closely invested, and eventually captured by our troops numbering only one-fourth of their opponents. At Cawnpore the Europeans shut themselves up in a wretched entrenchment, whence they emerged, after nineteen days' siege, only to fall victims to the abominable treachery and cruelty of the infamous Nana Sahib. In Lucknow, the third town round which the events of the Mutiny group themselves, Sir H. Lawrence fortified and provisioned the Residency, and with a weak British regiment kept off the besieging rebels till relieved first by Havelock, and finally by Sir Colin Campbell, afterwards Lord Clyde. The people of Oude and Rohilkhund, who had risen *en masse*, were next attacked and vanquished by Colin Campbell, while in Central India Sir Hugh Rose (afterwards Lord Strathnairn) conducted an equally successful campaign against the Ranee, or Princess, of Jhansi, and Tantia Topee [INDIAN MUTINY.]

This mutiny led to the extinction of the East India Company, for it was felt that the administration of India was now a national matter [EAST INDIA COMPANY]; and an Act was passed, to give effect to the assumption of the government by the crown (1858). The royal proclamation announcing this event took place at a grand durbar held by Lord Canning on Nov. 1, 1858, and on July 8 following peace was proclaimed. The cost of suppressing the Mutiny had, however, been so serious that Mr. James Wilson, a distinguished financier, was sent out to Calcutta to equalise the budget. He re-organised the customs, imposed an income-tax and licence duty, and created a state paper currency; and, though he died before completing his labours, what he accomplished bore excellent fruit.

Lord Elgin's short rule (1862—63) was succeeded by that of Sir John Lawrence, who saw the Bhotan War and the ensuing annexation of the Duars, and the lamentable Orissa Famine of 1866. The same year was marked by a serious commercial crisis, which injured the rising tea industry in Bengal, and caused widespread ruin in Bombay. Sir John Lawrence returned in 1869, having passed through every grade of Indian service, from an assistant magistrate to the viceroyalty, and, on retirement, was fitly rewarded with a peerage.

Lord Mayo's too brief tenure of office was occupied with several useful measures, among which the creation of an agricultural department, and of a system of provincial finance, stand out conspicuously. He led the way to the reform of the salt duties, and developed the material resources of the country by roads, railways, and canals. His death at the hand of an assassin in the Andaman Islands (1872) was a cruel interruption to a career of usefulness. Lord Northbrook, his successor (1872—76), had to contend with a famine in Lower Bengal, which was successfully grappled with by an organisation of state relief. In

the cold season of 1875–76 the Prince of Wales (afterwards Edward VII.) made a tour through the country, and was greeted with an outburst of loyalty. It was during the viceroyalty of Lord Lytton (1876–80) that the proclamation of the Queen as Empress of India (Jan. 1, 1877) gave opportunity for a durbar of unusual pomp, held on the ridge above Delhi. This scene of rejoicing was followed by a disastrous famine, which prevailed throughout the Deccan and other parts of the Madras and Bombay Presidencies, and which, despite the best efforts of the government, resulted in a loss of over five million lives.

The Afghan War of 1878 led to the temporary occupation of Cabul and Candahar by the English [AFGHAN WARS (2)]. The appointment of the Marquis of Ripon in the place of Lord Lytton in 1880, was followed by the evacuation of Candahar and other Afghan positions, though it has been clearly proved that the former measure had been fully determined on by Lord Lytton previous to his resignation. Lord Ripon's measures included a large extension of Lord Mayo's system of provincialising the finances, which has been attended with the happiest results; a scheme for the enlargement of native self-government, varied according to the requirements of the different provinces; and a law, known as the Ilbert Act, which has removed one of the disabilities under which native civilians laboured in regard to their powers of trying Europeans. Regarding this Act, controversy has been too fierce to enable us to discuss it; it must be left to the judgment of posterity.

In 1884 a commission was appointed, and the north-western frontier of Afghanistan delimited. An outbreak in Chitral in 1895 necessitated a large military expedition to relieve the garrison, and two years later a large number of troops was despatched to quell the rising of the tribes along the whole border from Chitral to Baluchistan. A plague broke out in 1896, and has been more or less severe ever since. In 1897 an earthquake devastated Assam, and in the same year a famine affected an area of about 570,000 square miles with a population of 130,000,000. In 1900 occurred another famine, affecting tracts containing a population of 85 millions; and at one time over six millions were in receipt of relief. A number of representative Indian princes and chiefs, with a large contingent of native troops, came to England in 1902 to attend the coronation of King Edward. A great imperial durbar was held on Jan. 1, 1903, to celebrate the coronation of the first British Emperor of India, and a grand review of all the troops at Delhi, British and native, brought the series of durbar pageants to a close on Jan. 8.

In 1905 a severe earthquake occurred in Northern India, causing great loss of life and damage to property. During the winter of 1905–6 the Prince and Princess of Wales made an extensive tour through India. By the partition of Bengal—effected in 1905, reconstituting the provinces of Bengal and Assam—the Bengali-speaking population found themselves divided into two provinces under separate governments. Considerable opposition to this division was manifested by the Bengali, and meetings were held in favour of boycotting British goods. In 1908 the unrest assumed such a violent character that the laws relating to the Press and to explosives were very considerably strengthened, and special prosecutions under these laws were carried out in 1909.

The chief works to which readers may be referred for a detailed knowledge of Indian history are the *Imperial Gazetteer of India* (Hunter), to which we are mainly indebted for the facts above narrated; Sir G. Birdwood, *Report on Old Records in the India Office*; Mill, *History of British India*, continued by Wilson; Low, *History of the Indian Navy*; Orme, *Indostan*; Malleson, *History of the French in India*; Aitchison, *Treaties and Engagements*; Arnold, *Administration of Lord Dalhousie*; Kaye, *Sepoy War*, continued by Colonel Malleson; and Bosworth Smith, *Life of Lord Lawrence*.

[C. E. B.]

GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF INDIA.

Warren Hastings	1774
Sir John Macpherson	1785
Marquis Cornwallis	1786
Sir John Shore	1793
Sir Alured Clarke	1798
Marquis Wellesley	1798
Marquis Cornwallis	1805
Sir George Barlow	1805
Earl of Minto	1807
Marquis of Hastings	1813
Mr. Adam	Jan. 1—Aug. 1, 1823
Lord Amherst	1823
Lord William Bentinck	1828
Sir Charles Metcalfe	1835
Earl of Auckland	1836
Earl of Ellenborough	1842
Viscount Hardinge	1845
Marquis of Dalhousie	1848
Earl of Canning	1856
Earl of Elgin	1862
Sir John Lawrence	1864
Earl of Mayo	1869
Lord Northbrook	1872
Earl Lytton	1876
Marquis of Ripon	1880
Earl of Dufferin	1884
Marquis of Lansdowne	1888
Earl of Elgin	1894
Lord Curzon	1899
Earl of Minto	1905

Indian Mutiny, THE (1857–58). The causes of the Indian Mutiny are difficult to estimate, but it may be safely asserted that it was to a large extent due to the very rapid progress which European civilisation had of late years been making in Hindostan, a civilisation which threatened to swallow or assimilate all the native institutions of the country. Under Lord Dalhousie (1848–56) the Punjaub and Oude had been annexed, and it might well seem to an Indian mind that the English were bent on entirely subduing

the whole of Hindostan, regardless of the dictates of faith or justice. About the same time a rumour was in circulation which limited the term of English rule to one hundred years from the date of the battle of Plassey (1757). The Sepoy troops had learnt to know their own worth, and having fought battles and won victories under English generalship, conceived that their success was solely due to their own valour, and fancied that they held the destiny of India in their own hands. Added to this, in the deposed King of Delhi, Bahadur Shah, there was an ever-festering canker of rebellion and centre of disaffection which was just now rendered more dangerous than ever by Lord Dalhousie's threat of removing the Mogul's family from its old seat at Delhi. Finally, to set in flame all the smouldering ashes of discontent, there came the story that the cartridges of the new Enfield rifles which were just then being introduced among the native troops were greased with the fat of beef or pork, and were thus rendered unclean for Mohammedan and Hindoo alike. The rebellion broke out with the incendiary fires at Barrackpore in January, 1857. The Sepoys here conceived that the new cartridges were being distributed with the sole object of destroying their caste, and on Feb. 25 they broke into open mutiny. Though they were restrained from violence and disbanded, these men carried the evil report through Oude and Bundelkhund, inflaming the minds of the people. On May 16 a proclamation was issued by Lord Canning, denying these reports and warning the people against them. On May 10 the mutiny broke out at Meerut, being preceded by incendiary fires. The 11th and 20th Regiments of Native Infantry and the 3rd Cavalry rose, massacred their officers, and marched off to Delhi. The people of that city rose at once and butchered the Europeans. The 38th, 54th, and 74th caught the infection, shot their officers, and marching into the city, saluted the king. Meanwhile Nana Sahib was proceeding through Oude and the North-West Provinces fanning the flame. In Oude the mistakes of Mr. Jackson had made the government unpopular, and Sir Henry Lawrence, the new commissioner, was unable to remove the impression. In May, risings took place at Ferozepore, at Lahore, and Peshawur, but were put down with severity by Sir John Lawrence and his subordinates, who armed the Sikhs, and with their help reduced the Sepoys. The Punjaub thus remained faithful, and Lawrence was able to send a strong body of Sikhs to aid in the siege of Delhi. On the 17th the commander-in-chief prepared to advance on Delhi, and on June 10, Sir Henry Barnard, his successor, advanced to within four miles of Delhi, where he was joined by Brigadier Archdale Wilson from Meerut. Meanwhile, all through Oude, the Doab, and Bundelkhund, the rebellion broke out accompanied by massacres. In Rajpootana and Malwa the native princes for the most part remained faithful, but Scindiah's and Holkar's body-guards mutinied, and the widowed Ranee of Jhansi headed an outbreak in her annexed principality. At Cawnpore the mutiny broke out, under Nana Sahib, June 5, and ended in a ghastly massacre. At Lucknow the foresight of Sir Henry Lawrence enabled the English garrison to hold out against the rebels till relieved by Outram. But the great point of anxiety was Delhi, where all the mutinied Sepoy regiments were assembling in a final effort to restore the ancient dynasty of the Moguls. On June 8 Sir Henry Barnard invested Delhi, and on June 13 an unsuccessful attempt was made to capture the city by blowing the gates open. The besiegers were exposed to rear attacks from mutinied regiments who kept arriving. The energy of Lawrence, however, now made itself felt; new Sikh levies came pouring in, bringing supplies, stores, money, and all necessaries. On July 17, owing to the death of Sir H. Barnard, Archdale Wilson took the command; on Sept. 6 a heavy siege-train arrived, and on the 20th, after a severe struggle, Delhi was won [DELHI, SIEGE OF, 1857]. Meanwhile Havelock had marched into Cawnpore (July 17), after defeating the Nana, but only to find the prisoners massacred as at Jhansi. Leaving Neill to punish the rebels, he endeavoured to advance to the relief of Lucknow, but was compelled to retire, Aug. 13. On Sept. 16, however, a grand army marched on Lucknow, and on the 24th Havelock and Outram entered the besieged Residency with their reinforcements. On Sept. 10 Brigadier Greathed, by a forced march, surprised the mutinous troops from Rajpootana and Agra and routed them, scattering them in a disorderly flight. Similar successes were obtained in Malwa, Berar, and elsewhere, and these were crowned in November by the final relief of Lucknow, achieved by Sir Colin Campbell (Nov., 1857), who had arrived in India as commander-in-chief in August. Meanwhile the Gwalior Contingent, under Tantia Topee, had advanced on Cawnpore, and driven General Windham into his entrenchments, and it was only by a hurried march that Campbell could come to his assistance before the bridge over the Ganges was broken down. By the end of the year 1857 the rebellion in Bengal had been to a great extent stamped out, and the future war was restricted to Oude, Rohilkhund, parts of Bundelkhund, and Central India. In Dacca, Mhow, Indore, Ferruckabad, and elsewhere, order had been restored; Outram was holding his own against the garrison of Lucknow, and Saugor, faithful to the last, would serve as a centre for operations in Central India. At the beginning of the year (1858) Mahomed Bahadur Shah, the last of the Moguls, being convicted of treason and murder, was transported

to Burmah. During January and February Sir Colin Campbell occupied himself with clearing Oude and Rohilkhund. In March he made for Lucknow, and after a severe struggle wrested the city from the enemy's hands. On May 6, Sir Colin Campbell succeeded in crushing the revolt in Rohilkhund, but the rebel leaders and many of their followers escaped. Meanwhile, the Bombay division, under Sir Hugh Rose, had advanced steadily into Central India to the relief of Saugor, and soon defeated the rebels at the pass of Muddunpore. General Roberts and Whitlock were marching triumphantly through Malwa and Bundelkhund; on April 1 Sir H. Rose defeated Tantia Topee, who was marching on Jhansi, and two days later he stormed and took the fort of Jhansi. On May 7 he attacked and routed the united armies of Tantia Topee and the Ranee of Jhansi, and on May 23, after a severe struggle, he assaulted and captured the strong fort of Kalpy. Tantia Topee now proceeded to Gwalior and organised an insurrection against the authority of Scindiah; but on June 17 Sir Hugh encountered and defeated the rebel force outside Gwalior, and on the 18th stormed and captured the city. Brigadier Napier pursued the enemy, and routed them again at Alipore, thus ending the campaign. General Roberts had meanwhile stormed and taken Kotah, and the rebellion was now practically at an end, and the time come for vengeance and reconciliation. It was undoubtedly the splendid organisation of the Punjaub under Sir John Lawrence that contributed mainly to the ultimate success of the English arms; and had this district shared in the revolt instead of, thanks to the firmness of its ruler, sending assistance to the English forces before Delhi, it is difficult to see where the disasters would have stopped. But Sir John Lawrence, from the very commencement bridled the mutinous Sepoys in the Punjaub with a stern hand, and the Sikhs were only too grateful for the blessings of English rule to rise against their benefactors. The most important political result of the Indian Mutiny was the transferrence of the entire administration of Hindostan from the East India Company (q.v.) to the crown. [INDIA.]

Sir J. Kaye, *Sepoy War*, 1871-76; G. B. Malleson, *Hist. of the Indian Mutiny*; T. R. E. Holmes, *Hist. of the Indian Mutiny*; *Annual Register*, 1857-58; Lord Roberts, *Forty-One Years in India*.

[S. J. L.]

Indulgence, THE DECLARATION OF (1687), is the name given to the proclamation of James II., by which he declared that "as he would not force the conscience of any man himself, so neither would he allow any man to force the conscience of another." By this he hoped to show favour to the Roman Catholics without offending his Protestant subjects, whom he promised to keep in full possession of all the Church estates they had acquired at the Reformation. In order to disguise, at all events in some degree, that the real objects of this indulgence were the Papists, he promised full freedom of worship at the same time to moderate Presbyterians and Quakers. All the penal laws against the Roman Catholics were suspended, and the king declared himself resolved for the future to employ the best men in his service irrespective of their creed (Feb. and June, 1687). In April next year, James ordered this declaration to be republished, and sent an order to the bishops that they should bid the clergy of their several dioceses read it from their pulpits after divine service, on the Sundays, May 20th and 27th. It was their refusal to do this that led to the trial of the Seven Bishops.

Indulph, King of Alban (*s.* 954, *d.* 962), was the son of Constantine. It was in his reign, according to the *Pictish Chronicle*, that Dunedin or Edinburgh was surrendered to the Scots by the English—a surrender which, Mr. Skene thinks, implied the district between the Esk and the Avon. Indulph's reign is further noteworthy for the descent of the Norwegian pirates. He is said, according to one account, to have been slain in battle with the invaders, but, according to another, he died at St. Andrews. Probably he retired to a monastery, and entrusted his kingdom to Dubh the son of Malcolm, who was his lawful successor on the tanistic principle.

Skene, *Celtic Scotland*.

Ine, or **Ina,** King of Wessex (688—726), was descended from Cerdic through Cuthwine, and succeeded to the throne on the abdication of Ceadwalla. He was one of the greatest of the West Saxon kings, and succeeded in reducing Kent, Sussex, and East Anglia to obedience. He also fought many battles against the Britons or Welsh, and extended the West Saxon kingdom beyond the Parret, building the fortress of Taunton to protect his new frontier. We find him fighting against the Welsh of Glamorgan, and against Ceolred the Mercian king, with whom he fought a drawn battle at Wanborough. The latter part of his reign, however, does not seem to have been so prosperous. His wars with the Britons were less successful than before, and he was troubled by rebellions of members of the royal house, the leader of whom was Aldbert, who was eventually defeated and slain by Ine. Ine himself resigned the crown in 725, and went to Rome, where he soon died. He was great, not only as a warrior, but as a legislator, and made a collection of laws, seventy-six in number, which, with the exception of those of the Kentish kings, are the earliest known to us among the Anglo-Saxons. He likewise divided Wessex into two dioceses, placing the new bishop at Sherborne in Dorsetshire; he moreover founded

and endowed several monasteries, and rebuilt and enlarged the abbey of Glastonbury.

Anglo-Saxon Chronicle; Bede, *Ecclesiastical History.* The Laws of Iue are translated by Mr. Thorp in *Ancient Laws and Institutes of the Anglo-Saxons.*

Infangtheof was, in Anglo-Saxon times, the right of trying and punishing a thief caught within the limit of the jurisdiction to which the right belonged. It was one of the rights appertaining to a hundred or soken.

Ingoldsby, Sir Richard (*d.* 1685), was closely related to Oliver Cromwell, and served with considerable distinction in the Parliamentary army. He was one of the High Court of Justice appointed to try Charles I., but did not attend any of the sittings, and though his signature appears on the warrant for execution, he declared that he was forced to affix it by violence, his hand being guided by Cromwell. He afterwards took part in the campaign in Ireland; in 1652 he was made a member of the Council of State; in 1654 and 1656 he sat in Cromwell's Parliament, and was made one of the members of the Upper House. He was a great favourite of Richard Cromwell, after whose resignation he was appointed one of the Committee of Safety. He was active in promoting the Restoration, and was in command of the force sent against Lambert after he had escaped from the Tower. He received a pardon from Charles II., and was created a Knight of the Bath in 1660. He sat in the Parliaments of 1661, 1679, and 1680, but took no very prominent part in public affairs.

Ingulphus (*d.* 1109) was one of the secretaries of William the Conqueror, and subsequently became Abbot of Croyland. To him was attributed a *Description of Croyland Abbey*, which is now universally considered to be a spurious production of the fourteenth century. It consists of charters, all of which are forgeries, interspersed with historical notices derived from older chroniclers. This work was first published by Sir Henry Savile in his *Rerum Anglicarum Scriptores*, and from one MS. of it, which was then existing at Croyland, Sir Henry Spelman extracted the copy of dubious Laws of William the Conqueror given in his *Concilia.*

H. T. Riley, *Archæological Journal*, i. 32—49; ii. 114—133; Sir T. D. Hardy, *Descriptive Catalogue of Manuscripts.*

Inkermann, The Battle of (Nov. 5, 1854), was fought during the Crimean War. Early on the morning of Nov. 5, 1854, the Russian army, which had lately received large reinforcements, made a sortie from Sebastopol. The chief point of attack was the plateau of Inkermann, where the English forces lay, and so dense were the mists that our troops were hardly aware of the enemy's advance till he was close upon them. There was little time for any regular plan of operations on the English side, and they were here at a strong disadvantage compared with the Russians, who had received definite instructions before starting. The result was the engagement became more of a hand-to-hand encounter than a regular battle. At last the French general, Bosquet, who had divined from the first that the attack was destined for the British troops and not against his own, came to their aid, and fell upon the Russians with such fury as to drive them down the slope, and thus decide the battle.

Kinglake, *Invasion of the Crimea.*

Inquest. Recognition by sworn inquest, *i.e.*, the discovery of matters of fact by inquiry from sworn witnesses, is a custom of very ancient standing in England, and the origin of the civil jury. A process of inquiry by government officers from witnesses from the district concerned, first appears clearly in the capitularies of the Frank kings. To them it possibly came from the regulations of the Theodosian code, which prescribed a special method of investigation by imperial officers in matters touching the fisc. From cases in which the king was concerned, the method was occasionally extended in the Frank empire, but only by special permission, to the suits of churches and private persons. This system was found working by the Norman conquerors of northern Gaul, and became a part of the Norman jurisprudence. But it was still exceptional in private suits, and persons who wished their own cases to be tried by inquest, had to gain the duke's consent. From Normandy it was introduced by the Conqueror into England; the Domesday survey is a gigantic example of its employment to draw up a rate-book of the kingdom for the use of the central administration; and several writs of Rufus, Henry I., and Stephen are extant, ordering inquests through men of the county or hundred, to determine the rights of churches. It is the merit of Henry II. to have made what had been "an exceptional favour" an ordinary part of English legal procedure. By the Grand Assize he substituted the more equitable method of inquest in cases concerning land, for trial by battle, which was a Norman innovation, and justly hated in England. The three processes of Darrein Presentment, Mort d'Ancester, and Novel Disseisin provided satisfactory means of settling disputes as to advowsons, and the claims of heirs and dispossessed persons. In the Assize of Arms, recognition by jury was employed to determine the liability of each individual; and, finally, in the Ordinance of the Saladin. Tithe inquest by sworn jurors was used for the assessment of taxation. [For later history see Jury.] In ordinary modern use the word is almost confined to the inquest held by a coroner with regard to a suspicious death. This seems to have been his chief duty as

early as Edward I., whose statute *De Officio Coronatorio* (1276) is the foundation of the law on the subject.

For the history of inquest, as connected with the jury system, see Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, i. ch. 13, and for a more detailed account, Brunner, *Entstehung der Schwurgerichte*, 1871. For coroner's inquest, Stephen, *Hist. Crim. Law*, i. 216, and *Digest of Crim. Proced.*, ch. 7.

[W. J. A.]

Inscriptions, Celtic, are chiefly confined to a number of rough stone monuments, upon whose edges the inscriptions are cut in characters of a peculiar type, consisting entirely of long and short lines. This character is styled Ogam or Ogham. The largest number of these Ogam inscriptions have been found in Ireland—almost exclusively in Munster—but about twenty have also been found in South Wales, one in North Wales, and three in Devonshire and Cornwall. Others occur in Scotland, and especially in Fife, Aberdeenshire, and Sutherland, and some even in the Shetland Islands. Of these the Irish are very imperfectly deciphered, and the Scotch still more so, but most of the Welsh have been satisfactorily investigated. These are nearly all bi-lingual, and a Latin translation or paraphrase makes the work of interpretation the easier. For though Irish MSS. of the fourteenth century give a systematic account of the character, yet the ravages of time, and the imperfections of the system, make it no easy task to decipher them. It is even doubtful whether some of the Scottish Ogams are of Celtic origin. The date of these inscriptions can only be vaguely ascertained. Probably, most of the Welsh are of about the fifth and sixth centuries; but it seems most likely that the character was invented at a much earlier date, for it is hard to believe that so imperfect an alphabet would have been adopted when the Roman letters were known. It is, indeed, strange, that Ogam should have survived until the ninth or tenth centuries.

It has been conjectured that Ogam is in a way derived from the Phœnician alphabet. A late Irish legend attributes its invention to a mythic Ogma. Professor Rhŷs regards the word as etymologically akin to ὄγμος and *agmen*, and as a derivative of a root which is used in the senses of "a leading, a line, a row, writing, letters, and ultimately literature, or knowledge."

The historical value of the Ogam inscriptions is entirely indirect. They are nearly all mere sepulchral inscriptions of the name, and perhaps the father's name, of some forgotten chieftain. But philologically their interest is very great. Careful comparison shows that the language of these inscriptions is of the Goidelic rather than of the Brythonic type—Irish rather than Welsh. They testify to the presence of Goidels in South Wales and Damnonia, spots from which nearly all traces of them have now vanished, either Irish immigrants, or the survivals of an earlier population driven westward by the Brythons, just as the Brythons themselves were at a later date driven westwards by the English. Thus they have thrown new light on the early ethnology of Britain as well as on the study of Celtic philology. Besides the Ogams, there are other Celtic inscriptions written in the ordinary Latin character, or in that modification of it to which the name of the "Irish alphabet" has been given. But the bulk of the inscriptions of the Britons, centuries after the withdrawal of the Roman legions, were written in Latin.

Rhŷs, *Welsh Philology*; Hübner, *Inscriptiones Britanniæ Christianæ*; Westwood, *Lapidarium Walliæ*.

[T. F. T.]

Inscriptions, Roman. Roman rule in Britain began late, ended early, and never was much more than a military occupation. As a natural result the Roman inscriptions in Britain are comparatively few in number, limited in the variety of their subjects, and of inferior historical and less philological interest.

Epigraphists divide inscriptions into two main classes—inscriptions in the strictest sense written on other objects to indicate their purpose, and those which are themselves the objects, and inscribed on stone or hard metal to make them durable. The former class (*tituli* in Latin), are divided into sepulchral inscriptions (*tituli sepulchrales*); dedicatory inscriptions (*tituli sacri*); honorary inscriptions (*tituli honorarii*), or inscriptions on statues erected to mortals, either after death or during their life, but not on their tombs, in which class are included *tituli operum publicorum*, *viæ publicæ*, the records of the names of those erecting public buildings, the inscriptions on milestones, boundary stones; and lastly, the comprehensive class of inscriptions arranged in the *Corpus* under the head *instrumentum*, which includes, for example, inscriptions on weights and measures, household articles, the *tesseræ*, or little tokens with names of individuals or dates upon them, the inscriptions stamped on blocks of metal, very numerous in a mining district like England, or on military weapons, and the leaden marks which, perhaps, were borne by soldiers as countersigns, and have been found in Britain only. Of the inscriptions made for their own sakes, which are called *instrumenta* or *leges*—treaties, laws, local decrees, agreements of private persons, may be quoted as examples.

Most of the above classes of inscriptions have been found in Britain, though certain classes, and particularly the *instrumenta*, are rare. Very few inscriptions of the first century remain. "They are as scarce," says Dr. Hübner, "as those of the republican period in the older portions of the Empire." The oldest is an inscription to Nero, found at

Chichester, and a few leaden balls, marked with the names of Claudius, Britannicus, Nero, &c. The oldest milestones are of the time of Hadrian and the Antonines. A few military inscriptions complete the record. During the next century fairly abundant inscriptions are found in the south-eastern part of the island, and especially in the great towns, such as Camulodunum (Colchester); Londinium (London); Regni (Chichester); Aquæ-Sulis (Bath). Though Eboracum had become a great Roman station so early as the reign of Trajan, few inscriptions of earlier date than the latter part of the second century are found in the land of the Brigantes. Still further north, zones of inscriptions mark the site of the two Roman walls. But north of this district, and among the hills of Wales, the almost total absence of real Roman inscriptions attests the incompleteness of the Roman conquest. In the latter country it is only in a few garrisons, such as Isca (Caerleon), or Deva (Chester), or Segontium (Caernarvon), that they are at all abundant, and here none are earlier than the end of the second century. Many third-century inscriptions, both in the north and west, indicate the frequency of the Roman expeditions to those regions. It is, however, remarkable that very few inscriptions of the "provincial emperors," such as Carausius and Allectus, remain. Great names, such as Diocletian and Constantine, are but scantily represented. There are few important Christian inscriptions of the fourth or fifth centuries. The sepulchral inscriptions of Wales and Damnonia are not strictly Roman. The Greek inscriptions are very few. As to the historical value of the Roman inscriptions in Britain, it is hard to generalise, but, as a rule, it is not great. "They vary little in their information; a victorious legion, the death of a commander, the performance of a vow, a tribute to the memory of a departed relative, are the subjects generally commemorated." (Preface to *Monumenta Historica Britannica.*) Yet Dr. Hübner has been able to illustrate from them some characteristics of the provincial administration and military history of Britain, and the frequency or infrequency of their occurrence is at least some index to the nature of the Roman occupation in any given locality. In many ways the inscriptions illustrate or vivify the historical knowledge which written authorities give us; the prevalence of military inscriptions in Britain testifies clearly to the character of Roman rule in the land. But the vast majority of inscriptions are too short, too obscure, too private in their reference, or too limited in their subject, to furnish us with any real historical information.

The Roman inscriptions in Britain have been collected by Dr. Emil Hübner, in the seventh volume of the Berlin *Corpus Inscriptionum Latinarum*. Dr. Hübner's epigraphical map of Britain at the end of the volume indicates the localities in which they have been found in most abundance. The same scholar's article on Roman Inscriptions in the ninth edition of the *Encyclopædia Britannica* may be referred to for an account of these inscriptions generally. The inscriptions of historical interest have been printed in the *Monumenta Historica Britannica*. McCaul's *Britanno-Roman Inscriptions*, and Scarth's *Roman Britain* may be also referred to.

[T. F. T.]

Institution of a Christian Man, The, is the name of a work sometimes said to have been written by Henry VIII., but is more probably the work of Cranmer and other bishops, and only stamped with the king's approval. It consists of an Exposition of the Creed, the Seven Sacraments, the Ten Commandments, the Lord's Prayer, the Angel's Salutation to Mary, and of the doctrines of Free Will, Justification, and Good Works. It concludes with an authorised prayer for departed souls.

Instrument of Government, The, is the name given to a paper constitution of forty-two articles, called "the Government of the Commonwealth," by which the Protectorate of Cromwell was established (December, 1653). The executive power was vested in the Protector and a council of fifteen to twenty-one persons appointed for life. Until the meeting of Parliament, fixed for Sept. 3, 1654, the Protector, with assent of the Council, could make ordinances to have the power of laws. After this, the legislative power was vested in the Parliament alone, and, though bills were to be submitted to the Protector for his assent, he had no power to veto them if they were themselves in accordance with the constitution. Parliaments were to be called of necessity every three years, and when called could not be dissolved for five months, except by their own consent. The representative system was reformed, in accordance with the plan proposed by Ireton, and amended by the Rump. Scotland and Ireland were each represented by thirty members, while the number of members for England and Wales was reduced from five hundred to four hundred. The number of county members was largely increased, many rotten boroughs were disfranchised, and important places like Leeds, Manchester, and Halifax received representatives. At the same time, two classes of electors were disfranchised:—(1) All Roman Catholics and those concerned in the Irish rebellion were disabled for ever; (2) all persons who had been engaged in war against the Parliament since January, 1642, except such as had given signal testimony since then of their good affection, were disabled from electing or being elected for the next Parliament and the three following. By article xii., it was expressly inserted in the writs that the persons elected should not have power to alter the government as vested by the Instrument in a single person and a Parliament. Accordingly, when Parliament,

assembled in September, 1654, wished to debate the constitution, and settle the limits of the Protector's power, Cromwell, whilst drawing a distinction between "circumstantials," which they might alter, and "fundamentals," which they must leave untouched, forced them to sign an engagement not to propose the alteration of the government in that particular. Mr. Gardiner remarks on the Instrument of Government that it was "the first of hundreds of written constitutions which have since spread over the world, of which the American is the most conspicuous example, in which a barrier is set up against the entire predominance of any one set of official persons, by attributing strictly limited functions to each."

Masson, *Life of Milton*; Gardiner, *Puritan Revolution*; Guizot, *Cromwell*; Ranke, *History of England*.

Insurrection Acts (IRELAND). The first (1787) enacted the Riot Act for Ireland, made all attacks on clergy or churches, the administering unlawful oaths, seizure of arms, and other similar offences, felony, to be punished with death. It also inflicted a punishment of fine, imprisonment, or the whip, on all who conspired to deprive the clergy of their tithes. In 1796 a similar Act was passed, but with terms, if possible, still more stringent than the foregoing; and, though it excited the wonder of the English Ministry, it passed without difficulty. The third (1807) gave the Lord-Lieutenant power, if the magistrates in special session declared a county disturbed, to proclaim it. By so doing, trial by jury was suspended, and any one out at night after dark became liable to seven years' transportation, unless he were able to give a good excuse. It remained in force till 1810. In 1814, 1815, 1816, 1817, 1822, and 1824, it was renewed, and a similar Act was passed in 1833.

Interdicts, Papal, may be defined as local excommunications. They deprived a certain district of all the privileges of Christian worship and ceremonies. The proclamation of an interdict put the country out of the pale of the Church. During the time that a country lay under an interdict, all public religious services ceased; churches were closed, and the sacraments suspended. To this general rule there were a few exceptions. On Sunday a sermon might be preached in the churchyard, and on Good Friday the cross was exhibited to the people in the same place; the dead might be buried, but without the full rites of interment; infants might be baptised; and the dying were allowed to communicate. But, beyond this, all the services of the Church ceased; the bell neither rang nor tolled; the solemn processions of the Church were discontinued; neither Virgin nor saint could be worshipped at their own shrines. Monasteries, however, preserved the right of holding their own services; but these had to be performed with closed doors, and no strangers might be present. The most famous interdict in English history was that proclaimed by Innocent III. in March, 1208, over all England. It was brought about by John's obduracy in refusing to recognise the papal nominee, Stephen Langton, as Archbishop of Canterbury, and it was not remitted till the king had made full submission, in May, 1213.

Interest. Two principles seem in the Middle Ages to have been at work in mitigating the extent to which the usurer might take advantage of the distresses of his debtors: first, that of the mediæval Church, which, inheriting the doctrine of the Jewish Scriptures, has unhesitatingly condemned usury in all its forms; and, secondly, that of the Roman Empire, which, while recognising the necessity of paying interest on borrowed moneys, attempted to limit abuse by fixing a legal maximum percentage, beyond which payment could not be enforced. Among the Romans the rate was at one time twelve per cent. per annum, but it was reduced by Justinian to four. It could not be expected that among the Teutonic tribes this question should have formed a part of their original common law, and hence in the Middle Ages usury was not so much regarded as an offence against the law as a sin; and it was one of the great merits of the Mediæval Church that it set its face steadily against this abuse at a time when no king had the self-denial, and no other court sufficient strength, to protect the poor from the oppression of the rich. Accordingly, usury became a recognised offence in the spiritual courts; and thus we find Alexander III. writing to the Archbishop of Canterbury that he should compel all lenders, whether ecclesiastical or others, to restore their pledges without usury. But despite the censures of the Church and the laws of Edward III., according to which the goods of a living usurer belonged to the Church, those of a dead one to the king, the practice never died out, though in many cases the actual interest was disguised under the name of expenses. Complaints were made by the Commons under Richard II. of the prevalence of this offence, but the king could only reply that it was the fault of the ecclesiastical courts, who did not use their own powers. As yet there was no thought of the State's taking the question in hand. It was a question of morality, and not of law. Some hundred years later, when the incapacity of the Church to deal with this subject became clearer, Parliament at last took the matter up. Even under Henry III. the Statute of Merton had forbidden usury to be charged on infants for debts incurred by their parents, and we have just seen the enactment of Edward III. as regards the goods of deceased usurers. But it was not till Henry

VII.'s reign that the State, following the old Roman principle and recognising the legality of interest, fixed a rate, above which all charges should be unlawful. In 1487 a law was passed directly aimed against the "dampnable bargayns groundyt in usurye, contrarie to the laws of naturell justis," and empowering the Lord Chancellor and justices of the peace to inflict a penalty of £100 on all transactions that savoured of this kind (3 Hen. VII., 5 and 6). Eight years later, it was enacted that if the lender received back more than he had lent, he should forfeit half. The tendency of these laws is, as may at once be perceived, to restrict rather than to encourage usury. Under Henry VIII. all former Acts on the subject were repealed in 1545, and it was enacted that after Jan. 31 next no more than ten per cent. should be charged, on pain of the lender's losing threefold the debt and suffering imprisonment (37 Hen. VIII., 9). Of course the effect of this Act, whatever was intended, can only have been to stop all loans at less than ten per cent., and that it had this result is evident by the enactment of 1551—52, which pronounced *all* usury to be unlawful, declared that the former law had not been intended for the maintenance of usury, and lamented that, since its passing, usury had been daily used and practised in the realm. Under Elizabeth this Act was repealed, "because it hath not done as much good as it was hoped it should." Usury, perhaps, in its simplest form, had decreased, but the old evil had only taken new forms, and had "by shifts increased and abounded to the utter undoing of many gentlemen, marchauntes, and others." The old law had erred by making no distinction in the kind of offences, and punishing all alike. Accordingly Henry VIII.'s Act was revived for five years. It seems, from the wording of this Act, that men were still nominally liable to prosecution in the spiritual courts for taking any interest whatever (13 Eliz., c. 8). Under James I. (1621) it was enacted that, because of the general fall in the value of land and prices of merchandise, only eight per cent. should be allowed from June 24, 1625. This enactment was to last seven years, and the penalty of its infringement was to be treble the amount lent. Here again we see the double feeling at work—the conflicting sentiments of the injustice of all usury, and the expediency of allowing it under restrictions; for a clause is added to this bill declaring that its terms are not to be so expounded as to allow the practice of usury in point of religion or conscience. But there is no longer any mention of ecclesiastical courts; though, on the other hand, the expenses of scriveners who might negotiate a loan are jealously defined. On the Restoration, it was enacted that as previous experience had justified the lessening of the legal rate of interest from ten to eight per cent., it would be expedient to reduce it to a nearer level with that of the nations with whom we chiefly traded, and from henceforth it was to run at six per cent. Under Queen Anne, on the conclusion of the war of the Spanish Succession, it was still further reduced to five per cent., on the plea of its being good for trade and to the interest of the landowners, on whom the expenses of the war had mainly fallen. Another reason assigned for this reduction was that the great interest which could be secured for money invested at home had rendered people unwilling to embark in foreign trade. This remained the legal rate of interest till the **reign of Queen Victoria, when all the previous laws for its regulation were swept away in the year 1854.**

Statutes of the Realm: A. Smith, *Wealth of Nations*; D. Hume, *Essays*; Ducange, sub voce *Usurarius*. [T. A. A.]

Inverkeithing, The Battle of (1317), was fought, in Fifeshire, between the Scots, under the Earl of Fife, and the English. Fife was at first driven back, but his men, being rallied by William Sinclair, Bishop of Dunkeld, at last drove the English back to their ships.

Inverlochy, The Battle of (1645), resulted in the victory of Montrose and the Royalists over the Covenanters led by Argyle. Inverlochy is near Fort William, in the south of Inverness.

Inverness was most probably at one time the capital of the Pictish kingdom. In later days it possessed a strong castle, erected by the Earl of Huntly (*circa* 1460). In 1562 this castle was taken by the Regent Murray from the insurgent followers of the Earl of Huntly, and nearly a century later was garrisoned by Cromwell (1651). In 1689 it was pillaged by Claverhouse, and in 1746 was taken by the Jacobites, but recovered by the Duke of Cumberland after the battle of Culloden.

Inverness, John Hay (*d.* 1740), titular Earl of Inverness, was a favourite of James Edward, the old Pretender. In 1725 he became Secretary of State and Earl of Inverness, and, together with his brother, Lord Kinnoul, and his brother-in-law, James Murray, ruled the prince's councils. He was, according to Lockhart of Carnwath, "a cunning, false, avaricious creature, of very ordinary parts, cultivated by no sort of literature, and altogether void of experience in business; with insolence prevailing often over his little stock of prudence." Soon after he and his brother had been admitted to direct James's conduct, the Pretender's wife left her husband when he refused to dismiss his favourites. On her return, both the brothers went into exile at Avignon.

Inverury, The Battle of (May 22, 1308), was fought on the Don, in Aberdeenshire, and resulted in a complete victory for

Robert Bruce over his enemy, the Earl of Buchan, and the English commanded by Mowbray.

Iona (or **Hii**), an island situated to the west of Mull, is famous as the place where St. Columba landed (May 12, 563) on his departure from Ireland, and as the spot he selected for his monastery. For 150 years Iona, the cradle of the Scottish Church and of Scottish letters, was the centre of the national Church of the Dalriad Scots; but in 716, owing to the zeal of Adamnan, its abbot and the other members of the monastery conformed to the Roman views both as regards the date of Easter and the shape of the tonsure. There appears, however, to have been another party which still adhered to the old way. From 794 Iona was repeatedly ravaged by the Danes; in 818 the monastery which had been restored by Adamnan, was rebuilt by the abbot Diarmid, who deposited therein the shrine of Columba. Towards the end of the twelfth century the monastery was again rebuilt by Reginald of the Isles, who founded a Benedictine abbey there.

Ionian Islands, The, were seized by the French from the Venetians in 1797, the former being confirmed in their new possession by the Treaty of Campo Formio. Two years later, the islands were declared an independent republic under the joint protection of Turkey and Russia. By the Treaty of Tilsit (1807), they once more became French. In 1814 they were placed under British protection, and administered by British commissioners, and so remained till 1864, when they were finally handed over to the kingdom of Greece.

Ireland. The early history of Ireland is wrapped in an obscurity which the researches of scholars into the evidence afforded by archæology, inscriptions, and etymology are only beginning to dispel. The great cycle of Celtic legend has hitherto proved of little historical value. The ablest archæologists cannot distinguish the original traditions from the embellishments of mediæval annalists. Records of real events are interwoven with fragments of Greek and Roman fable, and the incongruous narrative thus obtained has been forcibly adapted to the Mosaic cosmogony. [Celts.]

We hear of five immigrations from the East, of incessant wars between the invaders, and of the final triumph of the Milesians or Scots. Two Scotic kingdoms gradually arose; the kingdom of Meath in the north, and the kingdom of Munster in the south. Early in the second century, Tuathal of Meath established a nominal supremacy over the entire island, but in the reign of Cond, Tuathal's grandson, the Eberian princes restored the independence of Munster. Excluded from the south, the Scots of Meath devoted their energies to a thorough conquest of Ulster. This was effected during the fifth century, under Niall of the Nine Hostages and his sons. The royal house split into two branches. The northern Huí Néill ruled in Ulster for five hundred years, while the southern family governed the great central plain. The ard rí or titular over-king of Ireland was sometimes of the one, sometimes of the other stock. The Munster dynasty underwent a similar change. The Engenian and the Dal Caisian lines divided the old Eberian kingdom between them.

From the middle of the third century to the close of the fifth, both the northern and the southern Irish planted colonies in Britain. The former settled in North Wales, Man, and Scotland; the latter in South Wales, Devon, and Cornwall. Towards the end of the colonising period, the Irish were converted to Christianity. St. Patrick is said to have begun his labours in the year 432. The whole island quickly adopted the new faith. In one respect the result would seem to have been unhappy. The remarkable system of Brehon law might, under favourable conditions, have done much to bind the tribes into a nation, but the sanction of the law was probably religious, and thus perished with the old beliefs. About the middle of the sixth century the migratory spirit revived in a new form. The Irish monks carried their missions to the remotest parts of Europe. At home their schools were visited by students from England and from Gaul. But outside the convent walls all was war and bloodshed. The Norwegians first pillaged the Irish coast in the year 795. They were succeeded by the Danes (852), who effected permanent settlements at the chief seaports. The monasteries were plundered and burnt, and the internal anarchy grew worse. But the end of the tenth century brought a change. The invaders under Ivar occupied Limerick, and attempted the conquest of Munster. In the struggle that followed a native ruler appeared, who, for a time, seemed destined to make Ireland a nation. Brian Boruma, sprung from the Dal Caisian line of the Eberians, routed the Danes near Tipperary in 968. Six years later he succeeded his brother Mahon on the throne of Munster. In 989 he made war on Malachy II., the titular over-king of the Huí Néill dynasty. After thirteen years of fighting and negotiation, Malachy submitted (1002). The victory of Glen Mama (1000) had quelled a desperate revolt of Leinster and the Dublin Danes. Brian was at last supreme. For twelve years he ruled Ireland strongly and well. Then the Dublin Danes again rebelled. They sought and found allies amongst all the Scandinavians of the West. It was the last desperate conflict of the Pagan Northmen with the Christian Irish. The battle was fought on the banks of the Tolka, by Dublin, on Good

Friday of the year 1014. The Danes were driven into the sea, but the old king was slain by the "apostate deacon" Brodir, as he prayed for his people. His death left the condition of the country hopeless. He had destroyed the traditional supremacy of the Huí Néill; his own house were unable to make good their claims. Long and ruinous wars between the O'Néills, the O'Briens, and the O'Conors of Connaught, continued to the Norman invasion.

The civilisation of the Irish Celts reached its full development before the twelfth century. They formed numerous tribes (*tuath*), each consisting of several septs (*fine*). Both tribes and septs were landowning corporations closely resembling the Teutonic "marks." Both divided their territories into three parts; the *tuath* into the demesne of the *rí*, or chief of the tribe, the lands of the different *fines*, and the tribal waste; the *fine* into the demesnes of the *flaiths*, or hereditary landowners, the common, and the waste of the sept. The *flaiths* and the *bo-aires*, or cow-noblemen, were the only freemen with full political rights. The *flaith aire fine* was the chieftain of the sept. If a freeman "commended" himself to a "flaith" of his own sept, he became a *céile*. He "took stock" from the *flaith*, with a right of grazing the *flaith's* demesnes, owing him in return rent, services, and homage. If he accepted only a small amount of cattle, he retained most of his civil rights. He paid a "house tribute" to his lord, and was called a *saer-céile*. If he accepted a large amount of cattle, he forfeited much of his freedom, and was bound, in addition to his other burdens, to afford "refections" to the lord and his train at stated times. Such a tenant was called a *daer-céile*, or villein. But even the *daer-céile* had definite rights in the sept, including the important right of enjoying the usufruct of common land, and of building a house upon it. The *rí* could legally compel a tribesman to accept *saer* stock and pay house-tribute, and this power seems to have been often illegally usurped by the *flaith aire fine* over the members of the sept. But a *saer-céile* could not become a *daer-céile*, nor could a *daer-céile* take more stock, without the consent of the sept. The sept had a veto on all contracts by its members affecting the rights or liabilities of the corporation. It was particularly jealous of contracts outside itself but within the tribe. Every member of the sept owned the site of his house in severalty. He held a portion of the common land as his allotment, and had defined rights of pasturage over the waste. As the lots were annually exchangeable, he was bound to follow the common course of tillage. He had no general power of alienation or encumbrance, but in special circumstances he enjoyed a limited power of disposition, with or without the consent of the sept.

The freeman who commended himself to a *flaith* of another sept was called a "*saer fuidir*," or free immigrant stranger. He was a mere tenant at will at a rack-rent. Below him came the "*daer fuidirs*," or servile immigrants. They were men who had broken the tribal bond, prisoners of war, convicts, and other "sons of death." They were the personal dependents of the *flaith*, and formed his body-guard. He was bound of right to settle them on his demesne, but it is believed that they were often planted by the *rí* upon the waste of the tribe, and by the *flaiths* upon the waste of the sept. The rights and lands of a *rí*, or of a *flaith*, passed at his death to the "agnatic" kinsman, previously chosen to succeed him. This kinsman was called the "*tanaiste*." The *tanaiste* of a *rí* was elected by the tribe. The *tanaiste* of a *flaith* was elected by the sept. The descent of inferior tenancies was regulated by some custom resembling gavel-kind. But as civil rights depended on a property qualification, the immediate family of *bó-aire* often agreed to keep together as a "joint and undivided family," and elected a *tanaiste*. Poor kinsmen might even club together as a "joint family" and appoint a head, who then ranked as an *aire*. Mensal lands were assigned to the Brehons, medicine-men, harpers, smiths, and metal workers.

Oats, wheat, barley, flax, wool, madder, onions, and parsnips were grown. The dense forests abounded in game, and the rivers and lakes in fish. The wild boar, the red deer, and the wolf, and eagles, and some other large birds of prey must have been common. In winter the scanty population dwelt in the plains; in summer they drove their cattle to the mountains or the sea-coast. The domestic animals were plentiful and good. Bees were largely kept. Houses were built of wattles or hewn timber. Those of free men consisted of several detached structures, surrounded by one or more ditches and mounds. A loose woollen shirt, covered by a tight tunic, formed the dress of both sexes. A shawl fastened by a brooch hung from the left shoulder. Beautiful gold and silver ornaments were common. Toilet-mirrors, hair-oil, and paint for the eye-lashes and the finger-nails were used by the women. Slings, pikes, swords, and shields were the arms in general use. The customs of polygamy, and the intermarriage of near kinsfolk, gave the early missionaries much trouble. The rank of the wife depended upon her dower, and upon her bearing sons. As the children of the same father by different wives had equal rights, they were all fostered outside the sept, to prevent foul play. Slavery was universal. Hides and frieze were the chief exports. They were largely exchanged for English slaves at Bristol, and for French wines at Poitiers. The native artists excelled in copy-

ing and illuminating books, in working the precious metals, and in music.

In the year 1169 Robert Fitz-Stephen and Maurice Fitz-Gerald landed in Wexford, as nominal allies of Dermot McMurrough, the deposed King of Leinster. The more famous "Strongbow," Richard de Clare, followed the next year. The conquests they made were so easy and so rapid, that Henry II. feared they would establish an independent Norman state across the Channel. To prevent the danger, he came himself to Ireland in 1172. Many native chiefs acknowledged his supremacy; many did him feudal homage in ignorance of the obligations they incurred. The conflict thus introduced between the Brehon law of the tribes, and the feudal law of the English, is the true explanation of the subsequent relations of the two races. The English persistently ignored the rights of the tribesmen in their lands, and in the choice of their chief. The Irish clung to their ancestral customs. The death of a chief might always bring a disputed succession.

Henry acted under colour of a Bull of the English Pope, Adrian IV. He was at first well received by the churchmen. The brutality of John (1185) estranged both clerks and laymen. The Norman power spread without consolidating. The crown discouraged the growth of strong principalities, and without strength order was impossible. The Irish could isolate the scattered settlements at pleasure, by seizing the passes through the woods and the hills. The foreigners fought amongst themselves, and called in Irish aid. They were compelled to serve their king in his wars with France and Scotland. Estates passed by marriage into the hands of English absentees. They were ill guarded, and retaken by the tribes. The barons themselves in the wild districts bowed before the Celtic revival. They abandoned their feudal pretensions, and acted as native chiefs.

By the beginning of the fourteenth century, the English power had sunk to a low ebb. It was ruined by the Scottish invasion of Edward Bruce. For two years he wasted Ireland. At length, "after eighteen successive victories," he was defeated and slain by the Viceroy near Faughard (1317). But he had exterminated the English yeomen, the sinews of the settlement. In 1333, William and Edward de Burgo, the heads of a great Norman house, the sons of an English Viceroy, deliberately renounced their allegiance, divided the lordship of Connaught between them in defiance of the English rule of succession, and adopted the Irish "language, apparel, and laws." Their example was followed by many. Large territories in Ulster and Leinster were reoccupied by the O'Neills and the McMurroughs. The flight of the English population was vainly forbidden by law. In 1367 the Statute of Kilkenny (40 Edward III.) records the conscious impotence of its authors. They have ceased to dream of conquests. Their ambition is to preserve the shrunken remnant of their dominions from the insidious encroachments of the Celt. The natives are rapidly assimilating the colonists to themselves. The statute attempts by savage penalties to isolate the English from the contagion, and to put a stop to the adoption of the native dress, language, and customs. In 1374 the great constitutional question, which, four centuries later, cost England an empire, arose in the Irish Parliament. The viceroy tried to force the colonists to send representatives to England, with power to assent to taxation on their behalf. He was firmly and successfully opposed. A few years later the Kavanaghs and the O'Briens levied black-mail on Dublin Castle.

King Richard was at last provoked to vindicate the power of the crown. He crossed the sea with a great army, but the Irish "mocked him with their light submission," so that "he enlarged not the English borders the breadth of one acre of land" (1395). Four years later he returned. A march through the Kavanaghs' country reduced his forces to a rabble. He fled from Dublin to meet Henry of Lancaster. For a century the colony continued to dwindle. Parts of four shires formed the English dominion, and these were full of native Irish. The Wars of the Roses were disastrous to the settlers. They were Yorkists to a man. They formally acknowledged Duke Richard as their viceroy, in defiance of the English attainder. They solemnly asserted the independence of their Parliament. They followed the Pretender Simnel into England. They were decimated at Sandel Castle and at Stoke. To Henry VII. the Anglo-Irish were more dangerous than the Celts. The only important Irish measure of his reign was that which made the colonial Parliament completely subject to the Council, and extended all existing English statutes to the colony (Poynings' Act, 10 Henry VII., c. 4). For the first fifty years of the Tudor rule, the Leinster Geraldines were the true lords of the settlement. Their rebellion, in 1535, brought a new force into Ireland. All over Europe the old feudal monarchies had been succeeded by despots, who embodied the national forces and the national will. Henry VIII. was the first King of England who could strike with the whole force of the State. He resolved to let the Anglo-Irish feel the blow. A disciplined force and a train of artillery reduced the Geraldine castles. The king was master of the island. He desired to rule his new kingdom well. But the greed of his servants, and his unhappy determination to thrust English manners upon the Celts, inevitably led to resistance and repression. The secularisation of the Church lands was not unpopular. Many abbeys were granted to the chiefs "as the means to make them rather glad to suppress them." The doctrinal changes on the

other hand provoked a bitter opposition. No open outbreak occurred, but on the accession of Mary, the old order was triumphantly restored. [IRISH CHURCH.]

The garrison of English landholders, the bulwark of Protestantism in Ireland, was by a curious irony introduced in the name of Philip II. of Spain. King's and Queen's Counties were "planted" by 3 & 4 Philip and Mary, caps. 1 & 2. The third chapter of the same Act authorised the Chancellor to despatch commissioners throughout the island "to set out shires and counties," that is, to substitute English for Irish law without regard for vested rights. The disputed succession to the earldom of Tyrone brought matters to a crisis under Elizabeth. Shane O'Neill was the *tanaiste* of his tribe; the bastard of Dungannon claimed by an English patent. A war followed, disgraceful even amongst English wars in Ireland. Shane visited the queen. He was detained, in breach of his safe-conduct, until he accepted terms he could not keep. On his return home, "my Lord Treasurer's man" tried to poison him. In 1566 the war was renewed. The new Lord Deputy Sidney fought O'Neill by the hands of his native rivals. The O'Donnells defeated him near Lifford; the Scots of Antrim murdered him. His death was followed by an Act of Parliament (11 Elizabeth, cap. 9), making all Ireland shire-land, and thereby depriving many chiefs of benefits expressly secured to them by indenture with the crown. Ten years later the Desmond rebellion (1579) was quelled by a war of extermination. The plantation system was definitely adopted. The policy of the government was not to subdue, but to destroy. Women and infants were regularly murdered. A well-planned famine removed the fugitives who escaped the sword. Munster was a desert, fit at last for the civilisation of the Raleighs and the Spensers. Half a million of acres were bestowed on English adventurers, on condition that they should plant their vast estates with English farmers. The condition was never fulfilled. The starving Celts crept from the woods and glens to outbid the strangers. But one province did not satisfy the English. Hugh O'Neill, the English Earl of Tyrone, the son of the bastard of Dungannon, was reluctantly driven into war. Bred at the English court, and conscious of the English power, he tried to combine the impossible parts of an Irish chief and an English noble. His tribe accepted him as their leader in 1593. The next year he was summoned before the Council, and, to the queen's great indignation, suffered to return. His course could be no longer doubtful. He contrived to unite all the Ulster tribes beneath his banner, and he sought for aid from Spain. In 1598 he routed Bagnall at the Yellow Ford, and roused Munster. For three years he harassed without engaging the enemy. At length, in Sept., 1601, a strong Spanish force landed at Kinsale. If Hugh could join them, his triumph was secure. They were blockaded by veteran troops. Hugh was betrayed and beaten (Dec.). In the following March he made peace on almost the same terms he had himself proposed in 1587. But although O'Neill had held his own in the field, he could not resist the "war of chicane," which at once began against him. He and his ally, O'Donnell of Tyrconnel, the representatives of the old royal house of the Huí Néill, were forced to fly. Their lands were confiscated and "planted," and the tribesmen treated as tenants-at-will under the crown. This flagrant injustice led directly to the outbreak of 1641. The "subtle ravage" of the lawyers, and the growing Protestantism of the government, which now, for the first time, had a large Protestant population at its back, gradually forced even the old Anglo-Irish Catholics into a close union with the Celts. Strafford claimed all the estates of Connaught for the crown, on the plea that the Chancery officers had neglected to enrol the patents of the owners. The Irish gentlemen offered £120,000 for quieting their titles. The offer was accepted, the money was paid, and then the Viceroy announced that he would not observe the conditions.

Meanwhile the religious tension was increasing. A Catholic revival had spread over Europe. In England the Puritans were rising into power. On Oct. 22, 1641, a rising occurred in Ulster. In December the English Commons resolved to extirpate Popery in Ireland. Then the rebellion spread. The Lords Justices were careful not to limit it; the wider, it was said at the time, the rebellion, the wider would be the forfeitures at their disposal.* The struggle was very horrible. The colonists were everywhere expelled, and often murdered. The Irish chiefs did what they could to humanise the war; the English leaders encouraged the ferocity of their men. The divisions of the Irish Royalists gave Cromwell an easy victory. The act of devastation was perfected by the Saints. Nearly half the population perished in eleven years. When the war was over, many hundreds of boys and of marriageable girls were sold into slavery. Thirty or forty thousand men enlisted in foreign service. Three provinces were confiscated, and parcelled out amongst the soldiers and the creditors of the Parliament. By the peace of 1648, Charles I.

* Whether the terrible charge of Carte, Leland, Lord Castlehaven, and Nalson, be well founded it is, perhaps, impossible to determine. But it is certain that the measures of the Lords Justices were eminently adapted to spread the rebellion. It is certain, too, that from the first they looked forward to confiscations. When the seven Lords of the Pale revolted, they hastened to point out how "those great counties of Leinster, Ulster, and the Pale," lay now "more open to his Majesty's free disposal, and to a general settlement of peace and religion by introducing of English."

promised to restore the Irish Catholics to their estates. In 1650 Charles II. confirmed the engagements of his father. He changed his mind when he was king. He "considered the settlement of Ireland as an affair rather of policy than justice," and "thought it most for the good of the kingdom, advantage of the crown, and security of his government, that the loss should fall on the Irish." By the Acts of Settlement and Explanation, he confirmed to the Cromwellians the estates of his father's last supporters. Before the rebellion, two-thirds of the fertile soil belonged to the Catholics. Under the Act of Settlement, two-thirds remained to the Protestants. The War of the Revolution gave the final blow to the old race. They saw in it a chance of undoing the wrongs of the last thirty years. Their ablest leaders, backed by D'Avaux and Louvois, desired to establish Ireland as a separate kingdom, under French protection. The king landed in March, 1689. The Parliament met in May. Poynings' Act and the Acts of Settlement and Explanation were repealed. The Cromwellians and their heirs were dispossessed, as wrongful possessors, but *bonâ fide* purchasers for valuable consideration were to be reprised. To provide for these reprisals, the estates of the English colonists who supported the Prince of Orange were confiscated. A wholesale Act of Attainder was passed to increase the forfeitures.* But the war went against King James. He had neither money nor arms. His troops were ill-disciplined, and his counsels divided. The relief of Derry and the battle of Newton Butler, in 1689, were followed up by the passage of the Boyne, in 1690, and the decisive defeat of Aghrim, in 1691. The capitulation of Limerick was signed, after an heroic defence, on Oct. 3. The flower of the Irish soldiers followed their king into France, to "find their graves in strange places and unhereditary churches." Parliament refused to ratify the Treaty of Limerick; fresh confiscations were made; and the national faith was proscribed.

A great development of material prosperity might, perhaps, have reconciled the Irish to the conquest. The English and the Irish Parliaments vied in legislation which made prosperity impossible. Trade was crushed by the commercial jealousy of the one; society was sapped by the bigotry of the other. Ireland was already excluded from the Navigation Acts. Acts of 1665 and 1680 had prohibited the importation of Irish cattle and provisions into England. The colonial trade was ruined in 1696; the wool trade with England in 1698; the wool trade with the Continent in 1699. Catholics were forbidden by Irish Acts to purchase lands, to lend on real securities, to take long or beneficial leases. The Gavelling Act (2 Anne, c. 6) broke up existing estates. Catholic minors were placed under Protestant guardians. The Courts of Equity assigned a liberal provision to apostate wives and children. The English grantees of confiscated estates were necessarily absentees. They leased vast tracts to Irish Protestants on beneficial terms. The lessees sub-let, sometimes four or five deep. The misery of the cottier was extreme. He paid a rack-rent; he supported his priest; he was tithed by the parson. The steady growth of pasture drove him to the mountain and the bog. Famine and disease were chronic. A vast emigration set in. Before the trade laws and the Test Act, the Presbyterian artisans and yeomen fled to Germany and America. The Catholics served under every European flag save one. At home they were a rabble. "The tendons of society were cut." When the masses came to power, they had none to lead. The penal code was so repugnant to human nature, the commercial code was so opposed to the common interest, that their regular execution was impossible. Priests, "whom the laws did not presume to exist," publicly discharged the duties of their office; smuggling became a national industry. The whole population was educated into contempt for the law. They came soon to have a law of their own, enforced by the Houghers and the Whiteboys (1761) with merciless severity. The government was a corrupt oligarchy. The hereditary revenue, which included two-thirds of the taxation, made the crown independent. The judicial interpretation of Poynings' Act and the Declaratory Act of 6 Geo. I., c. 5, ensured the subservience of the Parliament. All bills were submitted, first to the Irish, then to the English Privy Council. They were suppressed or altered at the pleasure of either. If approved by the two councils, Parliament might pass or reject, but could not amend them. The Upper House was largely controlled by the English courtiers who sat upon the Right Reverend bench. An English Act of 1691 excluded Catholics; an English test clause of 1704 excluded Dissenters from the legislature. The Catholics lost the franchise. Protestants exercised it once in a lifetime. The Parliament of George II. sat for thirty-three years. Two-thirds of the members were returned by boroughs, and the boroughs were in the hands of undertakers and patrons. The Houses met once in two years. The judges were removable at pleasure. The greatest offices were habitually bestowed on English non-residents. A spirit of resistance slowly grew amongst the colonists. The House of Lords vainly protested against the deprivation of its appellate jurisdiction in the Annesley case (1719). Three years later the country rose against "Wood's halfpence," and drove

* A precisely similar bill against the Irish was introduced in England five days before the Irish Bill was brought in. It passed both Houses, and was lost by a prorogation. It is not mentioned by Lord Macaulay.

Walpole to submission. The struggle "had a most unhappy influence on the state of the nation, by bringing on intimacies between Papists and Jacobites, and the Whigs, who before had no correspondence with them." In 1749 the crown worsted the Houses over an Appropriation Bill. In the next two sessions the contest was renewed, and the government outvoted. The opposition grew, the pension list swelled, the price of the boroughs advanced. Between 1750 and 1754 seats trebled in value. The influence of the middle classes was first felt at the dissolution on the demise of the crown. Their objects were to control their representatives by an Octennial Act, and to correct the scandals of the pension list. The Peace of Paris added India and Canada to the Empire. An increase of the standing army was essential to their safety. Ministers did not dare to make the proposal in England. By the concession of an Octennial Act (Feb., 1768) they secured an increase of 3,000 men to the Irish Establishment. The overthrow of the Undertakers followed. Lord Townshend and Lord Harcourt attempted by lavish bribes to create a party of "king's friends," dependent only on the crown. Between 1757 and 1777 the civil list had nearly doubled, the pension list had nearly doubled, and a million had been added to the debt. The American War brought a crisis. In 1778 the impending bankruptcy of Ireland forced Lord North to relax the commercial code in defiance of the English middle classes. The government was too poor to replace the garrisons withdrawn for the colonial war. The country was defenceless, and invasion seemed imminent. The whole Protestant population armed. In December, 1778, the Volunteers numbered 8,000; in June, 1779, 42,000; in 1781, it is said, as many as 80,000 men. They were for the most part Protestants; they were officered by the Protestant gentry, and they were thoroughly loyal to the English connection. But they resolved to free their country from the commercial tyranny of England. They began to discuss political questions and to concert their action. In Dec., 1781, came the news of Saratoga and of York Town. In the following February the delegates of 143 Ulster corps met at Dungannon. They asserted the independence of the kingdom, and the right to free trade. They demanded that the judges should be made independent, and the Mutiny Act limited to a single session. They condemned the penal laws, and appointed a committee to communicate with other corps. Their example was everywhere followed. Grattan pressed the demand for independence in the Commons. In April the House addressed the crown. It adopted in full the constitutional theories of Dungannon. They were accepted in May by the Parliament of England. Fox, it has been said, "met Ireland on her own terms, and gave her everything she wanted in the way she herself seemed to wish for it."

But independence was not the sole legislative achievement of the Volunteers. Between 1778 and 1782 many wholesome measures were passed. Almost all the commercial restraints were removed. A Habeas Corpus Act and a limited Mutiny Act became law. The judges were made immovable. The Test Act was repealed. Bills for the relief of the Catholics were carried in 1778, 1782, and 1792. In 1793 they were enfranchised.

Two grievances remained—the corruption of Parliament, and the exclusion of Catholics from its walls. Upon both points the patriots were divided. Charlemont and Flood feared to extend the political power of the Catholics. Grattan was their earnest advocate. All agreed upon the necessity of Reform, but Flood alone was ready to overawe the Houses into honesty. The Volunteer Convention showed a growing appetite for politics. Charlemont and Grattan were entirely opposed to legislation by menace. Flood's Reform Bill was rejected by a great majority, and the Convention was immediately dissolved. For fifteen years Pitt debauched the Irish Parliament. Reform or Emancipation would alike have been fatal to the union which he presently began to design. It was to redress these evils that the club of United Irishmen was formed by Rowan Hamilton. The persistent opposition of the government, however, drove its members to disloyalty. Sympathy with the French Revolution grew active in the north. In 1793 the Convention Act became law. At last, in 1794, Pitt seemed to waver. Lord Fitzwilliam, a known friend of the Catholics, was named Viceroy; and the expectations of the Catholics were raised to the highest pitch. Suddenly the Viceroy was recalled. The miserable rebellion of 1798 followed. A brief and horrible agrarian rising was suppressed, and punished with the cruelty that comes of fear. The English minister saw his opportunity, and bought the Parliament he had degraded so ably and so long. The union with England was accomplished by the Act 39 & 40 Geo. III., c. 67, July 2, 1800, and the Irish Parliament ceased to exist a month later. For many years the country was profoundly disturbed. Robert Emmett was hanged in 1803, for plotting a second rebellion. Orange outrages prevailed in the north, and Daniel O'Connell was beginning to marshal the Catholic democracy. He determined from the first to win emancipation without conditions. The Liberal Protestants under Grattan, the Catholic gentry under Lord Fingall, the English Catholics, and a strong party at Rome, under Gonsalvi, were prepared to give the crown a veto on the nomination of Irish prelates, in return for the boon. The bishops themselves favoured the compromise. O'Connell opposed and beat them all. The Catholic Association (1824)

organised the peasantry through the priests. The Waterford election (1826) proved the power of the movement. The return of O'Connell for Clare in 1829 convinced the Duke of Wellington that he must choose between concession and civil war. The Emancipation Act was passed, the forty-shilling freeholders were disfranchised, and the Catholic Association suppressed. The horrors of the Tithe War led to a severe Coercion Act in 1832, and to the abolition of tithes and the substitution of a land-tax in 1838. A Poor Law was passed in the same year, and a Municipal Reform Act two years later. The National Schools were founded in 1831—32, and the Queen's Colleges in 1845. O'Connell's formidable agitation for Repeal marked the second administration of Sir Robert Peel. The prohibition of the monster meeting at Clontarf (Oct. 3, 1843) broke his power. He died at Genoa in 1847. The "Young Ireland" party, chiefly composed of Protestant journalists and men of letters, made a foolish attempt at rebellion in 1848. The Potato Famine of 1846—48, and the Encumbered Estates Court Act, caused a vast exodus to America. A considerable amount of English capital was invested in Ireland, and some years of steady progress ensued. But the enduring existence of social and political discontents was revealed by the Phœnix Conspiracy of 1858. They culminated in Fenianism at the close of the American War. [Fenian Conspiracy.] In 1868 Mr. Gladstone became premier and proceeded to legislate for Ireland. The Irish Church was disestablished and disendowed in 1869, and a Land Bill embodying some novel principles became law in 1870. Two years after the Ballot Act (1872), the Home Rule party came into prominence under Mr. Isaac Butt. He was soon ousted from his position by Mr. Parnell (1877–78), who availed himself of the distress caused by bad harvests in 1878–80 to organise the formidable Land League movement. By a second Land Act, passed in 1881, Mr. Gladstone transformed the whole system of Irish tenures. The Land League was suppressed in the same year, but immediately revived as the National League. Systematic outrages, however, still prevailed over three of the provinces. Offenders against the "unwritten law" were shot or "boycotted," and in May, 1882, Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke, the Chief and Under Secretaries for Ireland, were stabbed by the "Invincibles" in the Phœnix Park. In 1885, nearly ninety Nationalists having been elected to Parliament under the reduced franchise, Mr. Gladstone, followed by the great bulk of the Liberal party, embraced the cause of Home Rule. His Bill was rejected in 1886, his government being succeeded by one pledged to maintain the Union intact. But he returned to power in 1892, and introduced a second Bill, which passed through the House of Commons but was thrown out by the House of Lords. The Local Government Act of 1898 assimilated the administration of Ireland to that of Great Britain. In 1903 another Land Act, amended in 1904, was passed. Royal visits were made to Ireland by Queen Victoria in 1900, and by Edward VII. and Queen Alexandra in 1903 and 1904. In 1908 an Act was passed for the foundation of two new universities.

I. Celtic Ireland. *a.* Contemporary:—Most of the extant manuscripts are still wholly or partially unpublished. Ample accounts of them are given by O'Curry, *Manuscript Materials of Ancient Irish History;* and O'Reilly, *Irish Writers.* A few were printed by O'Conor, *Rerum Hib. Veteres Scriptores,* in 1814. The following have been published in the Record Series:—*Ancient Laws of Ireland, The War of the Gaedhill with the Gaill* (Norse invasions), *Chronicon Scotorum* (A.M. 1599—A.D. 1150), *Annals of Lough Cé* (1014—1590), *Historical and Municipal Documents of Ireland* (1172–1320), *Giraldus Cambrensis.* There is a fine edition of the *Annals of the Four Masters,* by O'Donovan. *b.* Modern:—O'Curry, *On the Manners, etc., of the Ancient Irish,* ed. by Dr. W. K. Sullivan; Sir Henry Sumner Maine, *Early History of Institutions.* II. The English Conquest. *a.* Contemporary:—*Calendars of State Papers* in the Rolls Series; Edmund Campion, *A Historie of Ireland written in 1571;* Spenser, *A View of the State of Ireland;* Sir John Davies, *A Discoverie of the State of Ireland;* Sir William Petty, *The Political Anatomy of Ireland;* Clarendon, *Historical View of the Affairs of Ireland;* Carte, *Ormond;* Clogy, *Life of Bedell;* Leland, *History of Ireland;* Nalson, *Historical Collections.* *b.* Modern:—Prendergast, *The Cromwellian Settlement of Ireland;* Richey, *Lectures on the History of Ireland* (the best short history to 1602); Lecky, *History of England in the Eighteenth Century.* III. The English Rule. *a.* Contemporary:—Molyneux, *The Case of Ireland,* 1698; Swift, *Short View, Drapier's Letters,* and other tracts; Dobbs, *Essay on the Trade of Ireland,* 1734; Berkeley, *The Querist,* 1735—7; Mrs. Delany, *Autobiography and Correspondence* (an amusing social picture); O'Leary, *Works;* Wesley, *Diaries;* Hely Hutchinson, *Commercial Restraints,* 1779; Young, *Tour,* 1780; Burke's *Miscellaneous Tracts on Ireland; The Lives of Charlemont, Flood,* and *Grattan,* by Hardy, Warden Flood, and Henry Grattan the younger. *b.* Modern:—Sir George Cornewall Lewis, *On Local Disturbances in Ireland;* Lecky, *History of England in the Eighteenth Century,* and *The Leaders of Public Opinion in Ireland.*

[J. W. F.]

Lord-Lieutenants and Lord Deputies of Ireland.

Hugh de Lacy	1172
Richard, Earl of Pembroke	1173
Raymond le Gros	1176
Prince John	1177
Lord Justices, no Lord Deputy	1184
Hugh de Lacy (1189)	also 1203 and 1205
Meyler Fitz-Henry	1199 and 1204
Geoffrey de Marisco	1215—1232—1233
Piers Gaveston	1308
Edmund le Botiller	1312
Roger de Mortimer	1316
Thomas Fitzgerald	1320
John de Bermingham	1321
Earl of Kildare	1327
Prior Roger Outlow	1328 and 1340
Sir John d'Arcy	1332
Sir John de Cherlton	1337
Sir Raoul de Ufford	1344
Sir Roger d'Arcy, Sir John Moriz	1346
Walter de Bermingham	1348
Maurice, Earl of Desmond	1355

Thomas de Rokeby 1356
Almeric de St. Amand 1357
James, Earl of Ormonde 1359
Lionel, Duke of Clarence 1361
Gerald, Earl of Desmond 1367
William de Windsor . . . . . 1369—1374
Maurice, Earl of Desmond; James, Earl of Ormonde 1376
Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March . . . 1380
Robert de Vere, Earl of Oxford . . . 1385
Sir John Stanley . . . . . 1389 and 1398
James, Earl of Ormonde 1391
Thomas, Duke of Gloucester 1393
Roger de Mortimer 1395
Reginald Grey, Thomas de Holland; Lords Justices 1398
Thomas of Lancaster . . . . . 1401 and 1408
Sir John Stanley and Sir John Talbot . . 1413
James, Earl of Ormonde 1420
Edmund de Mortimer. 1423
Sir John Talbot 1425
Sir John Grey 1427
Sir John Sutton 1428
Sir Thomas Stanley . . . . 1431 and 1435
Lord de Wells 1438
John, Earl of Shrewsbury 1446
Richard, Duke of York 1449
George, Duke of Clarence 1461
Earl of Worcester 1470
John de la Pole, Earl of Suffolk . . . 1478
Gerald, Earl of Kildare 1483
John de la Pole, Earl of Lincoln . . . 1484
Jasper Tudor, Duke of Bedford . . . 1488
Henry, Duke of York (afterwards Henry VIII.); his deputy, Sir Edward Poynings 1494
Gerald, Earl of Kildare . . . 1496—1504
Earl of Surrey 1521
Henry, Duke of Richmond 1529
Thomas, Earl of Sussex 1560
Robert, Earl of Essex 1599
Lord Mountjoy 1603
Lord Falkland 1623
Lord Strafford 1629
James, Marquis of Ormonde . . 1643 and 1648
Oliver Cromwell 1649
Henry Cromwell 1657
Duke of Ormonde 1662
Lord Roberts 1669
Lord Berkeley 1670
Earl of Essex 1672
Duke of Ormonde 1677
Earl of Clarendon 1685
Earl of Tyrconnel 1687
Lord Sydney 1690
Lord Capel 1695
Earl of Rochester 1700
Duke of Ormonde 1703
Earl of Pembroke 1707
Earl of Wharton 1709
Duke of Ormonde 1710
Duke of Shrewsbury 1713
Duke of Bolton 1717
Duke of Grafton 1721
John, Lord Carteret 1724
Lionel, Duke of Dorset 1731
Duke of Devonshire 1737
Earl of Chesterfield 1745
Earl of Harrington 1747
Duke of Dorset 1751
Duke of Devonshire 1755
Duke of Bedford 1757
Earl of Halifax 1761
Earl of Northumberland 1763
Earl of Hertford 1765
George, Viscount Townshend 1767
Simon, Earl of Harcourt 1772
John, Earl of Buckinghamshire 1777
Frederick, Earl of Carlisle 1780
Duke of Portland 1782
Earl Temple 1782
Robert, Earl of Northington 1783
Duke of Rutland 1784
Marquis of Buckingham (Earl Temple) . . 1787
John, Earl of Westmoreland 1790
William, Earl Fitzwilliam 1795
John, Earl Camden 1795
Marquis Cornwallis 1798
Earl of Hardwicke 1801
Duke of Bedford 1806
Duke of Richmond 1807
Earl Whitworth 1813
Earl Talbot 1817
Marquis of Wellesley 1821
Marquis of Anglesey 1828
Duke of Northumberland 1829
Marquis of Anglesey 1830
Marquis of Wellesley 1833
Earl of Haddington 1834
Marquis Normanby 1835
Earl Fortescue 1839
Earl de Grey 1841
Lord Heytesbury 1844
Earl of Bessborough 1846
Earl of Clarendon 1847
Earl of Eglinton 1852
Earl of St. Germans 1853
Earl of Carlisle 1855
John, Lord Wodehouse (Earl of Kimberley). 1864
Marquis of Abercorn 1866
John, Earl Spencer 1868
Duke of Abercorn 1874
Duke of Marlborough 1874
Earl Cowper 1880
Earl Spencer 1882
Earl of Carnarvon 1885
Earl of Aberdeen 1886
Marquis of Londonderry 1886
Earl of Zetland 1889
Lord Houghton (the Earl of Crewe) . . 1892
Earl of Cadogan 1895
Earl of Dudley 1902
Earl of Aberdeen 1905

Ireton, Henry (*b.* 1611, *d.* 1651), was educated at Oxford, and on the outbreak of the Civil War, joined the Parliamentary party, and fought at Gainsborough. In Jan., 1647, he married Cromwell's daughter Bridget. He was active in putting down the Royalist risings in 1648, and was one of the most energetic members of the High Court of Justice which condemned Charles I. to death. He was nominated in the Council of State in 1649, but his name was struck out by Parliament. When Cromwell went over to Ireland, Ireton was appointed his major-general, and on the recall of the former, Ireton was made Lord Deputy, which office, says Ludlow, who was his colleague, "he conducted with great ability, and with unbounded devotion to the public service." Parliament settled £2,000 a year on him, but he refused to take it. He died of the plague, and was buried in Westminster Abbey; but his remains were dishonoured at the Restoration with those of the other "regicides," and hung in chains at Tyburn.

Irish Church, The. Ireland was converted to Christianity by St. Patrick, in the latter half of the fifth century. The faith of the new Church was that of the rest of Western Christendom. Her organisation was peculiar to herself. The tribe was reconstituted upon a religious footing, and became a monastic community. The chief was the founder and first abbot. A number of his tribesmen and tribeswomen practised celibacy. All devoted themselves to fasting and to prayer. They were a religious family

living under their own rules, rather than an order. The abbot was still a spiritual chief, to whom all members of the tribe, even the tribal bishops, were subject. His successors were almost invariably chosen from his kin. The management of the abbey lands remained with his married relations. The abbots were his spiritual descendants (*ecclesiastica progenies*), the stewards (*airchinnechs*), his descendants by blood (*plebilis progenies*). Of the first eleven successors of St. Columba at Iona, ten were of the same royal stock. For two centuries none but members of the Clan Sinaich sat in the chair of Patrick at Armagh. When "the family of Columba" pushed their spiritual colony into England, they regularly sent the bishops, without canonical election, from Iona to their sees.

The tribal constitution of the Celts made them monks. Their old roving spirit made them missionaries. As both they exercised a lasting influence over European Christianity. They converted England, and left it the most monastic of Latin Churches. In the twelfth century Germany was studded with their monasteries. They were the apostles of Franconia and Carinthia. From Naples to Iceland they have left their names. But it was in Gaul that the Irish set an enduring mark on Western civilisation. Towards the close of the sixth century St. Columba settled at Luxeuil, in the Vosges, and from that centre colonised the classic land of Latin monasticism. His disciples conformed to the wiser rule of Benedict, and were absorbed in the Benedictine order. But their labours led to the Benedictine settlement of Burgundy. Their monasteries, planted in the darkest days of Western Christianity, prepared the way for Clugny, for Citeaux, and for Clairvaux, for Pope Gregory VII., and St. Bernard. When the monk-popes of Burgundy saved Christendom from an hereditary priesthood, the danger was, perhaps, greatest in the tribal church of Ireland. But the popes themselves were reared by the children of Columban. St. Malachy (1094—1148), who had been brought early under the influence of Rome, introduced the new discipline into Ireland. The Norse invasions had destroyed the monasteries. The lay administrators of the Church lands had encroached upon the title and the prerogatives of the abbots. Malachy reformed Bangor. He was nominated Archbishop of Armagh by Celsus, the hereditary incumbent. After a long struggle with the assertors of the tribal principle, he found himself acknowledged as Primate in 1133. He visited Clairvaux. He left his companions with Bernard for instruction. He journeyed to Rome, and was appointed legate by Innocent II. On his return he founded the Cistercian house of Mellifont, in Louth, the first regular monastery in Ireland. Eight years later he again passed into Gaul to receive the *pallium* from Eugerius IV. But his strength failed him at Clairvaux. He died under the roof of his friend and master in 1148. Four years after his death Cardinal John Paperon and Christian, Bishop of Lismore, presided as papal legates over a council at Mellifont. The four metropolitan sees were established, an attempt was made to introduce the canonical restraints on marriage, and some minor abuses were corrected. Many other synods were held in the twelfth century. Those of Cashel (1172) and Dublin (1186) are the most important. The first tried to introduce the payment of tithes and other English observances. The second confined itself to regulating the ritual. In both there is a marked tendency to conform to the Roman discipline. By the end of the century the traditional monasticism was everywhere superseded by the rule of the Augustinian canons. The learning of the older monks is proved by the testimony of Bede, by the classical manuscripts in their peculiar character still scattered over Europe, and by the bold and often unorthodox doctrines they maintained. Virgilius taught the existence of the antipodes in the eighth century, John Scotus Erigena upheld the views of Origen in the ninth, and Macarius seems, in some points, to have anticipated the theories of Spinoza.

From their first conversion the Danes of the eastern seaboard looked upon the tribal church as irregular. Their endeavours to place themselves under the jurisdiction, first of the Norwegian, and afterwards of the English primate, led to a separation between the two Irish Churches, which in one form or other has lasted to the present time. Bishops of Dublin, Waterford, and Limerick, were consecrated by the English primates from the days of Lanfranc. The establishment of the metropolitan sees by Eugenius was resented in England as an infringement of the rights of Canterbury. From the coming of the Normans to the final enforcement of Protestantism under Charles I., the mutual animosity of the natives and the colonists deepened the estrangement between Dublin and Armagh. Irish clerks and Irish monks were excluded from English benefices and English monasteries, while the Saxon was shut out from foundations beyond the Pale. At length the Reformation freed Dublin from its dependence by an order in council (1551).

The mendicants reached Ireland soon after their foundation, and have ever since rendered great services to their Church. Even before the Reformation "no person of the Church, high or low, great or small, English or Irish, used to preach the word of God, saving the poor friars beggars." Ecclesiastical discipline had perished in the general desolation. Great foundations like Clonmacnoise and Ardagh were without vestments and church plate. Walled towns alone possessed means for the decent conduct of public worship.

The earlier measures of Henry VIII. met

with little opposition. The declaration of the royal supremacy (28 Henry VIII., c. 13) was accepted by the Catholics of the Pale, and generally disregarded by the Celts. The only protest against the dissolution of the monasteries came from the Deputy and Council, who regarded it as a blow fatal to the education "of the whole Englishry of this land." The attempt made in 1551 to force the ritual of 1549 upon the Irish was the first step which provoked resistance. The new doctrines were preached in a foreign tongue. The new preachers were time-servers, and men of scandalous lives. *Zealous* Protestants refused the cure of souls whom they could not hope to instruct. On the death of Edward VI. the old rites were restored, and the Protestant prelates withdrew. The religious policy of Elizabeth is well illustrated by her reply to Hugh O'Neill's demand for liberty of conscience. "Her Majesty hath tolerated herein hitherto, and so in likelihood she will continue the same." Catholicism was a real danger to an excommunicated sovereign, and there were too many Irish Catholics in the queen's armies for a systematic persecution of the Catholic faith. The steps which gradually led to the fusion of the Anglo-Normans of the Pale, and their old enemies the Celts, into a "quasi-nation," have been indicated in the general article on Ireland. Careful provision for the Anglican Church was made in the plantation under James I., and again at the Restoration. But her position was essentially weak. The highest offices were invariably filled with English courtiers. The Archbishop of Dublin was usually one of the chief Parliamentary managers for the crown. Non-residence was shamefully common amongst the dignitaries of the Establishment, while extreme poverty hampered the usefulness of the country parsons. Their missionary efforts bore little fruit, but as resident country gentlemen they did much to improve the social condition of the people. The provisions of the penal code affecting Catholic laymen belong to the political history of Ireland. But there were many special laws aimed directly at the priesthood. By an Act of 1703 all priests were compelled to register their names and addresses, and take the oath of allegiance. Over a thousand obeyed. In 1709 they were required to take the oath of abjuration, which they believed to be unlawful. Less than forty submitted The rest incurred the penalty of banishment for life, and of death if they returned. All the dignitaries of the Church, from archbishops to vicars-general, all friars, and all unregistered priests, were liable to the pains of treason. Catholic education was absolutely forbidden, while the proselytism of the Charter Schools (1733) was encouraged by heavy subsidies, and special legislative restrictions on the natural rights of parents. The penal system inflicted frightful evils on the country, but of course failed of its object. From the first, "Popish priests spared not to come out of Spain, from Rome and from Reimes, only to draw the people into the Church of Rome." Even in the worst days bishops, arch-priests, and vicars-general lurked disguised in obscure farmhouses. In 1732 there were 892 mass-houses, served by 1,445 priests, besides regulars, in the kingdom. Twenty years later an organised hierarchy of twenty-four archbishops and bishops administered the Church, under the general supervision of the Nuncio at Brussels. The prelates were still nominated by the exiled Stuarts. After the middle of the eighteenth century many causes tended to promote a general toleration. The spirit of Locke and Hoadley prevailed amongst educated Protestants. Educated Catholics brought home the doctrines of the Encyclopédie from France. A Gallican tinge pervaded the priesthood. The bishops of Munster were censured by the Propaganda for approving the oath embodied in 13 and 14 George III., c. 35. The teaching of Abernethy and of Francis Hutcheson had diffused a rationalistic spirit amongst the Ulster Presbyterians. The schisms of the "New Lights" in 1726, and of the rigid Covenanters twenty years later, broke their power. The toleration of 1778 sprang, as Charlemont said, "rather from fashionable Deism than from Christianity, which is now unfortunately much out of fashion." But the latitudinarian phase soon passed away. The Evangelical movement and the Ultramontane revival embittered the animosities caused by the rebellion and its suppression, by O'Connell's agitations, by the Church Temporalities Act of 1833, the appropriation clause of 1835, the tithe war, and the education question. The position of the Establishment was indefensible. The enfranchisement of the Catholics (1793) sealed its doom. The Protestants realised their danger, and made an express guarantee of the rights of the Church an indispensable condition of the Union. This policy was for a time successful, but no guarantee could permanently maintain so glaring an abuse. In March, 1868, Mr. Gladstone carried resolutions condemning the existence of the Church as an Establishment. A dissolution followed in the autumn, and the Liberals acceded to power. In the first session of the new Parliament an Act "to put an end to the Established Church in Ireland, and to make provision in respect of the temporalities thereof," became law. The Episcopalians availed themselves of the change thus wrought in their position to revise their constitution and liturgy in an anti-sacerdotal sense. The Catholic Church has made great material progress during the last half century, while her discipline has been thoroughly reformed under the vigorous rule of a new school of prelates. "Secularism" has of late begun to threaten her political

power. The Presbyterians are still the strongest and most numerous communion in the North.

Reeves's ed. of Adamnan's *Life of St. Columba*, and the scattered papers of the same writer in the *Proceedings of the Royal Irish Academy*; the Lives of the Irish Saints in the Bollandist *Acta Sanctorum*; Lanigan, *Ecclesiastical History of Ireland to the Beginning of the Thirteenth Century*; Montalembert, *Monks of the West* (for the missionaries); Luke Wadding, *Annales Minorum*; de Burgo, *Hibernia Dominicana*; Dr. Moran, *Essays on the Origin, &c., of the Early Irish Church, Spicilegium Ossoriense, Historical Sketch of the Persecutions, &c.*; the Ecclesiastical Histories of Brenan (R. C.), Mant (Episcopalian), Reid and Killen (Presbyterian). The best general sketch since the Reformation will be found in Lecky's *Hist. of Eng. in the Eighteenth Century*. [J. W. F.]

Irish Land Acts. [LAND LEGISLATION, IRISH.]

Irish Society, THE. Under James I. a committee was formed by twelve of the London city companies, to colonise the confiscated lands of O'Neil and O'Donnell in Ulster, and the Ulster plantation, with Londonderry and Coleraine as chief towns, was the result (1613). The charter was taken away in 1637, but restored, though with some changes, in 1670. This corporation still owns much land in the north of Ireland.

Isabella OF ANGOULÊME (*d.* 1246), second wife of King John, was the daughter of Almeric, Count of Angoulême. She was betrothed to Hugh of Lusignan, but when John became enamoured of her, in 1200, she was married to him, on the divorce of his first wife, Hadwisa, who was put away on the plea of consanguinity, while Isabella's betrothal was likewise annulled. After John's death she returned to Angoulême, and in 1220 she married her former lover, Hugh of Lusignan, whom she induced to transfer his allegiance from the French king to her son Henry III. This step resulted in the war in Poitou, in which Henry and his step-father were beaten, and Isabella had, in 1244, to flee to the abbey of Fontevraud, "where," says Matthew Paris, "she was hid in a secret chamber, and lived at her ease, though the Poitevins and the French, considering her the cause of the disastrous war, called her by no other name than Jezebel, instead of her rightful appellation of Isabel." At Fontevraud she took the veil, and shortly afterwards died.

Matthew Paris, *Hist. Anglor.*

Isabella, wife of Edward II. (*b.* 1292, *d.* 1358), was the daughter of Philip IV. of France. She was betrothed to Prince Edward in 1301, and the marriage took place in 1308. Her husband's attachment to Gaveston alienated her from him, and towards all his confidential ministers she displayed a settled aversion. She seems to have been very popular with the baronial party, and more particularly with the citizens of London. The insult offered to her by Lord Badlesmere, who refused to allow her to enter Leeds Castle, Kent, was the cause indirectly of the temporary downfall of the baronial party, and the defeat of Lancaster at Boroughbridge. It is doubtful whether Isabella had formed any intimacy with Mortimer previously to her journey to France in 1325, but some writers assert that it was by her means that he effected his escape from the Tower. A dispute having arisen between Edward II. and his brother-in-law, the French king, Isabella was sent over to France to arrange the matter in 1325. Having induced the king to send over Prince Edward to join her, she openly declared her intention of returning to England to deliver her husband from the hands of the Despencers. Many of the excited and discontented barons had assembled at the French court, and with their aid and the troops she obtained from Hainault, she got together a sufficient force to enable her to venture on invading England. She landed in Sept., 1326, near Harwich, where she was joined by many of the nobles. Her party gradually gathered strength as she marched westward against the king. Edward surrendered, the Despencers were executed, and shortly afterwards the king was deposed, and Prince Edward placed on the throne. From this time till the end of 1330 the queen and her paramour, Mortimer, were supreme. Edward II. was, in all probability, put to a cruel death, the greater part of the royal revenues were placed in the queen's lands, and all attempts to give the young king a real share in the government were defeated. The terror which these two confederates had managed to establish was seen by the way in which the conspiracy of the Earl of Kent, the uncle of the young king, the Archbishop of York, and the Bishop of London, was suppressed. Kent was seized and put to death. But a more formidable movement was now made. King Edward, acting in alliance with some of the barons, suddenly seized Mortimer at Nottingham (1330), and had him speedily tried and executed. The queen was excluded from all further share in the government, and compelled to pass the remainder of her life in retirement at Castle Rising, on a yearly allowance of £3,000.

Robert of Avesbury, *Chronicle* (printed by Hearne); Knyghton (in Twysden, *Scriptores Decem*); Longman, *Hist. of Edward III.*

Isabella (*d.* 1409), was the daughter of Charles VI. of France, and at the age of eight, in 1396 became the second wife of Richard II. By this marriage an end was put for a time to the war between the two countries. After her husband's deposition she returned to France, but for some time resolutely refused to marry again, retaining her belief that Richard was still alive, and attempting more than once to join him. In 1406, being

convinced of his death, she married Charles, Duke of Orleans. [RICHARD II.]

Isabella (*b.* 1332, *d.* 1379), the eldest daughter of Edward III., was betrothed to Count Louis of Flanders, in 1347. This marriage, however, was distasteful to the young noble, and he escaped into France to avoid fulfilling the contract. Eighteen years later (July, 1365), she was married to Ingebrand de Coucy, who had, in the previous year, come to England as a hostage for King John of France. Her husband was made Earl of Bedford soon after the birth of his first child (1366). De Coucy, in the course of the next few years, went over to the French interests, and was at last parted from his wife, who returned to England after her husband had renounced all his English estates (*circa* 1377). Two years later she died.

Mrs. Green, *Lives of the Princesses of England.*

Isabella (*b.* 1214, *d.* 1241), the second daughter of King John, was married to the Emperor Frederick II., in the year 1235, after negotiations had been set on foot for her marriage with Alexander II. of Scotland (1220), and even with Henry, King of the Romans (1225), the son of her future husband. In 1238 the new empress gave birth to a son, who was named Henry, after his uncle Henry III. Isabella does not seem to have enjoyed the society of her husband much, as she lived for the most part by herself at Noenta. In 1241, however, she met her brother Richard on his return from the Holy Land, though not without considerable difficulty. Isabella died at Foggia towards the close of the same year. Henry III.'s grief for his sister's death was so great that he gave the large sum of £208 6s. 8d. to his almoner to be distributed among the poor in one day for his sister's soul. Her son Henry, in later years, became titular "King of Jerusalem," but died in 1254 at the age of sixteen—"a victim, as is generally supposed, to the traitorous artifices of his brother Conrad."

Mrs. Green, *Lives of the Princesses of England,* vol. ii.

Island Scots, THE, seem to have settled in Ireland some time during the reign of Henry VIII. These Redshanks, as they were often called, were most of them Highlanders, and they issued forth from their Ulster fastnesses for the sake of plunder. The efforts of the Earl of Sussex as Lord Deputy, and of Ormonde, were insufficient for repressing them. Their chief, MacConnel, was as a rule the close ally of the terrible O'Neils; but about 1564 Shane O'Neil attacked them and defeated them in a great battle, killing their chiefs. In revenge for this defeat, Oge MacConnel, the brother of the slain chief, caused Shane, when a suppliant in his camp, to be brutally murdered. During the whole of the troubles of Elizabeth's reign, they held Antrim and Down; during the reign of James I., too, till the year 1619, when Sir Randal MacConnel, or MacDonald, was their chief.

Island Voyage, THE, is the name given to the disastrous expedition to the Azores undertaken by Essex and Raleigh in 1597.

Isles, LORDS OF THE. The Lords of the Isles claimed their descent from Somerlaed, Regulus of Argyle, who towards the middle of the twelfth century obtained possession of half of the Sudereys. [HEBRIDES.] Douglas has quoted a letter, dated 1292, bidding Alexander de Insulis Scotiæ to keep the peace within his bounds of the isles till the next meeting of Parliament. The same authority mentions an indenture, dated 1334, by which Baliol yielded to John, Lord of the Isles of Mull, Skye, Islay, and other islands, while that nobleman in return became the liegeman of the king. In later years, however, John seems to have done homage to David II. (*circa* 1344). In 1356 Edward III. treated with him as an independent prince, and in the treaty for the liberation of King David (1357) the truce between England and Scotland included John of the Isles and all the other English allies. Though some years later John of the Isles (*d.* 1387) bound himself to answer for all taxes the king might impose on his domains, yet he was to all intents and purposes an independent prince, and was the first to assume the title of Lord of the Isles. He was succeeded by his son David, who claiming the earldom of Man in right of his wife, invaded the Lowlands, and was defeated at Harlaw, near Aberdeen (1411). His son Alexander, who succeeded to his father about 1426, was forced to beg pardon for the rebellion he raised against James I., "attired in his shirt and drawers and kneeling before the high altar of Holyrood Church." Alexander's son John, who was Lord of the Isles from 1449 to 1498, joined in the Douglas rebellion of 1451; and in 1481 was in treasonable communication with Edward IV., for which he was outlawed, and several of the island chieftains transferred their allegiance from him to the crown. From this time the glory of the lordship disappeared; the title was indeed resumed by a John of Islay under James V.; but it was only an empty vaunt. The real power on the western coast passed from the Macdonalds to the Campbells, though the former long kept up a kind of royal state in Skye.

Douglas, *Peerage of Scotland.*

Islip, SIMON (*d.* 1366), Archbishop of Canterbury (1349—1366), was one of the royal secretaries, and on the death of Bradwardine was appointed to the metropolitan see. He is famous as an ecclesiastical reformer, and did much to remedy some of the crying

abuses in the Church. He boldly reproved Edward III. for the extravagance and luxury of his court and household, and assisted in enacting the famous Statutes of Provisors and Præmunire which were levied against the oppressions of the Popes. The conduct of this archbishop on several occasions merits great praise; especially so in the case of the Flagellants, who in the early days of his office were swarming into England. These he found on enquiry to be mere enthusiasts, and not men of loose lives; hence he left their frenzy to die of its own accord, and would not encourage it by persecution. In 1359 we find him ordering prayers throughout the kingdom for the success of Edward III.'s French expedition.

Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops of Canterbury.*

Italy, Relations with. As Italy has only recently become a single state, its relations with England are very hard to define. In a sense, all the relations of England with Imperial and Papal Rome come within this question. The literary and civilising influences which the home of ancient culture has constantly exercised on mediæval England, have a still more direct claim for treatment. But the mere political relations of the various governments of Italy and England only necessitate a much more cursory consideration. The States of mediæval Italy were too small, too self-centred, and too remote to have many direct political dealings with the distant and barbarous English. Some of the more important transactions will be found under Empire, Relations with, Papacy, Relations with, etc. The close friendship of the Normans of England with the Normans of Naples, especially as instanced in the effect upon each other of the systems of government of Henry II. and William the Good—the long struggle of Henry III. to get Naples for his son Edmund of Lancaster—the influence of Italian lawyers and financiers on Edward I. —the want of faith of Edward III. to his Florentine creditors—our commercial dealings with Venice, are, if we leave literary connections out of sight, perhaps the most important examples of direct relations between the two countries during the Middle Ages. The struggles of Henry VIII. to enter into the European system which was formed almost in consequence of the break-up of the political system of mediæval Italy —his political alliance with the Pope and the Venetians—his efforts to exclude both French and Imperial influences in turn, are of small importance when compared with the influence of the New Learning on the spiritual and intellectual life of the country, or even the indirect political influences of Italian examples of tyranny in an age when Thomas Cromwell learnt his methods of government from the Prince of Machiavelli. Despite the cessation of all religious dealings in consequence of the Reformation, and of most political dealings as the result of the subjection of Italy to the Austro-Spanish house, the literary and civilising—too often the corrupting—influence of Italy on England was never stronger than during the Elizabethan age. All writers, from Harrison to Ascham and Shakespeare, largely testify to its importance. Yet, hardly excepting the constant intercourse with Venice—whose diplomatists still embodied the results of their objective study of our affairs in their despatches and *Relazioni*—our political dealings with Italy were unimportant. This is especially the case during the seventeenth century, a period peculiarly barren in its foreign relations. James I.'s sympathy for Father Paul and the Venetians —Cromwell's intervention on behalf of the Vaudois of Piedmont—the Travels of Duke Cosimo III. of Tuscany in England during the reign of Charles II.—the marriage of James II. with Maria of Modena—are fair instances of the sort of relations that existed between the two countries. After the Revolution of 1688 had again made England a great European power, our political dealings with Italy became more important. The assistance England from time to time gave to the rising power of Piedmont, excited great indignation from the Austrians. For example, the Treaties of Worms (1743) and Aachen (1748), and the consequent rupture between Austria and England. The vigour which compelled Don Carlos of Naples to abandon his allies during the same war may also be mentioned as illustrating the natural hostility of England to the Bourbon Kings of Naples. Yet English fleets protected the Neapolitan partners of the Family Compact when, in evil days for monarchy, the French Directory and the Empire successively drove them from the mainland. Nelson's unfortunate dealings with Naples, the gallant incursion which led to the victory of Maida, are conspicuous instances of English relations with that monarchy. The gradual emancipation of nineteenth century Italy, associated as it is with the name of Garibaldi, has constantly found warm sympathy from English public opinion, though the colder support of English diplomacy drove Cavour to seek in Napoleonic France a strange ally in a struggle for national liberty.

[T. F. T.]

J

Jacobites, The (from *Jacobus*, the Latin for James), were the adherents of the Stuart cause after the Revolution of 1688. The expulsion of James II. had been effected with surprisingly little difficulty; but the unpopularity of the new government, the crushing taxation which the great war involved, the

party triumph of the Whigs, the presence of James in Ireland, and the reaction which always succeeds revolution, had produced in a very short time a formidable party of friends of the exiled house. The Tories and High Churchmen began to realise that the Revolution could be justified only on Whig principles, when, despite the efforts of William III., the Whigs assumed the control of the administration. The very Churchmen who had led the opposition to a Popish king became the founders of the schism of the Nonjurors. They and the Catholics could not be other than avowed Jacobites. But among the nominal adherents of William there was a class of what a prominent Whig called "Nonjuring swearers," whose acquiescence in the Revolution was at best formal, whose more active section might be relied upon to join a Jacobite revolt, and whose passive section would, at least, welcome the restoration of the exiled dynasty. A large section of the Tory party fell within the latter category. "Several in England," writes a Jacobite agent, "wish the king well who would not risk their estates for him. If he came with ten thousand men, not a sword would be drawn against him." Thus there were, besides the avowed Jacobites, the Nonjurors, and the Catholics, a very large class of Jacobite sympathisers. There were, moreover, a large number of prominent statesmen who, in an age of loose political morality, did not scruple to secure a safe retreat for themselves in the event of the restoration of King James. Many of the great Whig and Tory leaders—Russell, Leeds, Shrewsbury, Godolphin, Marlborough—carried on an active intrigue with the banished king. Besides the above classes, there was a nucleus for organisation in the exiled Court of St. Germain, whence many a subtle and experienced intriguer set forth to win back for the king his lost throne. The active support of the French could be relied upon; and, besides the English Jacobites, they could rely, in Scotland, on the bulk of the Highland clans, more jealous of the Whig clan of the Campbells than zealous for divine right, but ever ready to revive the glories of Montrose and Dundee. The persecuted Episcopalian sect in the Lowlands were Jacobites to a man; and, after the Darien episode had re-kindled the national animosity of Scotland against England, the Jacobite emissaries were not without hope even that Whigs and Presbyterians might be impelled by patriotism to support the old line of Scottish monarchs. In Ireland, after the failure of James II.'s forces and the triumph of the English, there was little chance of any Jacobite movement. Religious and national sentiment brought the Irish to the side of James. The penal code and the Protestant ascendancy made revolt impossible. Still, something could be hoped for if England were to rise.

When the appeal to arms had proved unavailing in Scotland and Ireland, and a French landing had been made impracticable by the victory of La Hogue, a series of plots and conspiracies—aimed against the life and throne of William—kept up the activity of the Jacobite party. Of these, the *Assassination Plot* was the most famous. But such atrocities only had the effect of weakening the Jacobite cause. Combined with the sturdy bigotry of James and his traitorous dependence on the foreign enemy of England, it alienated the bulk of the Tory party, on whom the hopes of the exiled house really depended. Even the Jacobite party split up into *Compounders*, who were only anxious for a conditional restoration, with constitutional guarantees, and the *Non-Compounders*, who, in blind adherence to the theories of divine right and passive obedience, thought it downright Whiggery to impose terms on the Lord's anointed. The prevalence of Non-Compounding views at St. Germains, the refusal of James to abdicate in his son's favour or bring him up a Protestant, completed the alienation of the Jacobites from English popular sentiment. The Peace of Ryswick was, for a time, fatal to their hope of French aid. The passing of the Act of Settlement, in a Tory Parliament, marks the lowest point of their fortunes.

Under Queen Anne, the Jacobite policy was changed. The death of James was a great help to it. His son, James III., as he styled himself—the Chevalier de St. George, or the Old Pretender, as others styled him—was at least personally innocent; and his recognition by Louis XIV., and the renewal of hostilities with England, revived the hopes of the party. But most was expected from the development of the High Church Toryism, of which Dr. Sacheverell was the popular exponent. The Scotch Jacobites might, indeed, under cover of hostility to the Union, assail the queen's throne; but the English Jacobites directed their main efforts to secure the succession on her death, to avail themselves of Anne's notorious affection for her family and dislike of the House of Brunswick, and even to obtain, by peaceful means, a repeal of the Act of Settlement. The Ministry of Harley and Bolingbroke put all the resources of the State in the hands of the Jacobite intriguers. The army was newly modelled under the Jacobite Ormonde. All possible means were taken to secure the proclamation of James on the queen's approaching death. But the quarrel of Harley and Bolingbroke, the new attitude of the Whigs in Church matters, the *coup d'état* which made Shrewsbury Treasurer, and the premature death of the queen, frustrated the well-laid plan. George I. peacefully ascended the throne. The Tory ministers were impeached, imprisoned, exiled. The death of Louis XIV., and the anxiety of the Regent

Orleans to be on good terms with England, was the culminating disaster. Bolingbroke was now the Pretender's Secretary of State. His hopes died when the old king expired; but either James was too obstinate or the news came too late to stop the revolt in the Highlands, which was the outcome of the intrigues of the last few years.

Under such gloomy circumstances, the first great Jacobite rising—the affair of 1715—began; the offspring of levity or despair, after the death of Anne and Louis XIV. had made any external assistance impossible. Ormonde made a gallant but ineffectual attempt to land in Devonshire; but there, as elsewhere, the planned revolt of the friends of James was prevented by the vigour and activity of the new government. The arrest of six Tory members of Parliament deprived the Jacobites of leaders. The University of Oxford and the western counties were dragooned into loyalty; only in Northumberland was a rising effected in England, and the choice of Mr. Forster as its leader was fatal to its small hopes of success. Meanwhile, more formidable risings had broken out in Scotland. On Oct. 12 Lord Kenmure proclaimed King James at Moffat. Foiled at Dumfries, but joined by Lords Nithisdale, Wintoun, and Carnwath, with two hundred horse, he crossed the borders, and joined Forster's "handful of Northumberland Foxhunters." But the Highland revolt alone possessed any real importance. This was led by Lord Mar, who, after accepting George I., had suddenly hurried north; and on Sept. 6 had raised his standard in Braemar. A large number of the clans joined him; and, despite his personal incompetence and failure to surprise Edinburgh Castle, he entered Perth, detached Brigadier Macintosh to join Kenmure and Forster, and ultimately advanced against Argyle, appointed to command King George's forces in Scotland. On Nov. 13 the Battle of Sheriffmuir, near Stirling, was fought, and Mar was compelled to retreat northwards. The landing of the Pretender at Peterhead could not revive the falling cause. James and Mar re-embarked for the Continent, and the insurgent army was dispersed. The southern rebels, after a fruitless march southward to Preston, in Lancashire, surrendered at that town to the royal forces. The chief prisoners were tried and executed. The last hope of the Jacobites was destroyed by the dismissal of Bolingbroke. The expulsion of the Pretender from France ratified the alliance of England and her old enemy. So little formidable were the Jacobites now, that Harley's impeachment was dropped; and, though the intrigues of Alberoni and the plot of Bishop Atterbury for awhile revived interest in the cause, the long ministry of Walpole, his policy of conciliation and peace, and the similar disposition of the French government, postponed the hopes of the Jacobites for a generation.

In 1742, the fall of Walpole revived political intrigue, and the renewal of war with France gave the Jacobites fresh hopes of French aid. In Prince Charles, the young Pretender, the party found a more gallant and romantic leader than in James, his father. Undeterred by the disastrous storm which wrecked the French transports and ruined the projected invasion in 1744, Charles landed near Moidart, with seven followers, on July 25, 1745. Joined by Lochiel, and by other important chieftains, Charles found little difficulty in gathering a great army of the clans, and was accepted as Prince by the greater part of the Highlands. Sir John Cope, the English commander, abandoned his strong position at Corry Arrack, and left the road to the Lowlands open. At Perth, the Duke of Perth and Lord George Murray joined the Pretender's cause. After the "Canter of Coltbrigg," in which the regulars fled in disgraceful panic from the irregular Highland hordes, Edinburgh was occupied by Charles. On Sept. 20 the battle of Preston Pans inflicted on Cope the defeat he had avoided at Corry Arrack. After a brief period of inaction and gaiety, Charles started in November on an invasion of England. He besieged and conquered Carlisle, and, helped by the inactivity of Marshal Wade, marched far into the heart of England. At Manchester some slight feeling in the Pretender's favour was manifested; but, as a rule, the population, though not very zealous for an unpopular and foreign monarch, were perfectly indifferent to the cause of the Jacobites. On Dec. 4 Charles entered Derby, but the division of his followers, and the vastly superior forces of Wade and Cumberland, necessitated a retreat. Meanwhile, the Lowlands of Scotland had quietly renewed their allegiance to George when the backs of the Highlanders were turned. Followed closely by a superior army, Charles retired hastily to Glasgow; but, strengthened by new Highland reinforcements, he gave battle on Jan. 23, 1746, to General Hawley at Falkirk. The wild charge of the Highlanders again won the day; but they dispersed to their homes with the booty, and Charles, deserted on every side, was driven to bay on Culloden Moor on April 16. Cumberland, with 12,000 regular troops, made short work of the dispirited clansmen. The revolt was over. The Highlands were subdued thoroughly, and for the first time. The abolition of the heritable jurisdictions destroyed the power of the chiefs, and for ever put an end to Highland revolts. Charles, after many adventures, escaped to France.

The very success of the "Forty Five" demonstrated the hopelessness of a Jacobite reaction. The national, religious, and political principles of the vast bulk of the nation made

it impossible. The age was not one favourable for lost causes or chivalrous hallucinations. The party which adhered steadfastly to obsolete political doctrine, which found in France its constant supporter, and in Catholicism its congenial creed, could make no way in eighteenth century England. Charles himself visited London in 1750, if not on later occasions; but he soon gave up politics for drink and debauchery. The brilliant successes of Pitt reconciled his party to the new administration. The accession of George III. was gladly availed of as an excuse for a return to their allegiance. The new Tory party was purged from all suspicion of Jacobitism. Under George III. that party became triumphant. The downfall of the Whigs was the downfall of the last hope of the Jacobites. But years before that, none but a few theorists of divine right, or the fanatics of Nonjuring, hoped for a Jacobite restoration.

Jesse, *Memoirs of the Pretenders;* The *Stuart Papers;* Johnstone, *Memoirs of the Rebellion of 1745;* Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.;* Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.;* Burton, *Hist. of Scotland;* Lecky, *Hist. of Eng.;* Ewald, *Life and Times of Prince Charles Stuart;* Macpherson, *State Papers; Life of James II.;* Campana de Cavelli, *Les Derniers Stuarts à St. German.* [T. F. T.]

Jacquetta of Luxemburg (*d.* 1472) was the daughter of the Count de St. Pol, and was married in 1433 to John, Duke of Bedford. After his death she became the wife of Sir Richard Woodville, and by him was the mother of Elizabeth Woodville, the queen of Edward IV.

Jaenbert, Archbishop of Canterbury (766—791), attempted to thwart Offa in his designs on the kingdom of Kent. When Jaenbert's appeal to Charles the Great was disregarded, Offa, in revenge for his opposition, erected Lichfield into an archbishopric, giving to that see authority over Mercia and the whole of the possessions which belonged to Canterbury. Jaenbert lived to see his rival receive the *pallium* from Rome, and was himself compelled to recognise the independence of the Mercian see. He was the first archbishop to coin money in England.

Jamaica is the largest of the British West Indian Islands. It was first discovered by Columbus, May 2, 1494, was colonised by the Spaniards in 1509, and held by them until the English captured it in 1655. The Spanish rule proved most disastrous to the island, and it is said that when our troops took possession of the country there was not a single aboriginal inhabitant remaining. In 1605 the capital of the island, St. Iago, which had been founded by Diego Columbus in 1526, was taken by a British fleet under Sir Anthony Shirley. In 1655 the island was captured by General Venables, and measures for its settlement were taken by Cromwell, who issued an ordinance to the effect that no duty should be levied on any goods exported to Jamaica. The island was at first governed by a military council, and many of the troops were disbanded, and induced to form settlements. In 1662 the island was divided for municipal purposes into seven parishes, under regular magistrates, and, two years later, a legislative assembly was created. By the Treaty of Madrid, 1670, Jamaica was formally ceded to England, and speedily became one of the most valuable possessions of the crown. The history of Jamaica from this time is little more than a record of slave insurrections and Maroon wars. From 1664 till 1740 the Maroons continued in more or less open hostility to the colonists, and it was found necessary to maintain in the island a large force of regular troops. In 1760 a formidable insurrection took place, which was followed by another in 1765, caused principally by the ill-treatment to which the slaves were subjected, and by the inhuman punishments inflicted on them. Thirty years later (1795) another rebellion broke out, in spite of an Act which had been passed three years before for ameliorating the position of the slaves. The attempts of the English government on behalf of the negroes, and still more the representations which were gradually being made in England in favour of the abolition of slavery, had the effect of stirring up much ill feeling amongst the colonists of Jamaica, who talked freely of separating from England and joining the United States. The negroes, believing that the planters were wrongfully keeping their liberty from them, rose *en masse* in 1831, in spite of the efforts of the clergy to restrain their violence. The rebellion was crushed with great severity and much needless cruelty. In 1833 a bill for the Abolition of Slavery was passed, and from Aug. 1, 1834, all slaves were to be set free, and to become apprenticed labourers. This act, however did but little towards alleviating the sufferings of the negroes, and in 1836 a Parliamentary Committee was appointed to enquire into the question, with the result that, in 1838, in spite of the protests of the Jamaica assembly, apprenticeship was abolished, thus averting another impending insurrection. The decline of Jamaica is sometimes erroneously ascribed to the abolition of slavery; it had commenced a century before, and was due to insular jealousy and misrule. When the mismanagement of affairs in Jamaica had become only too apparent in 1839, a motion to suspend the constitution of the government for five years was lost by so narrow a majority as to cause the fall of the English ministry. From 1864 till 1866 the government was carried on by a governor, council, and representative assembly. In 1865 a rebellion broke out and was repressed with great severity by Governor Eyre. On Dec. 21, 1865, the representative constitution was abolished by the legislature, this abolition

being afterwards confirmed by the British Parliament. Affairs have since been administered by a governor, appointed by the crown, assisted by a legislative assembly, partly elected and partly nominated. Besides the assembly, there is a privy council, not exceeding eight in number, who are either named by the king or appointed by the governor, subject to the approval of the crown. Jamaica is at the present time making considerable progress. Of her two great difficulties, that of the slaves has disappeared, and that of the mismanagement of the land is rapidly being smoothed away.

Long, *Hist. of Jamaica*; Martin, *Hist. of British Colonies*; Creasy, *Britannic Empire*; Southey, *Hist. of the West Indies*; B. Edwardes, *West Indies*. [S. J. L.]

James I., King of Scotland (*b.* 1394, *s.* 1424, *d.* 1437), the second son of Robert III., was captured, when only eleven years old, by an English ship whilst on his way to the court of France to receive his education there (1405). On his father's death (1406), he was acknowledged King of Scotland, the regency being undertaken by Albany, to whose machinations his capture and subsequent long captivity have been ascribed. Whilst a prisoner in England, James, naturally a man of great ability, received an education which eminently fitted him to play the part of king, and made him one of the most accomplished princes of his age. After the death of Albany (1419), negotiations for his release were commenced which at last ended in his return home, where he was crowned at Scone, May, 1424. Before he left England, James I. had married Jane Beaufort, daughter of the Earl of Somerset, and cousin of Henry V. The effect of his English education was soon apparent on his return to Scotland; his first act was to put to death the regent Murdoch of Albany for abusing his power, a step which was quickly followed by the re-constitution of the Scottish Parliament, the reformation of the statute law, and a general valuation of all property for the purposes of taxation. In 1427 James seized and imprisoned sundry turbulent Highland chieftains at Inverness, and declared his intention of putting down the acts of lawlessness which were so common. In 1436 he sent his daughter to France to be married to the Dauphin, afterwards Louis XI., thus cementing the connection which already existed between Scotland and the French court. Meanwhile, the king's reforms, his attempts to diminish the power of the great nobles, and the necessity of imposing taxes, gave rise to a conspiracy against him. On the night of Feb. 20, 1437, he was brutally murdered, in the abbey of Black Friars at Perth, by a band of 300 conspirators headed by Sir Robert Graham. This murder was amply avenged by his queen, whom the assassins had spared in their hurry. James I. was perhaps the ablest king Scotland had yet known; he was a man of letters, a lover of justice, a prince actuated by the desire of doing good to his country and people. He was the only poet of real genius in either England or Scotland during the fifteenth century. His *King's Quair* and *Christe's Kirk on the Green* have been justly praised. His *Poetical Remains* were published by Mr. Tytler in 1783.

Fordun, *Scotichronicon*; Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*; Wintoun, *Cronykil*; Walpole, *Royal and Noble Authors*; Chalmers, *Historic Remains of Scottish Worthies*; Pinkerton, *Scottish History*.

James II., King of Scotland (*b.* 1430, *s.* 1437, *d.* 1460), was the son of James I. After his coronation at Holyrood he was immediately conveyed by his mother to Edinburgh Castle for safety. The queen, alarmed at the action of Sir William Crichton, the governor of the castle, soon contrived to escape to Stirling. Here, however, Crichton succeeded in seizing the young king, who himself did not begin to rule for some years. In 1449 James married Mary, daughter of the Duke of Gueldres. Three years afterwards, in a fit of passion, he stabbed with his own hand William, Earl of Douglas, who had been for some time past in more or less open rebellion to the royal authority. The king was now at war with the house of Douglas, whose estates were declared forfeited to the crown (1454). In 1460 James, who was of a fiery and warlike nature, crossed the English border at the head of a large army to lend aid to Henry VI., but returned without effecting his object. He then undertook the reduction of the castle of Roxburgh, where he was killed by the bursting of a cannon, Aug. 3, 1460. He was on the whole a good king. We are told that "in the time of his later days, his realm was in quiet, prosperous estate, in no fear of outward enemies, and he kept his nobles in loving and noble obedience, and the commons in good peace." His ability, perhaps, comes out more clearly than elsewhere in his method of dealing with the Douglas rebellion. When the Earl of Douglas made alliance with the Earl of Craufurd, James succeeded in enrolling a third noble, belonging to a rival house—the Earl of Huntly—on his own side; and even contrived to split up the great family of the Douglases by winning over one of its chief members, the Earl of Angus, to the royal party (1452—54).

Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*.

James III., King of Scotland (*b.* 1451, *s.* 1460, *d.* 1488), was the son of James II., whom he succeeded when only eight years old. For some time the government of the kingdom was placed in the hands of Kennedy, Bishop of St. Andrews, till, in 1466, the young king was carried off to Edinburgh by the Boyds, after which event the head of

this family became guardian of the kingdom. In 1469 James married Margaret, daughter of Christian, King of Denmark and Norway, receiving as her dowry the Orkney and Shetland Isles. About this time the Boyds were deprived of the estates which the royal bounty had conferred upon them, and the head of the house, the Earl of Arran, who had married the king's sister, was forced to flee into England. Shortly afterwards James expressed a wish to lead an army to the assistance of Louis XI. against the Duke of Burgundy, and was only prevented by the action of the Estates. He is said to have had his brother, the Earl of Mar, put to death, and in 1479 his other brother, Albany, was compelled to seek refuge in France. Meanwhile James's partiality for favourites of low tastes, notably two, named Cochrane and Rogers, gave rise to a conspiracy against him on the part of the Scottish nobles, who seized and hanged several of them at Lauder (1482), where the king had halted on an expedition which had set out to invade England. James, too, was carried to Edinburgh, where, however, he was soon set at liberty, at the request of his brother Albany, who had now returned from France. Before long it was rumoured that the king was in private treaty with England for the purpose of getting assistance in his contemplated vengeance on his enemies. The Estates of the Realm now formed a confederacy against their sovereign, and raised a cry that the young prince, afterwards James IV., was in danger. But the king raised a large army in the North of Scotland, and attacked the rebellious lords at Sauchieburn, near Stirling. He was, however, defeated, and fled for refuge into a house called Beaton's Mill, near Bannockburn, where he was stabbed by an unknown hand, June 18, 1488. James III. was a bad ruler, and a man of avaricious and cowardly disposition. He was charged with drawing his chief friends from the lowest ranks of society; but how far this accusation is strictly true is considered by Mr. Burton to be a doubtful point. For, as this historian points out, the "mason" Cochrane may have been, in reality, the architect of the "noble buildings which, about this time, began to adorn Scotland;" while Rogers the "musician" may have been no mere performer of other men's music, but a great composer. In any case the rude nobility of Scotland were little capable of distinguishing between the various grades of artistic work.

Burton, *Hist. of Scotland.*

James IV., King of Scotland (*b.* 1473, *s.* 1488, *d.* 1513), succeeded his father James III., after the battle of Sauchieburn, 1488, and at once found himself compelled to guard against a plot, formed for the purpose of seizing his person by Henry VII., with the aid of Lord Bothwell. In 1495 James hospitably received Perkyn Warbeck at his court, and the following year sent an expedition across the borders on his behalf. This, however, came to nothing, and shortly afterwards James contrived to get rid of his visitor. In 1497 Henry began to make overtures of peace to Scotland, and in 1502 James IV. married the Princess Margaret of England, and joined the English and Spanish alliance. In 1512 a dispute arose with England out of the capture of some Scotch vessels in the Downs; the French alliance was vehemently pressed upon the king by the Queen of France, who appointed him her knight to maintain her own and her country's cause against their common English enemy. Urged by her entreaties and his own wrongs, James determined to undertake the disastrous campaign, which ended in his total defeat, and was followed by his death at Flodden Field (Sept. 9, 1513). The king left behind him the character of a brave soldier and a just administrator, though his private life is open to severe blame. "For his political government and due administration of justice, which he exercised during the time of his reign, he deserveth to be numbered among the best princes that ever reigned over that nation." To James IV. must be ascribed the establishment of the first efficient navy possessed by Scotland, and the settlement of the Highlands, by distributing garrisons throughout the turbulent districts. With regard to the first of these two achievements, letters of marque were given to two Scotch sea-captains, Sir Alexander Wood and Sir Andrew Barton, who cleared the Scotch coast of English pirate vessels, and carried on their depredations against English and other nations. We are told that towards the close of the reign the Scotch navy consisted of no less than thirteen vessels, one of which, the *Michael*, was the marvel of its day for bulk. The settlement of the Highlands was largely assisted by using the influence of two great families—the Huntlys and the Argyles—who, though Lowland in their origin, had by marriage or other means been gradually acquiring immense possessions and influence in the Highland districts; and this influence James did not scruple to manipulate, so far as he could, for the purposes of strengthening the royal authority in those remote parts.

Burton, *Hist. of Scotland.*

James V., King of Scotland (*b.* 1512, *s.* 1513, *d.* 1542), the son of James IV. and Margaret of England, succeeded his father after the fatal battle of Flodden. As he was not quite two years old, the regency was entrusted to his cousin, the Duke of Albany, who was invited over from France—of which country he was admiral—to undertake this office, at the request of the Estates of the Realm (1515). The queen-dowager, who had married the Earl of Angus almost

immediately after her first husband's death, was soon obliged to yield up her son, whom she had carried off for safety to Stirling Castle. Within a year of his first landing, the regent had crushed all attempts at rebellion, and very soon left Scotland, after having placed French garrisons in several of the strongest fortresses. In Albany's absence, Angus seemed likely to secure the chief power, had he not offended his wife, who urged the absent regent to return (1521). At last, after various fluctuations, and the interference of Wolsey, the young king was installed in Edinburgh as king, and the regency taken away from the Duke of Albany (1524). But, despite the apparent pacification, the great nobles, Angus, Argyle, and Errol, were struggling for power among themselves, and the young king was kept in close duress, till, in 1528, he managed to escape to Stirling. James now took the government into his own hands, and Angus was driven into England. The details of domestic government, the reduction of the lawless borderers and the Highland clans, occupied the next few years of the reign.

In spite of the failure of the proposed alliance with the Princess (afterwards queen) Mary, and in spite of various border frays, a peace was concluded with England in 1534, though James rejected all proposals for a meeting with his uncle, believing that his safety would be endangered. In 1536, the king, whilst at the court of France on a visit, undertaken with the object of marrying Mary, daughter of the Duke of Vendome, fell in love with and married Magdalen, the French king's daughter. Next year, however, the queen died, and James married Mary, daughter of the Duke of Guise (June, 1538). On his return home, the king had begun to occupy himself with domestic affairs, and succeeded in alienating a great number of the nobility by confiscating many estates which had passed into their hands during his minority. Towards the close of his reign he roused his uncle, Henry VIII., to fury by promising to meet him at York, and failing to keep his word through fear. Henry at once declared war on the ground that James was acting treacherously towards England, and the Scotch king could not prevail upon his nobles to cross the border. The disorganisation in his army was taken advantage of by the enemy, and the defeat of Solway Moss was the consequence. A few days afterwards (Dec. 14, 1542), the unfortunate monarch died at Falkland, having just before his death received the tidings of the birth of a daughter, afterwards the famous Mary, Queen of Scots. From his restraint of the nobles, his lavish expenditure, his accomplishments, and his carelessness, he was a favourite with his people, by whom he was long remembered as "the King of the Commons."

Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; *State Papers, Henry VIII.*, with Mr. Brewer's *Introduction*.

James I., King (James VI. of Scotland), (*b.* June 19, 1566, *s.* in Scotland, July 24, 1567, in England, Mar. 24, 1603, *d.* Mar. 27, 1625), was the son of Mary of Scotland and of Henry Darnley. He was entrusted to the care of the Earl of Mar, and of Alexander Erskine, and his principal tutor was the celebrated George Buchanan. In 1578 the regency was taken from the Earl of Morton, and James was henceforth, in name at least, ruler of Scotland. His reign in Scotland was, to a large extent, a quarrel with the clergy and the nobles. In 1581 the General Assembly resolved to abolish Episcopacy; and James, who had been seized by some of the nobles at the raid of Ruthven (q.v.), was unable to prevent it. In 1585 he came to terms with Elizabeth, and made a treaty with her, consenting to receive a pension. The same year he was besieged by the banished lords in Stirling Castle, and was compelled to pardon them, to dismiss his favourite Arran, and to deprive him of his title and estates. Notwithstanding the execution of his mother by Elizabeth, and the disregard of his intercession, he co-operated in the preparations against the Spanish Armada in 1588, and in 1589 drew closer his alliance with the Protestant powers by his marriage with Anne of Denmark (1589). A treasonable attempt was made upon him by Bothwell in 1591, and another in 1593, and in the latter year he was seized and imprisoned by that nobleman, but soon released. In 1594 he undertook a campaign against Huntly and Errol, the great Catholic nobles of the north, and after a victory at Glenlivat, reduced them, and compelled them to quit the country. They were, however, allowed to return in 1597. The breach between James and the Presbyterian clergy had been growing wider for some time, and was increased by the publication of his work, the *Basilicon Doron*, and by the appointment of bishops in 1599. In 1600 occurred a somewhat mysterious plot against his life, known as the Gowrie conspiracy (q.v.). On the death of Elizabeth, James immediately set out for England, and was proclaimed king in March, 1603, being crowned at Westminster on July 25 following. He assumed the title of King of Great Britain, France, and Ireland the following year. In ecclesiastical matters he immediately manifested his preference for the High Church view. The Puritans were thwarted and punished at the Hampton Court conference, while at the same time the Jesuits and seminary priests were ordered to quit the kingdom (Feb., 1604). The anger caused among the Papists by these stringent measures led to the abortive Gunpowder Plot. James almost from the first year of his reign was involved in disputes with his Parliament, chiefly turning on the questions of money and redress of grievances. In 1604 a dispute on the subject of privilege had terminated in

favour of the Commons. The government was extravagantly administered, and the expenses of the court were very great. In order to supply the deficiency in the revenue, Cecil raised loans under the privy seal, and in 1608 issued a Book of Rates, by which the customs on various articles were considerably increased. Notwithstanding, in 1610, the king was obliged to ask the Commons for a large grant, which was made the subject of much bargaining, until finally the Parliament was dissolved, without any result having been attained (Feb., 1611). Cecil died the following year. The chief place in the king's favour was now taken by Robert Carr, a young Scotchman, who was created Earl of Somerset. In Nov., 1612, the young Prince of Wales, Henry, of whose character high expectations had been formed, fell ill and died. The following year James, still adhering to Cecil's policy of opposition to Spain, cemented the alliance with the German princes by marrying his daughter Elizabeth to the Elector Palatine, Frederick V. Somerset was ruined and degraded by the revelation of his wife's murder of Sir Thomas Overbury, and the management of affairs was henceforth (1615) in the hands of James's second favourite, George Villiers, afterwards Duke of Buckingham. The anti-Spanish policy of Cecil was given up, and James entered into negotiations for peace and alliance with Spain. In 1614 Parliament was reassembled, and attempts were made to secure its docility by a body of managers called Undertakers. These, however, were unsuccessful; and the "Addled Parliament," as it was called, was dissolved before any business had been done. The king now resorted to several illegal means of raising money. Benevolences were collected, patents of peerage sold, and numerous monopolies let out to private individuals. In 1617 Sir Walter Raleigh, who had been in prison since 1603, on a charge of complicity in the plots against the king, was released, and allowed to lead an expedition against Guinea, where he hoped to discover gold mines. The expedition proved a failure, and Raleigh on his return was put to death. This was done in deference to Spanish susceptibilities, and was greatly resented by the people. At the beginning of the Thirty Years' War (1618) the feeling in England was strongly in favour of interference on the part of this country in favour of the Protestant Elector. James, however, refused to interfere vigorously, and trusted to his diplomatic skill to mediate between the parties and restore peace. In 1621 another Parliament was called. But after impeaching Bacon, the Lord Chancellor, and inquiring into grievances, a dispute on foreign policy took place between the king and the Commons. James in anger dissolved Parliament (Jan., 1622). Negotiations were set on foot for a marriage between Prince Charles and the Spanish Infanta, to effect which Charles and Buckingham went to Spain in 1623. Buckingham, however, quarrelled with the Spanish ministers, and the match was broken off (Dec., 1623). This led to a sudden reversal of the king's policy. War was declared on Spain in March, 1624, and Count Mansfeldt was allowed to enlist troops in England for the Protestants in Germany. Negotiations were set on foot for a marriage between Charles and Henrietta Maria, the French Princess, but before it was completed James died. "He had," says Mr. Gardiner, "many qualities befitting a ruler in such difficult times. Good-humoured and good-natured, he was honestly desirous of increasing the prosperity of his subjects. . . He was above all things eager to be a reconciler, to make peace where there had been war before, and to draw those to live in harmony who had hitherto glared at one another in mutual defiance. . . With a thorough dislike of dogmatism in others, he was himself the most dogmatic of men. . . He had none of that generosity of temper which leads the natural leaders of the human race to rejoice when they have found a worthy antagonist, nor had he, as Elizabeth had, that intuitive perception of the popular feeling which stood her in such stead during her long career." James wrote a variety of tracts on a number of different subjects. Most of them are absolutely worthless. They were collected in 1616.

Register of Privy Council of Scotland; Letters and State Papers during the Reign of James VI. (Abbotsford Club); *Court and Times of James I.* (1846); Camden, *History of James I.*; Goodman, *Court of James I.*; *Historie and Life of James the Sext* (Bannatyne Club); Dalrymple, *Memorials and Letters Illustrative of Reigns of James I. and Charles I.*; Sir Simonds D'Ewes, *Autobiography*; Sully, *Memoirs*; Rushworth, *Historical Collections, &c.*; Disraeli, *Literary and Political Character of James I.*; Burton, *History of Scotland*; Calderwood, *Hist. of the Church of Scotland.* The history of James's reign in England is told in much detail and with unimpeachable accuracy in Professor S. R. Gardiner's great work, *The History of England, 1603—1642.*

[S. J. L.]

James II., King (*b.* 1633, *r.* Feb. 6, 1685—Dec., 1688, *d.* Sept. 16, 1701), was the second son of Charles I., and Henrietta Maria. He was created Duke of York immediately after his birth. He accompanied his father during the Civil War, and was captured by Fairfax on the surrender of Oxford, but contrived to escape, disguised as a girl, to Holland in April, 1648. He served with reputation in both the French and the Spanish armies, and was to take the command of a force for the invasion of England if the rising of Sir George Booth in 1659 had been successful. In 1660 he returned to England with his brother, and was made Lord High Admiral, subsequently receiving large grants of land in Ireland. In 1665 he took the command of the fleet against the Dutch, and showed great ability in the conduct of naval affairs. In 1669 he

avowed his conversion to Roman Catholicism, and on the passing of the Test Act in 1673 he was obliged to resign his office of Lord High Admiral. The Whig party, headed by Shaftesbury, attempted to get an Exclusion Bill passed depriving him of his right of succession to the throne, and so great was the feeling against him that in 1679 he was induced by the king to go abroad, but before long was recalled and sent as Lord High Commissioner to Scotland, where he showed such harshness and severity that he had to be recalled in 1680. He was in that year presented by the Grand Jury of Middlesex, at Shaftesbury's instigation, as a Popish recusant, but the judge, by suddenly dismissing the jury, quashed the proceedings. He returned to Scotland shortly afterwards, where he remained till 1682. In 1684 he was restored to his office of Lord High Admiral, and to his seat in the Council, and on his brother's death in the next year succeeded to the crown. James commenced his reign with disclaiming any intention of interfering with the Church, and promising a legal form of government; but his acts were not in accordance with his declarations, and his opponents, who in the last years of his brother's reign had found an asylum in Holland, at once began to concert measures for an invasion. Accordingly the Duke of Monmouth landed in England, and the Earl of Argyle in Scotland, but both failed, and the attempt of the former especially was punished with great severity. James was emboldened by this success to proceed with hasty steps in the design which he had formed of restoring Romanism. He had, at the commencement of his reign, made arrangements with that view in Scotland and Ireland, and he now ventured to extend them to England. He claimed a power of dispensing with the penal laws, dismissed his Parliament when it showed a resolution to oppose him, exhausted every effort to gain converts, called such, as well as Roman ecclesiastics, to his councils, laboured to procure the repeal of the Test Act, and forbade the controversial sermons which the clergy, justly alarmed at his proceedings, felt it their duty to deliver. This injunction was disregarded, and to enforce it a new court of ecclesiastical commission was established, which suspended the Bishop of London from his office, and afterwards perpetrated the most flagrant injustice on both universities. The king induced the judges to give a decision in favour of the dispensing power, and he followed this up by forming a camp on Hounslow Heath, the officers of which were chiefly Romanists. He had already published a Declaration of Indulgence (April, 1687), and sedulously courted the Protestant Nonconformists; but they in general mistrusted him, and declined to forward the restoration of Romanism by joining in his attack on the Church. Undeterred by this, he ordered the Declaration to be read in all churches, and on seven of the bishops petitioning against this he sent them to the Tower on the charge of libelling the king. They were soon after put on their trial and acquitted. Just at this juncture a son and heir was born to James, and was considered by the people to be a supposititious child. Meanwhile a number of the leading statesmen of all parties requested James's son-in-law, William of Orange, to come over to England to secure his wife's right to the throne, and protect the liberties and religion of the English people. Accordingly William issued a manifesto, and eventually landed in England on Nov. 5, 1688. James now attempted to retrace his steps. He reinstated the Bishop of London, made such reparation as he could to the universities, and dismissed his most obnoxious counsellors; but he could not regain the confidence of his people. His army melted away, and the prince advanced towards London. James, deserted by most of his friends, sent his queen and infant son to France, and attempted to follow them, quitting Whitehall in disguise on Dec. 11. He was, however, seized near Faversham, and brought back to London, whence in a few days he was removed to Rochester, and was then allowed to escape to France, landing at Ambleteuse on Christmas Day. He was kindly received by Louis, who warmly espoused his cause, and assisted him with troops in his expedition to Ireland in 1689. Landing at Kinsale, he was received with enthusiasm by the Catholics, and for some time seemed likely to succeed in making himself at all events master of Ireland, but the raising of the siege of Londonderry was a great blow to him and in 1690 (July 1) he was totally routed by William in the battle of the Boyne, after which he fled to France. James spent the remainder of his life at St. Germains, engaged in intrigues for recovering possession of his lost crown, but constantly finding his hopes dashed to the ground. James married first Anne Hyde (Sept. 3, 1660), daughter of Lord Clarendon, by whom he had two daughters, Mary and Anne, and four sons and two daughters who died in infancy; and, secondly Mary of Modena (Nov. 21, 1673), who bore him one son and four daughters who died young, and one son, James Edward, known afterwards as the Old Pretender.

James II.'s *Memoirs* (ed. Clarke); *Clarendon State Papers*; *Sydney State Papers*; Fox, *Hist. of James II.*; Welwood, *Memoirs*; Luttrell, *Relation of State Affairs*; Echard, *Hist. of the Revolution*; Burnet, *Hist. of His Own Time*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*

[F. S. P.]

Jameson Raid. [TRANSVAAL COLONY.]

Japan, BRITAIN'S RECENT RELATIONS WITH. The rapid development of Japan has been watched throughout with keen interest

by this country, and in 1894 the British government was the first to assent to the revision of the existing treaties, by which Japan was enabled to assume her rightful place among the nations. After the contest with China, when Russia, Germany, and France combined to deprive Japan of the principal fruits of her victory, the British government again gave expression to its sympathies by refusing to join in the concerted spoliation. During the troubles in China in 1900 the governments of London and Tokio were in close touch as to the methods and plans to be adopted in dealing with the Chinese. This recognition of the identification of the interests in the Far East of the two nations was embodied in a formal treaty of alliance signed on Jan. 30, 1902. This important document contains but six short articles and a preamble which sets forth concisely the objects which the two nations had in view. This preamble declares that Great Britain and Japan are "actuated solely by a desire to maintain the *status quo* and general peace in the Extreme East," and are "specially interested in maintaining the independence and territorial integrity of the Empire of China and the Empire of Corea, and in securing equal opportunities in those countries for the commerce and industry of all nations." Article 1 declares that neither party is influenced by any aggressive tendencies in China or Corea, but recognises that, in view of the special interests of each in these two countries, it is admissible for either to take measures to safeguard those interests if in any way threatened. Article 2 states that if either Great Britain or Japan should become involved in a war in defence of those interests, the other power will "maintain a strict neutrality, and use its efforts to prevent other powers from joining in hostilities against its ally." Article 3 provides that in the event of any other power or powers so joining in hostilities against that ally, the other "will come to its assistance and will conduct the war in common, and make peace in mutual agreement with it." Article 4 provides that neither nation will enter into arrangements with another power prejudicial to these interests, without consultation with the other. Article 5 provides that there shall be "full and frank" communications between the two governments if at any time either should entertain an opinion that its interests are in jeopardy. The final article declares the term of the agreement to be five years from the date of signature, but that twelve months' notice of the intention to terminate it is to be given by one or other of the contracting powers. In 1905 this treaty, with modifications and extensions, was renewed for a term of ten years.

Java, Expedition to (1811). The subjugation of Holland by Napoleon rendered it important to British interests to occupy the Dutch settlements in the East. An expedition was therefore sent against the Spice Islands in 1809, and Amboyna, Banda, and Ternate were occupied after a feeble resistance. The island of Java alone remained, and an expedition was fitted out against it, consisting of ninety sail, on which were embarked 2,000 Europeans and 2,000 sepoys. After some fighting, the island was occupied by the British, and under the government of Mr. (afterwards Sir) Stamford Raffles, flourished for several years, till it was restored to Holland at the general peace of 1815.

Jedburgh, in Roxburghshire, was one of the Scottish strongholds delivered to England in 1174 as security for the fulfilment of the Treaty of Falaise. About the year 1408 it was wrested from the English, by whom it was burnt a century later (1523). In 1544 it was again burnt, by Sir Ralph Evers. Jedburgh was one of the royal burghs, and its abbey was founded by David I.

Jeetgurh (Jeetpore), The Siege of (Jan. 14, 1815). General Wood having been appointed to take Bootwal and penetrate Nepaul, took the field Dec., 1814, after a great deal of delay, and, without any reconnaissance, allowed himself to be brought before the stockade of Jeetgurh, by the treachery of a Brahmin guide. A heavy fire was immediately commenced from the redoubt, which was garrisoned by 1,200 Goorkhas. Though the British army amounted to 4,500 men, the general, after fighting his way to a position which commanded the entrenchment and placed it within his grasp, sounded a retreat just as the enemy had begun to abandon it. [Goorkha War.]

Jeffrey, Francis Lord (*b.* 1773, *d.* 1850), was born and educated at Edinburgh. On being called to the Bar, he found that he could obtain very little legal business, owing to his being a Whig at a time when Tory influence was so predominant in Scotland. Turning his attention to literature, he became one of a small group of men who, towards the year 1802, planned the publication of the *Edinburgh Review*, of which he very soon became the editor. This periodical, which before long took rank as the leading exponent of Whig views, continued under Jeffrey's management till the year 1829. In 1831 Jeffrey was appointed Lord Advocate, and he subsequently entered the House of Commons as member for Edinburgh. In 1834 he was made a judge in the Court of Session.

Cockburn, *Life of Jeffrey.*

Jeffreys, George Lord (*b.* 1648, *d.* 1689), was born in Denbighshire of a respectable family. When called to the Bar (Nov., 1668), he confined himself for a long time to the Old Bailey and criminal courts, where he

speedily rose to the top of his profession in this peculiar line of business. In 1671 he became Common Serjeant of the City of London. Six years later he was made solicitor to the Duke of York, and knighted; while towards the end of the next year he was appointed Recorder of London. Having placed his services at the disposal of the court, he was largely employed in prosecuting those who were accused of being concerned in the Popish Plot. It was in the capacity of Recorder of the City of London that he was at this time of such use to the government, which speedily rewarded him by making him Chief Justice of Chester and a baronet (1680). About the same time he was sworn of the Privy Council. Before the close of the year 1680 Jeffreys was reprimanded in the House of Commons for having obstructed the meeting of Parliament. This censure was mainly due to the instance of the City of London, on which he attempted to revenge himself by his efforts to destroy its municipal institution. After the trial of Lord William Russell and the offenders connected with the Rye House Plot, Jeffreys was appointed Chief Justice of the King's Bench (Nov., 1683). When James II. became king he was raised to the House of Lords as Baron Jeffreys of Wells, May, 1685, and almost immediately afterwards went down into the neighbourhood whence he derived his new title to try the insurgents who had assisted in Monmouth's rebellion (July, 1685). In September, 1685, Jeffreys was made chancellor, and he immediately signalised his appointment to the new office by procuring the "murder" of Alderman Cornish by a packed jury. Jeffreys was next instrumental in obtaining the verdict of the judges in favour of the Dispensing Power, and the revival of the High Commission Court. Then followed the Declaration of Indulgence. On the landing of the Prince of Orange, when James II. left London for Salisbury, Jeffreys was one of the five lords appointed to represent him in his absence. As William's cause prospered daily, the chancellor attempted to escape in a sailor's dress; he was seized by the mob in a Wapping ale-house, but, being secured by the trained bands, was carried before the Lord Mayor and committed to the Tower, where he died a few months later (April, 1689).

Macaulay, *Hist of Eng.*; Campbell, *Lives of the Chancellors*; Roger North, *Lives of the Norths*; Woolrych, *Memoirs of Jeffreys.*

[T. A. A.]

Jekyll, Sir Joseph (*b.* 1663, *d.* 1738), was called to the Bar in 1687. In 1697 he was appointed Chief Justice of Chester, and in the following year was returned for Eye, and received the honour of knighthood. In 1710 he was one of the managers of Sacheverell's impeachment. In 1717 he became Master of the Rolls, and in 1725 one of the Commissioners of the Great Seal. In 1733 he astonished the ministry by his vigorous support of Walpole's Excise Scheme. In the year 1736 he introduced the Gin Act, and the Mortmain Act. "He was," says Stanhope, "a very indifferent speaker, and somewhat open to ridicule in his dress and deportment, but a man of the very highest benevolence and probity." Pope has summed up his character as one "who never changed his principle or wig."

Jellalabad, The Siege of (1842), took place during the first Afghan War. On March 11, 1842, Akbar Khan made his appearance before Jellalabad, and advanced to the attack of the town with his whole army. The garrison, however, sallied out and drove him ignominiously from the field, upon which he turned the siege into a blockade. On April 1 the troops sallied, and swept into the town 500 sheep and goats they had seen from the bastions grazing in the plain. Akbar now pitched his camp within two miles of the ramparts, to cut off foragers. On April 6 General Sale determined on an assault on the enemy's encampment. The troops issued from the gate at dawn, and were received with a flanking fire from one of the ports. This was gallantly stormed. The advance guard under Captain Havelock moved on, repelled two charges of Akbar's splendid cavalry, and drove them into the camp. The enemy were dislodged from every point, and pursued to the river, with the loss of their guns, equipage, and ammunition.

Kaye, *Affghan War*; *Annual Register.*

Jenkins, Sir Leoline (Llewellyn) (*b.* 1623, *d.* 1685), was educated at Oxford. On the death of Charles I. he retired to Wales, and later to the Continent, whence he returned shortly before the Restoration. In 1661 he was elected principal of Jesus College, of which society he was a munificent benefactor. In 1664 he was engaged in reviewing the maritime laws, and in 1668 was made judge of the Prerogative Court at Canterbury. In 1678 he was employed in negotiating the Treaty of Nimeguen, and next year succeeded Sir William Temple as the English ambassador at the Hague. On his return home he was a strong opponent of the Exclusion Bill, for which service he was appointed a Privy Councillor about the year 1680. Five years later he died. His *Letters and Papers* were published in 1724.

Jenkins's Ear, The Story of, was circulated in 1738, greatly to the prejudice of Sir Robert Walpole. At this time war with Spain was eagerly desired by the nation, but opposed by the minister. Jenkins, who was the master of a trading sloop from Jamaica, asserted that his ship had been boarded by a Spanish *guarda costa*, and that, although no proof of

smuggling had been found on the vessel, one of his ears had been barbarously torn off. This ear he carried about in cotton to display to his hearers. It was said at the time that he had lost it on another occasion, probably at the pillory. On being asked by a member what were his feelings when he found himself in the hands of such barbarians, "I recommended," he said, "my soul to God, and my cause to my country." "The truth of the story," says Mr. Lecky, "is extremely doubtful, but the end that was aimed at was attained. The indignation of the people, fanned as it was by the press and by the untiring efforts of all sections of the opposition, became uncontrollable."

Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; Lecky, *Hist. of Eng. during the Eighteenth Century.*

Jenkinson, Anthony (*d.* 1611), was one of the most famous travellers and explorers of Elizabeth's reign. In 1557 he was sent out to Russia as the agent of the Russian Company, and made his way to Astrachan, Persia, and Bokhara, revisiting the last-named place no less than six times in the interests of commerce. In 1571 he was sent to the Czar's court by Elizabeth as her accredited ambassador.

Hakluyt, *Voyages.*

Jersey. [Channel Islands.]

Jewel, John, Bishop of London (*b.* 1522, *d.* 1571), was one of the most active of the Reformers during the reign of Edward VI. Under Mary, he was compelled to seek an asylum in Germany, but returned to England on the accession of Elizabeth, and was made Bishop of Salisbury (1559). He was one of the champions of the Protestants at the Theological Conference at Westminster in the same year. He was a strong upholder of the doctrine of the divine right of kings, a great controversialist, and a voluminous writer. His great work, the *Apology*, or Defence of the English Church (1562), is mainly based on a denial of the theory that truth necessarily resides in a numerical majority; it is practically a claim made on behalf of Protestant bodies to be admitted to the Council of Trent, and while denying that Roman Catholic doctrines have the support of the great fathers, is content to rest all its arguments on the direct teaching of Christ and his apostles. This work was translated into English very soon after its first publication, and was so generally esteemed that Elizabeth gave orders for one copy of it to be placed in every parish church.

Jews in England. The first appearance of the Jews in any number in England must be reckoned among the results of the Norman Conquest. Immediately after 1066, many coming from Rouen, Caen, and other Norman cities, arrived in London in the train of the invaders. Like the forests, the Jews were declared in early Norman law to be the peculiar property of the king, and his local representative, usually the constable of the tower or castle erected to signalise the submission of a town to Norman conquerors, ruled over each settlement. The Jews were subject to tallages at the arbitrary will of the crown, and to all the feudal dues of tenants-in-chief, and the Norman kings claimed a large proportion of their wealth. But they enjoyed, in early times, no small security in return. Their religion excited little hostility. In their special districts, known as the Jewries, they were allowed to practise all their religious rites, and synagogues with schools attached to them sprang up in all parts of the country. Standing outside the authority of the Church, the canon-law forbidding trade in money did not affect them, and it was that calling that most of them successfully pursued. Their general financial skill was widely acknowledged. William II. employed them to farm the revenues of vacant sees, and at this and later dates, great barons and ecclesiastics sought their services as stewards of their estates. Many at the same time gained distinction as physicians, and in several towns, notably at Oxford, the lectures of their rabbis on medicine, and other sciences, were attended by Christian as well as by Jewish scholars.

After the death of Henry I., the security which the Jews had previously enjoyed was rapidly weakened. At the close of the twelfth, and throughout the thirteenth centuries, their position was one of growing danger. They became the helpless victims of the kings, who made their wealth an important source of revenue. Stephen and Matilda, and their supporters, robbed them recklessly. In 1187 Henry II. demanded a fourth of their chattels, and Richard I. depended largely on them to meet his extravagant expenditure. Until the reign of Henry III., however, a somewhat tolerant policy was still pursued toward them by the government in matters of religion. In 1176 permission was given them to acquire burial-grounds outside the towns where they were settled. Richard I. practically legalised their own forms of oath in civil cases. John corresponded with a chief rabbi on terms of intimacy. But from the middle of the twelfth century the people of the towns, stirred constantly by the preachers of the Crusades to a fanatical hatred of them, attributed to them, as heretics, as foreigners, and as capitalists, their poverty and misfortunes, and subjected them to every variety of persecution. In 1144 the baseless charge was preferred against the Jews of Norwich of murdering a child to use his blood in their religious ceremonies, and this and similar accusations were repeated later in London, Gloucester, Bury St. Edmunds, Lincoln, and elsewhere. In 1189 riots took place in every

town where any Jews resided. The Jewries were pillaged and fired, and their inhabitants brutally murdered. Restrictions, too, were frequently placed on their financial dealings. The Assize of Arms forbade the Jew to take into the towns any weapon of war. In 1194 Richard I. issued a decree placing their commercial transactions more thoroughly under the control of the local officers of the crown. At the same time special itinerant justices were to enforce the new law, and were to form at Westminster a special court, known as the Jews' Exchequer (*Judæorum Scaccarium*), for the trial of lawsuits in which Jews were concerned, and for auditing the accounts of their contributions to the national treasury. The barons introduced into Magna Carta a clause forbidding the Jews on the death of a baronial debtor to distrain the property of his survivors, and in 1218 they were ordered for the first time to wear a distinguishing badge.

The thirteenth century witnessed little change in the position of the Jews. The first years of John's reign, and of his son's, gave them brief respites from persecution, and speciously extended their privileges, but otherwise their history is a mere repetition of extortionate exactions and deeds of popular violence. John not only constantly levied tallages upon them, and imprisoned and tortured those unable to pay, but he confiscated the property of their insolvent debtors, and distributed it among his supporters. When Henry III. came of age, he followed his father's example, and reversed the moderate policy that his justiciars, William Marshall and Hubert de Burgh, had pursued towards them. They were made responsible for all the extravagances of himself and his wife's relatives, who bitterly hated them, and hardly a year passed without a heavy exaction, varying from 60,000 to 10,000 marks, being made upon their property. In 1255 Henry made them over to his brother, Richard of Cornwall, as security for a large loan. And these exactions and indignities were far from being their only difficulties. The Church now deliberately attacked their religion. The friars—the new preachers of religion in the towns—were filled with zeal against Judaism, and they sought and obtained, as at Cambridge, many synagogues for their own habitations. Simon de Montfort shared the friars' hostility to them, and the battles of Lewes and Evesham were followed by revolting attacks upon the Jews throughout the country. In vain they begged permission to leave England altogether. The king found them too valuable to lose them lightly. His refusal of their petition was followed by a harsh edict forbidding them to hold in future any property in land.

From Edward I.'s connexion with the Jews a similar story has arisen, but with his reign their mediæval history ends. He shared the antipathy for which his mother, Eleanor of Provence, was remarkable, and the statute *de la Jeuerie*, issued in 1275, was calculated to ruin them utterly. Lending money at interest was absolutely forbidden, and every Jew was to pay a poll-tax of threepence or fourpence annually. Persecution by people and priests was meanwhile left unpunished, and at length, in 1290, Edward I., exercising some self-denial, consented to expel them. About 17,000 are reported to have left the country, and the majority of them appear to have sought refuge on the coast of France and Flanders. Many, however, were wilfully wrecked in their passage, and perished at sea. The grounds of their expulsion were stated to be the blasphemous character of their religious belief, and their oppression of the people as usurious money-lenders. Their real property was naturally confiscated by the crown.

It is frequently stated that after the banishment of 1290 no Jews came to England until the later years of Cromwell's Protectorate, but special investigation of the subject leaves little doubt that small numbers of them were present in the country from the fourteenth to the seventeenth century. Throughout this period the House for Jewish Converts in London was seldom without some inmates. In 1594 Roderigo Lopez, a Jewish physician of Queen Elizabeth, was hanged at Tyburn on a charge of treason. Charles I. borrowed money, there can be little doubt, of some of their race who came to England from Amsterdam, and Cromwell employed several Jews as foreign spies. It was not, however, till 1655 that Edward I.'s decree was practically repealed. In that year the Protector, on his own responsibility, in answer to the petition of Manasseh-ben-Israel, a Dutch rabbi, granted permission to a few Jews to settle openly in this country. Much opposition was raised to the order by the London merchants, who feared commercial rivalry, and in 1660 a petition was presented to Charles II. to reverse Cromwell's action, but it met with no success. The king had received loans from the Jews in the days of his exile, and had already pledged his word to maintain them in England. The first Jewish immigrants in the seventeenth century were descended from Spanish and Portuguese families who had taken refuge in Holland, and they were followed later by Jews from Germany and Poland. The English law at first allowed them few civil rights. By a statute of James I.'s reign the sacramental test was essential to naturalisation, and the various penal laws, excluding Catholics from civil and municipal office, and from the legal profession, were applicable to them. Their public worship contravened a law of Elizabeth making attendance at church compulsory, but their various places of worship in London, erected in this and the next century, were never seriously menaced. Their marriages, however, were only valid by courtesy, and all Jews

were subject to the alien duties (a heavy tax imposed on all goods exported by foreigners), from which, however, James II. relieved them for a few years.

In commerce the English Jews rapidly gained a high reputation. In the war of the Spanish succession, a Jew contracted to supply the army with bread, and it was currently reported that they entered in the same reign into negotiations with Godolphin for the purchase of Brentford as an exclusively Jewish settlement. In the succeeding reigns several attempts were made to relieve them of their various disabilities. In 1723 they were permitted to omit from the oath of abjuration all words obnoxious to their faith, and a little later naturalisation was allowed to all who had lived seven years in America, or had engaged in the flax or hemp trades, or who had served in the navy. Thus the principle of their right to naturalisation was admitted. In 1753 the Pelham ministry introduced the Jews' Naturalisation Bill, extending the privilege but not making it universal; in spite of much opposition in the Commons, it became law. Popular fanaticism and commercial jealousy were, however, roused against it in the country, and predictions of the evils that would flow from the measure excited a very bitter agitation against the Jews. In 1754 the government, in obedience to the panic, moved the repeal of the Act. A clause, however, in Lord Hardwicke's Marriage Act of the previous year gave practical legal validity to Jewish marriages.

In the nineteenth century the disabilities of the Jews were finally removed, and their cause found strong support in the city of London. In 1832 they were given the rights of freemen of the city, and by Lord Campbell's Act of 1835 they were enabled to take the oath requisite for admission to the office of Sheriff. In 1832 the Reform Bill granted them the suffrage. A motion for the abolition of all their civil disabilities was introduced into the House of Commons in 1833, and Hume, O'Connell, and Macaulay spoke strongly in its favour, but after passing the Lower House it was thrown out by the Lords. The same fate awaited the bill on many subsequent occasions. In 1846, however, by the Religious Opinions Relief Bill, the public exercise of their religion, and the education of their children in it, were legalised. In the next year Baron Lionel de Rothschild was elected Member of Parliament by the City of London, but the law necessitating an oath which he could not conscientiously take prevented his taking his seat. In 1851 Alderman Salomons was elected for Greenwich, and he took his seat after omitting from the oath the words obnoxious to his faith, for which he was subsequently fined £500 in the Court of Queen's Bench. Finally, in 1858, the remaining Jewish disabilities were removed by law, and the oath admitting members to the House of Commons so altered that Jews might conscientiously take it.

Tovey, *Anglia Judaica* (1733), with Madox's account of the Jewish Exchequer in his *History of the Exchequer* (vol. i.), covers the mediæval history, of which a good summary is given in Margoliouth's *Jews of Great Britain* (1845). See also Jacobs, *Jews in Angevin England*. Picciotto's *Anglo-Jewish Sketches* (1878) gives the most elaborate information on the subject from the time of Cromwell. [S. L. L.]

Jeypore. [RAJPUTANA.]

Jhansi is the name of a district in Bundelkhund, lying 142 miles south of Agra. In 1804, on the first connection of the government with Bundelkhund, a treaty was concluded with Gheo Rao Bhao, a tributary of the Peishwa, and governor of this small territory. In 1817, when all rights of the Peishwa in the province were ceded to the company, in consideration of his fidelity the territory was declared hereditary in the family of the above-mentioned ruler. On the death of his grandson, who died without leaving any issue (1835), the territory was given to a collateral branch of the same family; and when in 1854 the last descendant of Gheo Rao Bhao died childless, the British government declined to recognise his adopted son, and annexed the province. The Ranee protested in vain at the time; but on the outbreak of the Mutiny in 1857, she took a fearful revenge, and put to death every European—man, woman, and child—she could seize, proclaiming herself independent. She was besieged and driven from Jhansi, 1858, and was eventually slain before Gwalior fighting in the front ranks like a man. Her body, however, was not found, and was probably carried away and burnt.

Malleson, *Hist. of the Indian Mutiny; Annual Register*, 1858.

Jhansi, THE SIEGE OF (1858). When the Indian Mutiny broke out, the fortress of Jhansi, which had for some years been in the hands of the English Government, was garrisoned by the 12th Native Infantry. Early in June (1857), the rebellion broke out here, and the fort, together with the treasure and the magazine, fell into the hands of the insurgents. It was not till March, in the next year, that Sir H. Rose was enabled to advance to this town, and establish his batteries round it. On the 30th the defences of the city and fort were dismantled, and the guns so far disabled that they no longer kept up a serious fire. The final assault was made April 2, by two columns. The town was quickly cleared, and the Ranee fled. The rebels now abandoned their positions, and the English took possession of this formidable fortress without further opposition.

Jhindur Bhye was the wife of Runjeet Singh, on whose death she assumed the regency of the Punjab, or rather shared it with her paramour, Lall Singh. Her intrigues

brought about the reduction of the Punjab by Lords Hardinge and Dalhousie. After a series of strange and romantic vicissitudes, prematurely old, well-nigh blind, broken and subdued in spirit, she found a resting place at last under the roof of her son, in a quiet corner of an English castle, and died in a London suburb.

Kaye, *Sepoy War.*

Jingoes was a name given during the excitement of the Eastern Question in 1878 to the party which was in favour of war with Russia. The word sprang from a popular song of the period, the refrain of which was—

"We don't want to fight, but by Jingo if we do,
We've got the ships, we've got the men, we've got the money too."

The term, however, was adopted in serious political controversy, and used to designate those who favoured an aggressive foreign policy.

Joan, wife of Edward the Black Prince (*d.* 1385), commonly called the Fair Maid of Kent, was the daughter of Edmund of Woodstock, Earl of Kent, son of King Edward I. On the death of her brother, without issue, she became Countess of Kent. She was married first to Sir Thomas Holland, and secondly to the Earl of Salisbury, from whom she was divorced. In 1361 she became the wife of the Black Prince, and five years later gave birth to Richard II. In 1381 she was exposed to the insults of the insurgents, who took possession of the Tower, whither she had fled for refuge, but her life was preserved.

Joan of Arc. [Hundred Years' War.]

Joan, of Navarre, Queen (*d.* 1437), was the daughter of Charles II. of Navarre, and was married first to John V., Duke of Britanny, and secondly (1403) to Henry IV.

Joanna, Princess (*b.* 1321, *d.* 1362), was promised in marriage to Prince David of Scotland, by the Treaty of Northampton (1328), and betrothed in July the same year. On the successful invasion of Edward Baliol, the young king and queen went to France, where they were kindly received by King Philip (1333), and whence they did not return to Scotland till 1341. After her husband's capture at Neville's Cross (1346), she visited him in his captivity (1348). On his release in 1357, she accompanied him to Scotland, but soon after, being insulted by David's preference for his mistress, Katherine Mortimer, she returned to Edward III.'s court, and refused to return to her husband even when her rival was murdered in 1360.

Jocelin de Brakelonde (*d. circa* 1211) was a Benedictine monk at Bury St. Edmunds, where he held the offices of prior's chaplain, abbot's chaplain, guest-master, and almoner in succession. He is the author of a domestic chronicle of the abbey to which he belonged. This work extends from the year 1173, "when the Flemings were captured outside the town"—in which year also Jocelin became a monk—to the year 1202. When Jocelin deals with public events in this chronicle, they are chiefly such as had some connection with the abbey of which he was a member. Jocelin's chronicle has been edited by Mr. J. G. Rokewode for the Camden Society (1840), and forms the text of Carlyle's *Past and Present*.

John, King (*b.* Dec. 24, 1166, *s.* April 8, 1199, *d.* Oct. 19, 1216), was the youngest son of Henry II. and Eleanor of Aquitaine. He was Henry's favourite son, and destined to receive as his share of his father's empire the lordship of Ireland. But his petulant and arrogant behaviour to the Irish chiefs when, in 1185, he was sent on a visit to Ireland, compelled Henry to give up this scheme. Before long John joined his brother Richard in his last revolt against his father, under circumstances of peculiar treachery. Henry's schemes to win for John a rich marriage had proved no less unsuccessful than his Irish plan. But soon after Richard I.'s accession, John's marriage with the heiress of the great Gloucester earldom gave him revenue and position. During Richard's absence on crusade, John joined the popular movement for deposing Longchamp, the foreign justiciar, and, in close alliance with Philip of France, rose in revolt on the news of Richard's captivity. But the administrative system was too strong to be shaken by John's turbulence. The rising was suppressed, and its author very leniently treated by his brother, who did his best to secure his succession in preference to the heir of his elder brother, Geoffrey. In 1199 John became king. His reign marks the collapse of the great power which Henry II. had founded; but also shows the beginning of the national English state which emerged from its ruins. The loss of Normandy, the quarrel with Innocent III., and the struggle with the baronage which produced *Magna Carta*, are the great events of his reign. Philip Augustus promptly deserted his old friend when he became king, and posed as the champion of Arthur of Britanny, whom John was generally believed to have murdered, and as protector of the injured Count of La Marche, whose betrothed wife, Isabella of Angoulême, John had recently married, having divorced his first wife. After a solemn trial, John was adjudged to have forfeited his French fiefs. In 1204 Philip conquered Normandy, John making little or no attempt to protect his dominions. Anjou, Maine, and the greater part of the southern fiefs which Eleanor had brought to Henry II., were speedily annexed

also. Not until it was too late did John make a vigorous effort to regain them. By that time other difficulties prevented his attempts being successful. The Archbishop of Canterbury, Hubert Walter, had been a great influence for good on John. His death, in 1205, was thus a great loss in itself. But the quarrel of the king and the Canterbury monks, and the imposition of a papal nominee whom neither would accept, led to John's famous contest with Innocent III.; the interdict of 1208; the deposition of 1211, and the abject submission of the king when Philip, as executor of the papal decrees, was preparing to invade England. He surrendered his kingdom to Pandulf, the papal representative, and consented to receive it back as a fief of the papacy. Henceforth John was Innocent's ally; but his innumerable tyrannies had raised up enemies in the nation against which papal support was of little value. The death of the faithful justiciar, Fitz-Peter, in 1213, broke up the civil administration. The last check on John's tyranny was now removed; but with unwonted energy he planned a great expedition for the recovery of Poitou, in conjunction with an alliance with the princes of Lower Germany, who supported his nephew, Otto IV., against Philip. The defeat of Otto at Bouvines, and the want of co-operation of the Poitevins, made both schemes abortive. The refusal of the northern barons of England to serve abroad began the series of events which led to the Great Charter. The papal archbishop, Langton, took up an unexpectedly patriotic attitude. He held up the charter of Henry I. to the barons as a good basis for their demands. A great meeting of the nobles at Bury St. Edmunds declared itself against the king. The clergy, the Londoners, the ministerial prelates, in turn deserted John. Abandoned by all but hirelings and foreigners, he was constrained, in 1215 (June 15), to sign *Magna Carta*. But the support of Innocent III. could still be relied upon. Langton was summoned to Rome. The Pope annulled the charter. John, with his mercenaries, spread desolation throughout the country. Nothing was left for the barons but to appeal to Philip of France. In 1216, the landing of Louis, the French King's son, with a French army, reduced John to despair. His death at Newark (Oct. 19, 1216) only prevented his deposition.

John was one of the worst of English kings, tyrannical, treacherous, petulant, passionate, infamous in all his private relations, careless of all his public duties. But he was of no mean ability; and had he possessed more persistent energy and stability of purpose, he might have reigned as successfully as his father. As it was, he failed in everything he undertook. The system of government which Henry II. had established had survived the neglect of Richard, but broke up under the active tyranny of John. Yet its dissolution left the nation free to work out its own development. The loss of Normandy made the baronage finally English. It was no small benefit to the nation that John's tyranny compelled barons and people, and, despite the Pope, the better elements in the Church, to make common cause against John. *Magna Carta* was the result of the first corporate action of the English nation, and the foundation of the mediæval constitution. Even the submission to Rome helped on in the next generation the national reaction which John's reign had done so much to stimulate.

Matthew Paris, *Hist. Angl.*; Pauli, *Englische Geschichte*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Pearson, *Hist. of Eng.*; Lingard. [T. F. T.]

John, 9th Lord of the Isles, and 11th Earl of Ross (*d.* 1498), aided James II. at the siege of Roxburgh (1460), for which service he was appointed a Warden of the Marches. In 1462, however, he entered into a treaty with Edward IV., which, becoming known some years later, led to the forfeiture of his earldom of Ross. But John was too powerful to be offended, and, in 1476, was created a peer as John de Isla, Lord of the Isles, by way of conciliation.

Johnston, Archibald, of Warriston (*d.* 1663), was a leader of the Covenanters, whose demands he is said to have formulated. He was one of the Commissioners at the Peace of Berwick (1639), and at the Treaty of Ripon (1640). The following year he became a Lord of Session, and is credited with having suggested the Acts of Classes in 1649. Having acted as chairman of Cromwell's Committee of Public Safety, he was condemned in his absence in 1661, and executed at Edinburgh in 1663.

Judge. [Justice.]

Judith, daughter of Charles the Bold, King of France, in 856 was married to King Ethelwulf. She is said to have sat by her husband's side on the royal throne, but this apparently means nothing more than that she was recognised as queen, a title which had belonged to no wife of a West-Saxon king since the days of Edburga. After Ethelwulf's death, she married her stepson Ethelbald (858), and on his decease, in 860, she went back to her father's court, and subsequently took for her third husband Baldwin (Iron-Arm), first Count of Flanders.

Jumièges, Robert of, Archbishop of Canterbury (1050—52), was a Norman who came over to England in the train of Edward the Confessor. He was made Bishop of London in 1044, and at once came forward as the leader of the French party. His influence over the king was very great. "So high did he stand in the king's estimation, that if he had said a black crow was a white one, the king would sooner have believed the bishop's word than his own eyes,"

And this influence was exerted to fill every office with Normans, and destroy the national party of which Godwin was the head. The success of Robert's scheme was seen in 1050, when Edward appointed him archbishop, in opposition to the Chapter of Canterbury, who had elected one of their own number, Elfric, to the post. The triumph of the Normans seemed secured in 1051 by the banishment of Godwin and his sons; but in the next year they returned, were received with the greatest enthusiasm, and for the time destroyed the influence of their rival. Archbishop Robert was one of the first to flee before the storm, and, in company with the Bishop of Dorchester, he made his way in a crazy fishing-boat to Normandy. The Witenagemot, which met almost immediately, deprived Robert of his archbishopric, and outlawed him, and the interposition of the Pope in his favour was disregarded. He had to retire to the monastery of Jumièges, where he remained till his death.

Anglo-Saxon Chron.; Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, vol. ii.

Jumièges, William of (*b. circa* 1020), was a Norman monk, who compiled a Latin history of the Dukes of Normandy from Rollo to the year 1071. His work has been greatly interpolated by later writers; but for the Conquest, and the early years of William I.'s reign, William of Jumièges is a fairly good authority. The earlier part of this writer's work is an abridgment of Dudo of St. Quentin. Only the first seven books can be looked upon as belonging to William; the eighth, and many interpolations on the previous books, being due to Robert de Monte. The narrative of William of Jumièges forms the ground-work of Wace's *Le Roman de Rou*.

This author has been printed in Duchesne's *Scriptores Normaniæ*, and in Migne's *Patrologiæ Cursus Completus*, vol. cxlix.

Jung Bahadur, Sir (*d.* 1877), the chief minister, and virtual ruler, of Nepaul, brought a large contingent to the help of the English in the rebellion of 1857, and assisted at the siege of Delhi (1858). Jung Bahadur had, in earlier years, assisted in the murder of Malabar Singh (1845), the chief minister of Nepaul, and after this became one of the principal governors of the country. His previous conduct seems to have been to some extent dictated by a wish to serve the Queen of Nepaul; but when ordered by her to destroy the heir-apparent and his brother, Jung Bahadur refused to obey, and before long succeeded in appointing him as ruler of Nepaul in the room of the Maharajah (1847). A few years later (1850) Jung Bahadur paid a visit to England.

Junius, The Letters of. The first letter bearing the signature of "Junius" made its appearance in the *Public Advertiser* for Nov. 21, 1768. But we have the author's own assurance that he had been writing under different names for at least two years previously. It was not, however, till Jan. 21, 1769, that the regular series of political attacks under the title of Junius commenced with an assault on the characters of the Duke of Grafton and Lord North, in a letter addressed to the former of these two nobles. With reference to the duke we are told that "the finances of a nation sinking under its debts have been committed to a young nobleman already ruined by play;" while Lord North is characterised as "an object of derision to his enemies, and of melancholy pity to his friends." The vacillation and inconsistency of the government are pointed out, and hardly any name mentioned escapes irony or abuse excepting that of Mr. Grenville. The military part of this attack drew out a reply from Sir William Draper, in which he called upon Junius to ask pardon of "Lord Granby and the whole kingdom for his abominable scandal." Letter followed letter between the two combatants, till on March 18 Junius once more turned his batteries directly against the Duke of Grafton for having pardoned a certain Edward MacQuirk, who had been found guilty of murder. This question is made the prelude to a fierce condemnation of the Duke's whole conduct as regards the Wilkes and Luttrell question, his private morals and his political capacity. The Prime Minister is told, "There is something which distinguishes you not only from all other ministers but from all other men. It is not that you do wrong by design, but that you should never do right by mistake." By the end of May the Duke of Bedford is incidentally brought upon the scene to share in the Prime Minister's abuse, and towards the end of July Blackstone is directly attacked for his reflections on Grenville. Towards the middle of September Junius addressed his first letter to the Duke of Bedford, the inheritor of a name "glorious till it was yours;" and once more Sir W. Draper came forward for the defence. On Dec. 19, 1769, appeared the famous letter to the king, for which the printers and publishers were tried (1770), on which occasion the jury brought in a verdict of "Guilty of publishing only." The conduct of Lord Mansfield on this occasion laid him open to the attacks of the anonymous writer. Indeed, in the first letter to this great lawyer (Nov., 1770), Junius attacks him with peculiar bitterness: "no learned man, even among your own tribe, thinks you qualified to preside in a court of Common Law." In the preceding August (1770) Junius had had published his first letter to Lord North, and there reproached this statesman for appointing Colonel Luttrell Adjutant-General of the army in Ireland. With the opening of 1771 foreign politics attracted the pen of Junius, but by the middle of the year he had

once more directed his attention to the Duke of Grafton, who, says the author, "is the pillow upon which I am determined to rest all my resentments." Then followed the discussion with Mr. Horne (July to Aug., 1771). Later in the same year Lord Mansfield is again attacked for having bailed John Eyre, a Scotchman, and on Jan. 21, 1772, Junius's last letter appeared in proof of his assertion that on this occasion Lord Mansfield had done "that which by law he was not warranted to do." The same paper contained Junius's appeal to Lord Camden, "in the name of the English nation to stand forth in defence of the laws of his country," lest it "should be said that for some months past he had kept too much company with the Duke of Grafton." This letter winds up with the words "I do not scruple to affirm that in my judgment he (Lord Mansfield) is the very worst and most dangerous man in the kingdom. Thus far I have done my duty in endeavouring to bring him to punishment. But mine is an inferior ministerial office in the temple of justice. I have bound the victim and dragged him to the altar."

The question of the authorship of these letters is one which has severely taxed the critical ingenuity of the last hundred years. Hardly a single prominent statesman of the time who was not himself directly attacked by Junius, has wanted champions to assert his claim to their production. Lord George Sackville, Barré, Grattan, Burke, Lord Loughborough, Gibbon, Lord Chatham, and William Mason, Lord Temple, and many others, have all had their supporters; but none of their pretensions can be considered as valid. The weight of inferential evidence seems to point towards Sir Philip Francis, and it is certain that he was not unwilling to be considered as Junius, though he never admitted the claim in words. The test of handwriting seems to tend in the same direction. But, if he be the author, it must be allowed that however much this distinction may add to his intellectual, it takes away from his moral character; for he seems to have been receiving favours from and living on intimate terms with many of those whom he assailed most fiercely. The most, however, that can be said in favour of the view that he was the writer is that he is the least unlikely of the most prominent candidates.

Junius's *Letters* have been frequently republished. For the controversy on their authorship see Macaulay, *Essay on Warren Hastings;* Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*, vol. v., appendix; Britton, *Junius Elucidated;* Dilke, *Papers of a Critic;* Lecky, *Hist. of Eng. during the Eighteenth Century*, iii.; W. Massey, *Hist. of Geo. III.*, vol. i.

Jury, The, in modern English juridical usage, is a body of laymen, generally twelve in number, chosen by lot to ascertain, with the assistance and guidance of the judge, questions of fact only, proved before them by evidence. They are bound by oath (hence their name) to discharge their duties properly. Unanimity is generally required of them. Juries are used both in criminal and civil cases. In the former the *Grand Jury* presents offenders against whom there is a *primâ facie* case, to be tried before the judge and the *Petty Jury*. In the latter a distinction is drawn between the *Special Jury* and the *Common Jury*, the property qualification of the special juror being higher. There is also a *Coroner's Jury*, on whose finding persons may be brought to trial at the assizes.

Of the origin of juries every conceivable theory has been held. It was once almost an article of constitutional faith that they were invented by King Alfred, Welsh antiquaries adding at the suggestion of Asser, who had experienced the benefits of the system in Wales. Many have stoutly maintained the exclusively English origin of this typical English institution. Northern archæologists have argued that it was brought ready-made by the Danes to England; others that it came over with William the Conqueror. The Canon law, the Roman law, the customs of the early Slavs copied by their Saxon neighbours, have also had the jury fathered upon them. Even wilder is the hypothesis of their Eastern origin and introduction into Europe by the Crusaders. The truth seems to be that the jury is a specialised development under favourable conditions of a tendency common to all the Teutonic peoples, if not to many other Aryan tribes as well. In its modern form it is hardly older than the reign of Henry II., and in many important features not so old as that. But in its broader aspect the jury simply carries on the popular judicial courts of the old German polity. It is the latest survival of the time when the law courts were the courts of the people, when the mass of the suitors were judges, witnesses, and jurors in one. It is in this sense only that the twelve assessors of the presiding officer in the shire and hundred-moot (the *rachimburgi*, or *scabini*, of the Franks), or the twelve compurgators whose testimony, added to that of their principal, was regarded as conclusive, or the sworn witnesses who represented, as it were, common fame, can be regarded as progenitors of the jury system; in strictness they were not. They shared with the jury a common representative character. Like them they were bound by oath, and were commonly of the sacred number of twelve. But the specific function of judging on matters of fact was not yet differentiated from the other elements of judicial proceedings. Only in one of the laws of Ethelred II. —which refers to a committee of twelve thegns in the shire-moot, who take oath to accuse no man falsely—do we find any real analogy to the later jury; and this remarkable anticipation of the "jury of presentment" stands so much by itself that it is

unsafe to generalise from such scanty data. Thus we can find no real juries among the English before the Conquest. Still less can the analogous *Nämd* of Sweden, or the other Scandinavian tribunals of the same sort, be regarded as parents of an institution which has only collateral affinity to them. But soon after the Norman Conquest, the system of inquest by sworn recognitors, representative of the popular courts, was introduced into England by the invaders. This system may have been borrowed from the Theodosian Code by the Carolingian emperors. The Frankish Capitularies contain numerous instructions to the royal Missi to inquire into various fiscal and judicial rights of the crown, by the oath of the trustworthy men of the neighbourhood, whose evidence was regarded as the embodiment of the witness of the community, which in early times was the ultimate evidence of rights. This system survived the fall of the Carolings, and was still frequently used, both in France generally and Normandy in particular, at the time of the Conquest. There was every reason why William I. and his ministers should introduce this practice into England. Anxious to rule according to ancient precedent, and ignorant of the old customs of the country, these *Inquisitiones* were of unique value in giving them trustworthy information. The immense mass of antiquarian knowledge collected in the Domesday Survey was obtained by inquests of the royal officials before representatives of the popular courts. It was a slight step in advance to allow the means so useful in ascertaining the rights of the crown to be employed in ascertaining the rights of the subject. Both for royal and private purposes, mostly for fiscal, but also for judicial objects, Henry I. developed the system still further. But it was Henry II. who gave to the system a political and judicial importance it never had before. He made it part of the ordinary judicial machinery. He applied it to all sorts of civil and criminal suits. So far as great institutions can be the work of individuals, he is the founder of the English system of trial by jury.

The Conquest had made trial by battle the ordinary means of settling disputes about freeholds. Henry II., in the Great Assize, gave suitors, as an alternative, the use of the inquest. A jury of twelve knights of the county, chosen by four knights electors, were summoned by the sheriff to appear before the king or his judges to give evidence. Again, the Constitutions of Clarendon enjoined cases of dispute as to lay or clerical tenure to be settled by the recognition by twelve sworn men; and the three assizes of Mort d'Ancester, Novel Disseisin, and Darrein Presentment, were accomplished by the same means. In criminal cases, the precedents of the law of Ethelred, of the juratores of the shire mentioned in Henry I.'s Pipe Roll, and of the criminal jury of the sixth article of the Constitutions of Clarendon, were developed into the system of trial prescribed by the assizes of Clarendon and Northampton. By the former measure, inquiry was ordered to be made through every shire and hundred by twelve lawful men of each hundred, and four of each township, upon oath, for all suspected criminals. When the royal justices came round on their journeys, the above-mentioned jury was to present the suspected offenders to them in the county court, where they were to be tried by the ordeal. But the development of juridical science led, first, to the minimising of the ordeal, so that the presentment became the important thing, and, next, to its abolition by the Lateran Council of 1215. Even before this, an alternative to the ordeal was sometimes found in a second jury, empanelled to investigate further the truth of the presentment. After 1215 this became the universal method of procedure. The *Grand Jury* presented criminals. The trial, strictly speaking, was before the *Petty Jury*, as this second jury was soon called. This is still the case, though the establishment of elaborate magisterial investigations has tended to reverse the original importance of the two bodies.

Juries thus established were almost peculiar to England. The Frankish inquest was never developed to further consequences in its own home. The imperfect juries of the mediæval Continent were almost entirely the result of the reflex action of the English juries. The modern Continental jury is avowedly borrowed. Thus, Professor Freeman can claim with reason that the jury is a native English growth, despite its filial relation to the Frankish inquest.

The juries of the thirteenth century differed in many important respects from modern juries. They were still largely witnesses. The jury of the Grand Assize, for example, were chosen from those practically cognisant of the facts of the particular case. Even when it was found impossible to summon only witnesses as jurors, it was long before the advancement of juridical science limited their functions to deciding on evidence laid before them. It was long before the jury was free from judicial censure if their verdict was disliked by the judge. Not before the Revolution of 1688 could the jury in a political case be said to have acquired full freedom. Not before Fox's Libel Act did they acquire real power of deciding on the whole facts of one important branch of trials.

The political importance of trial by jury is very considerable in English history. Though a mere administrative expedient in its origin, the fact that the county jury was a systematic representation of the shire community, selected to treat with the king or his representative, was a step of the greatest importance in the development of our representative

institutions. [PARLIAMENT.] The great principle of trial by peers was embodied in Magna Carta; and, before long, the jury system came to be regarded as the greatest safeguard against arbitrary imprisonment, and the greatest guarantee of a fair trial, and of the personal liberty of the subject. A venal or time-serving judge—dependent for his position on royal favour—could only be checked by some such means. In political trials, even of the 18th century, without trial by jury it would have fared badly with an enemy of the government. Even now that the impartiality of the judges is thoroughly established, the jury system, though shorn of its original importance, and limited in its operation by the tendencies of legal reform, still keeps its own function in our judicial system.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, vol. v.; Palgrave, *English Commonwealth*. The subject is treated more fully in Forsyth, *Hist. of Trial by Jury*, and Biener, *Das Englische Geschwornengericht*. Dr. H. Brunner, in his treatise *Ueber die Entstehung der Schwurgerichte*, gives a very full and complete view of the subject, and demonstrates very clearly the relation of the jury to the Frankish *Inquisitio*.

[T. F. T.]

Justice, or **Judge.** In the old English popular courts, the whole body of suitors acted as judges. The sheriff, or hundreds-ealdor, was simply their chairman, or moderator; and the judicial committee of twelve thegns were the assessors of the sheriff. The feudal jurisdiction of the landrica, the supreme jurisdiction of the king, invested lords of soken and monarchs with some of the attributes of the later judge. But the real differentiation of the office of judge took place subsequently to the Norman Conquest, and was due to the development of the study of jurisprudence, the increasing specialisation of the whole system of government, the organisation on an extended basis of the royal jurisdiction, and its connection with the headless popular judicature, through the jury, by the Norman and Angevin kings. These circumstances necessitated the employment of a large judicial staff, which, if not strictly confined, after the precedents of later times, to its juridical business, and if equally employed by the king on fiscal and administrative duties, was sufficiently occupied with legal work to obtain from it its most common appellation. During the eleventh century, the word *Justitia* began to be used in a sense which included the persons charged with the administration of the law, as well as to indicate the abstract principles on which the law was based. The justice, or judge, received his name from the justice which he declared. The so-called Laws of Edward the Confessor speak of the sheriffs as justices; John of Salisbury gives them the same title, and the Assize of Clarendon couples them with the justices in the stricter sense. But it is possible that this title belonged specially to the sheriffs as transacting special business under the king's writ. In Henry I.'s Charter and Laws, and in some other instances, the term seems to include all landlords possessing courts of their own, or all suitors qualified to act as judices in the shire moot. But the title became gradually further limited, until it was ultimately used to indicate (1) the president, or chief officer of the Curia Regis, (2) all the members of the same court.

The chief minister of the Norman and Angevin kings was styled the *justitia*, or sometimes the *justitiarius*, or *capitalis*, or *summus justitia*. His office, obscure in origin, and perhaps developed from the Norman seneschalship through the regents of William I., during his absences on the Continent, acquired great importance under Ranulf Flambard, who assumed the name, if not the functions, of the later justiciar. Under Roger, Bishop of Salisbury, the great minister of Henry I., and the practical founder of his administrative system, both the name and functions of the office became more strictly defined. Until the middle of the reign of Henry III., a long and scarcely interrupted series of chief justiciars acted as permanent prime ministers, as representatives of the monarch in all relations of state, as regents during the king's absence, as royal deputies even in his presence, as presidents of the judicial system which centred in the Curia Regis, and as presidents of the fiscal system which centred in the exchequer. A similar need produced analogous offices in half the kingdoms of Europe. In Aragon and Naples the correspondence extended even to the name of Justitia. So long as the feudal spirit remained strong, the holders of the office were bishops, unable to found a legal family; but the triumph of Henry II. over the feudal separatists rendered it safe to appoint baronial justiciars. The development of the power of the chancellor, the break-up of the bureaucratic system of the Angevins and the development of a constitution in which a permanent prime minister found no place, led to a gradual change in the functions of the justiciar during the thirteenth century. His political functions gradually disappeared, while the increasing specialisation of our legal system gave to his functions as president of the chief court of justice a new importance. Hubert de Burgh was the last great political justiciar. His successor, Stephen Segrave, was simply a good lawyer. He began the process of change which was completed before the end of the century. The Capitalis Justitia of Henry II. becomes the Lord Chief Justice of Edward I.

The title of justice was, however, never confined to the justiciar. Even during the administration of Roger of Salisbury, the title is frequently conferred on other members of the Curia Regis. In the *Dialogus de Scaccario* it is their official designation, although

the same individuals sat in the Exchequer with the title of barons. Henry II. made his grandfather's system of judicial visitations a permanent part of the legal system of the country. As representatives of the sovereign, the Justices of the Curia Regis systematically perambulated the country and tried the offenders presented to them by the grand juries elected by the shire-moot, held inquiries into freehold suits under the Grand Assize, transacted proceedings under the three assizes of Mort D'Ancester, Darrein Presentment, and Novel Disseisin, besides acting as fiscal and executive officers of the crown. But the judicial aspect of the justice gradually became more important. In 1178 the Court of King's Bench was cut off from the Curia Regis in its larger aspect, and the clause of Magna Carta that Common Pleas should no longer follow the crown, but be held in some fixed place, led to the further differentiation of the Court of Common Pleas, which sat constantly at Westminster, from the Court of King's Bench, now entirely devoted to judicial business. Meanwhile the old financial system which had centred in the Exchequer became obsolete, and the Barons of the Exchequer, deprived of most of their fiscal business, became almost as much simple judges as the justices of the King's Bench or Common Pleas. The process of differentiation had already gone so far that each of the three courts had a separate staff of officials. As has been shown, the Justiciar became Chief Justice, and, as he retained a special relation to the King's Bench, a similar official of less dignity presided over the Common Pleas. Meanwhile Edward I. defined and completed what Henry II. had established. The Justices Itinerant of Henry II. became the Justices of Assize of Edward I. The various commissions under which they sat at Westminster or went on circuits, were systematised and enlarged. Instead of the separate Iters for different purposes, the justices were sent out at regular intervals on a fivefold mission —as Justices of the Peace, of Oyer and Terminer, of Gaol Delivery, of Assize, and of Nisi Prius (q.v.). Their functions and positions were hardly changed until recent legislation consolidated the three courts, and superseded by justices the Barons of the Exchequer. The title of Justice is given by recent Judicature Acts to all judges of the Supreme Court. In the High Court of Justice, into which the three old courts have been merged, they are called Mr. Justice, and their head is the Lord Chief Justice of England, the titles of Chief Justice of the Common Pleas and Lord Chief Baron having been abolished. In the Court of Appeal the judges are styled Lord Justice. The title of Lord Justice had in previous times been often given to persons invested with extraordinary judicial commissions, such as, for example, the government of Ireland during the absence or vacancy of the Lord Lieutenant, or the commissions of regency that sometimes governed the country during the absences of William III., and the Hanoverian monarchs on the Continent. Besides the justices of the English courts, there were special justices for Durham, Chester, the Isle of Ely, and similar Palatine jurisdictions.

In a lower sphere the title of justice has long been given to the inferior magistrates of the first instance. The "custodes pacis," or "conservatores pacis," which it became usual for the king to nominate during the thirteenth century (*e.g.*, Henry III.'s writ in 1233, and Edward I.'s statute of Winchester), received, by an Act of Edward III., both power to try felonies, and the more honourable designation of Justice of the Peace. "The whole Christian world hath not the like office as justice of the peace, if duly executed," was the opinion of Lord Coke, and despite the obvious objections to lay tribunals, drawn from a limited class, the system still remains, except in a few populous places where stipendiary magistrates with legal training have been appointed. The Justices of the Peace are appointed by a special commission under the great seal to keep the peace within the limits of the county in which they are appointed to act. In 1906 the property qualification (£100 a year in land) for the office was abolished. They exercise jurisdiction either individually or in petty sessions of the justices of a limited district, or in quarter sessions of the justices of the whole county. The latter body still combines with its judicial work administrative and fiscal business in a way that recalls the justices of the reign of Henry I.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Gneist, *Verwaltungsrecht*; Campbell, *Lives of the Chief Justices*; Foss, *Judges of Eng.*; Reeve, *Hist. of English Law*; Stephen, *Hist. of Criminal Law*; Haydn's *Book of Dignities* gives a list of the Chief Justices; Burn's *Justice of the Peace* is an authoritative manual on the many functions of that office. [T. F. T.]

Justus, Archbishop of Canterbury (624—627), was one of the monks who were sent by Gregory, in 601, to join the mission at Canterbury. In 604 he was made Bishop of Rochester. On the death of Ethelbert, fearing persecution, he fled to France, but soon returned and resumed the charge of his see. In 624, he became Archbishop of Canterbury in succession to Mellitus. The great event of his short occupancy of this see was the extension of the Kentish mission to Northumbria.

Bede, *Ecclesiastical Hist.*

Jutes, The. There are three questions of interest connected with this tribe, which is generally considered to have been the first people of Teutonic blood to settle in Britain after the withdrawal of the Roman legions, viz., the date of their arrival, the place of their origin, and the place of their settlement. The year most usually assigned

as that in which they came to our shores is the one given by the Anglo-Saxon chronicler and Florence of Worcester (449—450); both of these authorities probably basing their computation upon the words of Bede, *Hist. Eccles.*, i. 15. According to Gildas, this event must have happened after Ætius had been consul for the third time, that is, after 446; and Nennius, too, in a very corrupt passage, seems to imply that it took place in 442. But, while accepting this date, we must not forget that there are grounds for assigning the first landing of the Teutonic tribes to a period much nearer the commencement of the century. The next question that arises is, as to the original seat and the race of these Jutish invaders. And here it is noteworthy that neither Gildas nor Nennius seems to know them as Jutes; with the former they are "Saxons," with the latter "exiles from Germany" and "Saxons." Bede appears to speak of them vaguely as being of "the race of the Angles or Saxons," then as "Saxons," and lastly as "Jutes." He also tells us that these Jutes originally came from the north of that "country which is called Anjulus, and which is said to have remained unoccupied from that time to our day." This passage has generally been interpreted as locating the Jutes in Jutland, which may still preserve the old root in its modern name. Lastly, we have to consider the area of the Jutish settlements in Britain. This we are enabled to do by the aid of Bede, who speaks of their having occupied Kent, the Isle of Wight, and a part of the West-Saxon mainland opposite. To this statement we may add Nennius's declaration that Hengest's son and nephew, Octha and Urisa, held much territory beyond the Frisian Sea up to the borders of the Picts. This legend may perhaps point to a Jutish colonisation of some part of S. or S.W. Scotland. [The history of the conquest of Kent will be found under the articles HENGEST, HORSA, ENGLISH CONQUEST, and KENT.]

Gildas, *Historia*, 23; Nennius, *Historia Britonum*, 31, 36, 38, &c.; Bede, *Historia Ecclesiastica*, i. 15; E. Guest, *Origines Celticæ*, ii. 166, &c.

[T. A. A.]

Juxon, WILLIAM (*b.* 1582, *d.* 1663), Archbishop of Canterbury, was born at Chichester, and educated at Merchant Taylors' School and St. John's College, Oxford. He succeeded Laud, in 1621, as Master of St. John's. In 1632 he became also, by Laud's recommendation, Clerk of the King's Closet, and, in the following year, Dean of the Chapel Royal, Bishop of Hereford, and by his translation before being consecrated to the former see, Bishop of London. By the same influence he was appointed, in 1635, Lord High Treasurer, which office he held till 1641. When the king sought advice from several of the bishops whether to consent to the bill for Strafford's attainder or not, Juxon honestly advised him that he ought not to consent if he were not personally satisfied of Strafford's guilt. Again, in 1648, he advised the king on the questions of conscience which arose with reference to the Treaty of Newport, and in the following January attended the king during his trial. During the Commonwealth the bishop lived in retirement in Gloucestershire, occupied in study and hunting. At the Restoration, his attendance on the king's last moments marked him out for promotion to the Archbishopric of Canterbury (Sept., 1660). But his age and his health prevented him from taking an important part either in the Savoy Conference or in the memorable meeting of Convocation which followed.

Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops of Canterbury*, 2nd series, vol. vi.

K

Kaffir Wars, THE, were frequent between the Dutch Boers and the Kaffirs during the Dutch tenure of the Cape of Good Hope. After this colony passed into the hands of the English, these wars occasionally broke out with renewed violence. In 1811, a re-settlement of the frontier led to a severe struggle between the colonial forces under Colonel Graham, and the Kaffirs, who, although they at first gained a victory at the White River, were afterwards completely defeated. In 1818 another war broke out, owing to the arbitrary conduct of Lord Charles Somerset, the governor of Cape Colony, who assisted one of the chiefs with 3,000 men in a private quarrel. The result was that the Kaffirs, under a chief named Makanna, attacked Graham's Town, and were only repulsed after great slaughter had taken place on both sides. After some further hostilities in 1829, 10,000 Kaffirs invaded the colony, in 1835, under a chief named Xoco, and devastated the eastern province. The British troops, under Sir Benjamin Durban and Sir Harry Smith, subsequently invaded Kaffirland, and exacted a severe retribution from the aggressors. In consequence of this collision, it was found necessary to reverse the policy of repression and extermination which had hitherto been employed. In 1846, however, another war broke out, owing to the violation of the treaty on the part of the British; an invasion of Kaffirland followed, and much blood was shed on both sides. In 1851–2 there was a further renewal of hostilities, owing chiefly to the conduct of the Dutch Boers, whose treatment of the natives has always been such as to cause them to look with suspicion and hatred upon all white men. A year or two later British Kaffraria was made a crown colony, and in 1865 was incorporated with Cape Colony.

Kalpy, THE SIEGE OF (1858), occurred during the Indian Mutiny. On May 19,

1858, Sir Hugh Rose laid siege to the town of Kalpy from the north. On the 20th the rebel army made a spirited sally, but were driven back. On the 22nd, being between a double fire, they again attacked Sir Hugh's force, and were only beaten back after an obstinate combat, suffering very heavily under the charges of cavalry and the guns of the horse artillery. All that night Kalpy was cannonaded, and in the morning of the 23rd, Sir Hugh Rose's troops advanced to assault the town in two columns. But they encountered no resistance, for the enemy had fled, and the whole rebel arsenal, including fifty guns, fell into the hands of the English.

Malleson, *Indian Mutiny; Annual Register*, 1858.

Kalunga, The Siege of (Oct., 1814). On the breaking out of the Goorkha War, in 1814, General Gillespie advanced into the Dhoon valley, and coming upon the fortified position of Kalunga, summoned the Goorkha chief, Bulbuddur Sing, to surrender. The Goorkha refused, and Gillespie determined to carry the fort by assault. His men were staggered by the murderous fire directed on them as they advanced up to the wicket, when the general, irritated by the repulse, placed himself at the head of three companies of Europeans, and rushed up to the gate, but was shot through the heart as he was waving his hat to his men to follow him. A retreat was immediately sounded; but not before twenty officers and 240 men were killed and wounded. A month was lost in waiting for heavy ordnance from Delhi. On Nov. 27 the breach was reported practicable, and a second unsuccessful assault was made, with a loss of 680 men in killed and wounded. The mortars were now brought into play, and, after three days' incessant shelling, the Goorkhas sallied forth and escaped. [Goorkha War.]

Kandy Wars, The. Whilst Ceylon was under the rule of the Portuguese and Dutch, the Kandyan territories in the interior of the island had remained unconquered, although a kind of desultory warfare between the natives and the Europeans was kept up. In 1799 and 1800 Mr. North, the governor of Ceylon, endeavoured to induce the King of Kandy to put himself under British protection. These negotiations, however, failed; and, in 1803, Mr. North having received an accession of power by the separation of the government of Ceylon from that of Madras, at once invaded the Kandyan territories, at the head of a force of 3,000 men.

Kars, The Siege of (1855). On the breaking out of the Crimean War, Colonel Fenwick Williams was sent to Asiatic Turkey to organise the Turkish army against the Russian invaders. On the approach of the Russians under Mouravieff, he hastened to Kars, which he provisioned for four months, and prepared to defend to the last. Earthworks were erected wherever they seemed to be required. Mouravieff arrived before Kars in August, with an army of 50,000 men, a portion of which was detached to watch Erzeroum. In order to get rid of as many useless mouths as possible, Williams directed the Bashi-bazouks, or Turkish cavalry, to cut their way through the Russian army, a feat which they performed, though with some loss. On Sept. 29, under the obscurity of the morning, the Russians made a grand attack, but were met with such a stubborn resistance that they were forced to retire, with a loss of 5,000 men. Williams did his best while provisions lasted. There was no hope of relief or assistance. Selim Pasha, who might have come to his aid, refused; and Omar Pasha was too far off. On Nov. 24, therefore, Williams sent Captain Teesdale with a flag of truce to Mouravieff. The Russians displayed great generosity, and granted terms which could be accepted without loss of honour.

Keane, John, 1st Lord (*b.* 1781, *d.* 1844), entered the army in 1793, and served in Egypt, the Mediterranean, and Martinique, down to the year 1809. Having reached the rank of lieut.-colonel, he commanded a brigade in the third division all through the Peninsular War. In 1814 he was made major-general, and served through the American War. He passed eight years in Jamaica as commander-in-chief, from 1823 to 1830, and for a year and a half of the time he administered the civil government also. In 1833, he went to India as commander-in-chief at Bombay. Five years later (1838), he received orders from the government of India to organise and lead a force intended to co-operate with the Scinde army, on the north-west frontier, at the breaking out of the Afghan War; and in December he assumed the command of the combined forces. Ghazni was stormed, and the English troops entered Ghazni, and restored Shah Shujah to the throne of Afghanistan, while Dost Mahommed fled across the Oxus. For his services in this expedition, Sir John Keane was raised to the peerage (1839).

Kells, The Council of, was held in 1152 by Eugenius III.'s legate, Cardinal Paparo, who brought with him the pallia for the Archbishops of Armagh, Cashel, Dublin, and Tuam. The influence of St. Malachy was prominent at this synod, and anticipating the action of the synod at Cashel, it condemned the marriage of the clergy, and perhaps even imposed tithes.

Kemble, John Mitchell (*b.* 1807, *d.* 1857), was the son of the celebrated actor Charles Kemble. He was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, and afterwards studied in Germany. He devoted himself chiefly to the

Anglo-Saxon language and antiquities, and became one of the first Anglo-Saxon scholars in Europe. His first works of importance were *Codex Diplomaticus Ævi Saxonici*, 6 vols., 1839—48, a valuable collection of the charters and other instruments of the period of Anglo-Saxon rule in England; and *The Saxons in England*, 2 vols., 1849, which latter is a most authoritative, learned, and acute account of the laws, institutions, and social condition of the English previous to the Norman Conquest. Mr. Kemble also edited *State Papers, &c., illustrative of the State of Europe from the Revolution to the Accession of the House of Hanover*, which is a useful compilation for the student of this period.

Kemp, John (*b. circa* 1380, *d.* 1454), Archbishop of Canterbury, was descended from a good Kentish family, and after holding various minor preferments, was in 1418 appointed Bishop of Rochester, from which see he was soon translated to London (1421). He was one of the council of regency during Henry VI.'s minority, and in 1426 was made Chancellor, and in the same year raised to the archbishopric of York. He was a supporter of Cardinal Beaufort against Gloucester, and in 1432 had to resign the great seal. After this he seems for some years to have taken no very prominent part in public affairs, but in 1450 he was again appointed Chancellor, and continued to hold the seal till his death. Two years later he was raised to the archbishopric of Canterbury, and in the same year received a cardinal's hat from the Pope. He displayed great firmness and prudence in dealing with Jack Cade and his followers, and by his wisdom and moderation kept the rivalry between the Dukes of York and Somerset within bounds during his lifetime.

Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops of Canterbury.*

Ken, Thomas (*b.* 1637, *d.* 1711), Bishop of Bath and Wells, was born at Berkhampstead, and educated at Winchester and Oxford. About the year 1679 he became chaplain to the Princess Mary, wife of William of Orange, and afterwards to Lord Dartmouth, at Tangiers. Later he was appointed chaplain to Charles II., whom he attended on his death bed, and who seems to have admired the spirit of a man who dared to refuse to allow Eleanor Gwynn to lodge in his prebend's house at Winchester. He was appointed Bishop of Bath and Wells in 1685. After the western rebellion he visited Monmouth in prison, and was the protector of the unhappy victims of that commotion. Ken was one of the "Seven Bishops" tried for petitioning against the Declaration of Indulgence in 1688. Despite his conduct on this occasion he refused to take the oaths to William and Mary, and consequently lost his bishopric, in 1691. Queen Anne in 1702 vainly offered to restore him.

Kendal, Ermengard Melusina von Schulenberg, Duchess of (*d.* 1743), was one of the mistresses of George I. In 1714 she was created Duchess of Munster, in the Irish peerage, and in 1719 Duchess of Kendal. She affected great devotion, and sometimes attended several Lutheran chapels in the course of the day. On the death of the Duke of Somerset no Master of the Horse was appointed for several years, the profits of the place being paid to the Duchess. She seems now to have been looked upon as the dispenser of the king's favours, and was bribed accordingly. She received £10,000 from the South Sea Company. In 1722 she was granted the monopoly of coining halfpence for Ireland, and sold it to Wood. In 1727 she was gained over by Bolingbroke, and became the leader of a powerful combination against Walpole, although the king handed a memorial, conveyed to him through her hands, over to the minister. She is said to have been overwhelmed with grief on hearing of the death of George, and to have imagined that a raven which flew in at her window was the spirit of the king. She seems to have possessed neither beauty nor intellect, and Lord Chesterfield, who had married her niece, says that she was little better than an idiot.

Kenilworth, four miles from Warwick, was granted by Henry III. to Simon de Montfort, and on his rebellion was retaken in 1266, after a siege of six months, at which time the famous "Dictum de Kenilworth" was drawn up under its walls. In 1327 it was the scene of the imprisonment of Edward II., at the time of his deposition, and subsequently came into the hands of John of Gaunt. It was granted by Elizabeth to the Earl of Leicester, and is famous for the entertainment which he gave to the queen in 1575.

Kenilworth, Dictum de (1266), was the name given to the treaty made between King Henry III. and the remains of the baronial party, who after the battle of Evesham shut themselves up in Kenilworth Castle, where, after a siege of several months, they capitulated. This ordinance was then drawn up, declaring the plenary power of the king, annulling the acts of De Montfort, providing that the liberties of the Church and the charters should be maintained; that all persons, with the exception of the De Montforts and a few others, might compound for their offences with a fine; and that all who submitted within forty days should be pardoned. At the same time all persons were forbidden to circulate vain and foolish stories of miracles regarding Simon de Montfort, or to repute him a saint and a martyr. The Dictum was accepted by the barons, except a few who held out in the Isle of Ely; and even these, when

they submitted in 1267, were allowed the same terms as those who had yielded in the preceding year.

Kennedy, JAMES, Bishop of St. Andrew's (*b.* 1406, *d.* 1465), a relative of James II. of Scotland, gave offence to the Earl of Crawfurd by discovering to the king the "band" that had been formed between that nobleman and the Earl of Douglas. Crawfurd, in revenge, laid waste the bishop's lands. During the first part of the minority of James III., Kennedy acted as governor of the kingdom, of which he proved himself an able and conscientious guardian. Mr. Burton observes that he was the first ecclesiastic who held high political power in Scotland, and so to some extent marks the dawn of a new era.

Kenneth I., THE HARDY (*d.* 860), was the son of Alpin, King of the Scots, whom he succeeded (probably in Galloway) in 834, though he did not obtain Dalriada proper till some years later. In 839 he invaded the Pictish territory in conjunction with the Danes, and in 844 finally established himself on the Pictish throne, to which he had a claim by maternal descent, thus being the first to incorporate the two kingdoms. In 851 Kenneth built a church at Dunkeld, which he endowed richly, and to which he removed part of the relics of St. Columba. He was a man of warlike character, and six times invaded Lothian, burning Dunbar and Melrose. His family consisted of two sons — Constantine and Ald — and three daughters, married respectively to Run, King of the Britons of Strathclyde, to Olaf, King of Dublin, and to Aedh Finnbath, King of Ireland.

Chron. Picts and Scots; Skene, *Celtic Scotland*; Robertson, *Early Kings of Scotland*.

Kenneth II., the son of Malcolm, obtained the crown of Alban, in succession to Colin, 971. His first act was to invade Strathclyde, and to fortify the fords of the Forth against the Britons; his next to invade Northumbria, whose earl he carried off captive. The events of this reign are exceedingly obscure; it is probable, however, that Kenneth gained a great victory over the Danes at Luncarty, near Perth, and that he was slain at Fettercairn, in Kincardineshire (995), by Fenella, Countess of Angus, in revenge for the murder of her son by the king. The story of the English chroniclers that King Edgar ceded Lothian to Kenneth, to be held as a fief of the English crown, is without foundation.

Kenneth III., THE GRIM, son of Duff, succeeded Constantine III. as king of Alban, 997. In 1000 he was engaged in warfare with Ethelred of England. He was killed in battle in Strathearn, 1005, by his cousin Malcolm, who succeeded him as Malcolm II.

Kent, PEERAGE OF. The *earldom* of Kent was held, between the Norman Conquest and the fourteenth century, by three individuals: (1) Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, brother to William I. (1067); (2) William of Ypres (1141); and (3) Hubert de Burgh (1227); none of whom transmitted the honour. In 1321 King Edward I. granted the earldom to his younger son, Edmund of Woodstock, who, however, was attainted in 1330. In the following year the title was restored to his son Edmund, who died, as did his younger brother, childless. The earldom was then inherited by a sister's son, Sir Thomas Holland, whose grandson, Thomas, was created Duke of Surrey (1397). In spite of the latter's having been beheaded in 1400, and declared a traitor in Parliament, his son Edmund received his lands, and sat in Parliament as Earl of Kent (1405). On his death without issue (1407), the title became extinct. It seems to have been revived in favour of William Nevill, Lord Fauconberg, about 1461; but he also died childless, and the earldom was granted in 1465 to Edmund Grey, fourth Lord Ruthyn, in whose family it remained until 1740. Henry, the twelfth and last earl of this creation, was raised to a dukedom of the same style in 1706. The title of *Duke of Kent* was revived for Edward, fourth son of King George III. and father of Queen Victoria, who died without male issue in 1820.

Kent, KINGDOM OF, took its name from the Celtic tribe of the Cantii—whom Cæsar found inhabiting this part of our island. Tradition has recorded that in the year 449 "Hengest and Horsa, invited by Vortigern, King of the Britons, sought Britain." After the battle of Crayford, in 456, we read that "the Britons then forsook Kent, and fled in terror to London." The first Teutonic kingdom seems to have been established in England by the Jutes—a Low German tribe who also gained possession of the Isle of Wight. It is not altogether impossible that there were two Jutish kingdoms founded in Kent, the memory of which was in later times preserved by the division of the realm into two sees, with Canterbury and Rochester respectively as seats for the "bishop's stool." For some hundred and fifty years we hear little or nothing of the kingdom of Kent, till towards the close of the sixth century, when Augustine on landing in this island found Ethelbert King of Kent. Ethelbert, who appears to have ascended the throne when only a child of some eight years, had in the course of a long reign largely extended the bounds of his kingdom, and pushed his way up the Thames valley, till in 568 he was defeated at Wimbledon by the West Saxon king—the first battle between the Teutonic invaders. But despite this disaster Ethelbert's reign was one of great success for the Kentish kingdom. Some ten years before the end of the century his authority was more or less paramount as far north as the Humber,

and the Kings of Essex, East Anglia, and Mercia were dependent upon him. His fame had even extended as far as the Continent; and his wife was Bertha, the daughter of the Frankish king, Charibert. The supremacy of Kent at the time of the first conversion may be considered as the main cause of the metropolitan see being fixed at Canterbury. On Ethelbert's death in 516, his son Eadbald seems to have relapsed into paganism; and on the rise of the Northumbrian power we read that Edwin was overlord of every English kingdom except Kent, and Kent, too, was closely knit to Northumberland by the marriage of Eadbald's daughter Ethelburga to Edwin. It was this marriage that led to the first conversion of Northumberland and the mission of Paulinus to the north of England. But by this time the days of Kentish supremacy were over; and the chief interest in the later history of this kingdom is the fact that its sovereigns were the first to issue a code of laws, or to reduce their laws to writing. The codes of Ethelbert, of Lothaire and Eadric (673—690), and of Wihtræd (690), are still extant. Despite the importance attaching to Kent as being the seat of the archbishopric, it seems to have henceforward held its own among the rival kingdoms with difficulty. We read how in 686 it was ravaged by Ceadwalla of Wessex, and how next year its folk burnt Ceadwalla's brother Mull—an offence which led to a second invasion by the West Saxon king. In 694 Ine, King of Wessex, received blood-money for the slaughter of Mull; and in 6[illegible]2 we read of there being two kings in the land. "Kent," says Dr. Stubbs, "in the eigh th century broke up into the kingdoms of the East and West Kentings, probably on the lines of the earlier kingdoms, which are said to have been united by Ethelbert." As the power of Mercia increased it is probable that the country came more and more under the influence of the kings of that province (more especially when the royal Kentish house died out), and later under that of Wessex. As an example of the way in which Kent swayed backwards and forwards between Wessex and Mercia we may take the last few years of its separate existence. In 784 Alric, the father of Egbert, and a descendant of Cerdic, the West-Saxon, was reigning over this kingdom. Ten years later the Chronicle tells us that the reigning king's name was Eadberht Praen. Then came a time of Mercian supremacy: for Kenulf of Mercia drove out Eadberht in 796, and made his brother Cuthred king. On Cuthred's death the throne was seized by Baldred, who in 823 was driven out by Egbert of Wessex. But even now Kent was hardly an integral part of the West-Saxon realm. Egbert made it into a separate kingdom, subject to the overlordship of Wessex, for his eldest son Æthelwulf; and when Æthelwulf succeeded to his father's throne Kent was given, with Sussex, Surrey, and Essex, to Athelstan. Again, nearly twenty years later, we read in the Chronicle that Ethelberht succeeded to the kingdom of the Kentish people in 955. There does not seem to be any reason for supposing that Kent continued separate from the rest of the kingdom after the accession of Ethelberht to the throne of Wessex (860), but we probably have traces of its Witan, and even of the Witan of one of the two sub-kingdoms into which it had been divided a century and a half earlier; when, after the king and all the "high Witan" had gone home in despair, "the East Kentish men made peace with the Danish army, and gave them £3,000." Under Edward the Confessor Kent formed part of Godwin's earldom of Wessex, but its distinct character as compared with the rest of Southern England may be traced in its being towards the latter part of the same reign separated from that province, and given, together with Essex, into the hands of Godwin's son Leofwine. After the conquest Kent seems for a time to have been created a County Palatine for William I.'s half-brother, Odo, who, however, must have forfeited this honour at the beginning of the next reign. [GAVELKIND.]

KINGS OF KENT.

Hengest	d. 488
Æsc	d. 512
Octa	(?)
Eormenric	d. 568
Ethelbert	d. 616
Eadbald	d. 640
Ercombert	d. 664
Egbert	d. 673
Lothaire	d. 685
Eadric	d. 686
Wihtræd	d. 725
Eadberht	d. 748
Ethelbert II.	d. 760
Alric	d. 794
Eadberht Præn	d. 796

Anglo-Saxon Chronicle; Lappenberg, *Anglo-Saxon Kings*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*

[T. A. A.]

Kent, EDMUND GREY, EARL OF (*d.* 1489), known in the early part of his life as Lord Grey of Ruthin, was originally on the Lancastrian side, but during the battle of Northampton he deserted to the Yorkists, to whose victory he contributed greatly by this piece of treachery. On Edward IV.'s accession, he was received into the royal favour, and created Earl of Kent and Lord High Treasurer. He managed to preserve his titles and estates till his death, notwithstanding the different changes of government.

Kentigern, ST., or ST. MUNGO (*d.* 603?), was a contemporary of St. Columba, and the apostle of Strathclyde. He is said to have founded the see of Glasgow, where he seems to have long lived in quiet, till the disorders of the age drove him from that district into Wales. There he founded a monastery and

bishopric in the vale of Clwyd, which received its name from his disciple Asaph. When Rydderch Hael established his rule in Strathclyde, and after the battle of Ardderyd (513), Christianity could once more revive in those parts, Kentigern was recalled to his old diocese, with Hoddam, in Dumfriesshire, for his headquarters, till he once more removed to Glasgow. Thence he seems to have proceeded on his missionary labours to Galloway and the more northern parts of Scotland, especially in the upper valley of the Dee. An old legend tells how St. Kentigern and St. Columba met before their death, and passed several days together in spiritual conversation.

Skene, *Celtic Scotland*; Forbes, *Calendar of Scottish Saints.*

Kentish Petition, The (1701), was an expression of public opinion against the peace policy shown by the Tories in their delay in voting supplies and in seconding the measures taken by William III. for the security of Europe against the ambitious schemes of Louis XIV. It was drawn up by William Colepepper, chairman of the Quarter Sessions at Maidstone, and signed by the deputy lieutenants, about twenty justices of the peace, and a large number of freeholders. It deprecated "the least distrust of his most sacred majesty" on the part of the Commons, and implored the House "that its royal addresses might be turned into Bills of Supply." It was sent up to London in the hands of William Colepepper, and with him went four gentlemen of the county to present it. The House of Commons was indignant at the idea of one county setting itself in opposition to the united wisdom of the country, and perhaps still more so at the indirect way in which it was first brought under its notice. The petitioners could only get their document presented at all on condition that they would avow their deed. Seymour and Howe violently denounced them. The petition was voted "scandalous, insolent, seditious;" and the five gentlemen were removed in the custody of the Serjeant-at-Arms. But public opinion was unanimous in their favour, being chiefly influenced by the "Legion Memorial," drawn up by Daniel Defoe, and at the close of the session the petitioners were set free. Hallam remarks that, "though no attempt was made to call the authority of the House in question by *habeas corpus* or other legal remedy, it was discussed in pamphlets and general conversation, with little advantage to a power so arbitrary, and so evidently abused in the immediate instance."

Burnet, *Hist. of His Own Time*; Stanhope, *Reign of Queen Anne*; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*; Boyer, *Annals.*

Kenyon, Lloyd, 1st Lord (*b.* 1732, *d.* 1802), was called to the Bar in 1761. In 1781 he made himself a great reputation by his skill in conducting the defence of Lord George Gordon. Next year he was made Attorney-General, and in 1784 became Master of the Rolls. In 1788 he succeeded Lord Mansfield as Chief Justice of the King's Bench.

Keppel, Augustus, Viscount (*b.* 1725, *d.* 1786), entered the navy under Lord Anson. In 1749 he was sent to the Mediterranean, and two years later displayed some judgment in negotiations with the Court of Algiers. On the French War breaking out, in 1757, Keppel served with distinction under Hawke, and next year captured Goree, under difficult circumstances. In 1759 he took part in the fight in Quiberon Bay, and, in 1761 and 1762 respectively, he conducted the naval part of the operations in the capture of Belleisle, and commanded at Havannah. In 1765 he was a Lord of the Admiralty, under the Rockingham ministry. For some years he remained in England unemployed, and in 1778 was appointed to the command of the Channel Fleet. On July 27, after being reinforced, Keppel encountered the French fleet off Ushant. He utterly failed to bring them to a decisive action, and tamely allowed them to escape in the night. Thereupon ensued a series of mutual recriminations between Keppel and Palliser, his second in command. A court-martial ensued, which, after sitting for a month, declared the charges against Keppel to be unfounded. Keppel's case became a party question, and the Whigs made it a vital point to gain an acquittal. He had the good fortune to have the popular voice on his side, as well as the advocacy of Erskine, and he escaped amid the loud acclamations of the nation generally, and of the Whigs in particular. In March, 1782, he was appointed to be First Lord of the Admiralty, but resigned on the formation of the Coalition Ministry, only to resume the post, however, in four months under the same government. On Pitt's accession to office he again resigned, and took no further part in politics till his death, in 1786. As a naval commander, Keppel showed no talent, nor even the most commonplace enterprise, and owes his position in history entirely to his own blunders and the accident of his family connection with the Whigs.

Ker, Sir Thomas, of Ferniehurst (*d.* 1586), was the son-in-law of Kirkcaldy of Grange, who made him Provost of Edinburgh, in Queen Mary's interest, 1571. On the capture of Edinburgh, he took refuge in England from the resentment of Morton. He was a bold soldier, and as warden of the Scotch Marches became embroiled with the English (1585), in a disturbance in which it was said that Arran was implicated: a demand from the English court for his surrender and trial was rendered futile by his death.

Kerns is the name given to the light-armed Irish foot-soldiers. They are described for the first time in the *Saga of Egil*, which gives the Norse account of the battle of Brunanburh; and the name was used for the Irish irregular infantry all through the Middle Ages.

Ket, Robert (*d.* 1549), a tanner of Wymondham, in Norfolk, was a leader in the Norfolk agrarian insurrection of 1549. Having collected 16,000 men, he encamped on Mousehold Hill (q.v.), near Norwich, and assumed the title of King of Norfolk and Suffolk, holding a daily court, and trying all captured landlords. On Aug. 1 Ket took Norwich, and subsequently drove out the Marquis of Northampton. But the Earl of Warwick cut off Ket's provisions, and forced him to a battle, in which he was defeated and taken prisoner, being soon afterwards hanged in chains at Norwich Castle.

Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Tytler, *Hist. of Edward VI. and Mary*; Russell, *Kett's Rebellion in Norfolk*, gives original documents.

Khartoum. [Soudan.]

Khelat (1), in the Ghilzai country of Afghanistan, was taken possession of by Shere Ali in 1865. In 1878 it was captured, during the second Afghan War, by Sir Donald Stewart. It was evacuated, and restored to Abdur Rahman, the Ameer of Afghanistan, in 1880. (2) Capital of Baluchistan; its Khan has been subordinate to England since 1854.

Khirkee, The Battle of (Nov. 5, 1817), was fought between the English and the Mahratta troops of the Peishwa Bajee Rao. It resulted in the defeat of the latter by the English commander, Colonel Burr. The Mahratta general took advantage of a gap in the English line, to launch a select body of cavalry against it, hoping to cut the English in two. Colonel Burr's energy prevented this, and the Mahrattas, charged by the English, broke and fled.

Khonds, The, are inhabitants of the part of Orissa lying south of the Mahanuddy. They are a very primitive community, retaining their old patriarchal government, habits, and superstitions. Among other customs they were long addicted to the sacrifice of human beings to the earth goddess, for the purpose of increasing the fertility of their fields. The custom was to hack the living victim in pieces, divide the flesh, and bury it in the respective plots of ground. The exertions of Major Macpherson, Sir John Grant, and Colonel Campbell, were successful in destroying the custom by disproving its efficiency (1837—49).

Kidd, Captain William (*d.* 1701), was a noted pirate living in retirement in New York, when he was selected by the Earl of Bellamont, governor of New York and Massachusetts, to suppress piracy on the American coast and elsewhere. As the Admiralty objected to fit out a man-of-war for this purpose, a ship called the *Adventure* was equipped, chiefly by the subscriptions of the Whig ministers. Kidd was put in command, and took with him a commission under the great seal, empowering him to seize pirates. The king's right to the goods found in possession of these malefactors was granted by letters patent to the supporters of the expedition, his majesty reserving only one-tenth of the spoil to himself. In Feb., 1697, Kidd sailed from the Hudson, and finding that plundering merchant vessels was more profitable than attacking gangs of desperate men, he soon "threw off the character of a privateer and became a pirate." It was about Aug., 1698, that this was made known in London, and Kidd was arrested at New York, to which town he had returned. He was taken to England, and there hanged with three of his companions.

Macaulay, *Hist. Eng.*; Johnson, *Pirates.*

Kildare, Earls of. This family traced its descent through Maurice Fitzgerald to Walter Fitzother, the Castellan of Windsor. His son Gerald became Lord Offaley in 1205. John, the seventh lord, brother of the first Earl of Desmond, was on his victory over De Vescy—till then Lord of Kildare—in 1316 created Earl of Kildare, and died soon after. The fourth earl, Maurice, was Lord Justice of Ireland, and died in 1390. Thomas, the seventh earl, was Lord Deputy till his death in 1478, and from this time the Earls of Kildare became the most powerful nobles in all Ireland, opposed, but as a rule unsuccessfully, by the Butlers. [For the further fortunes of this family see separate articles, and the Fitzgeralds.] The ducal family of Leinster at present represents this ancient house.

Kildare, Gerald, 8th Earl of (*d.* 1513), was thirty-three years chief governor of Ireland. In 1487, the earl, as Lord Deputy, actively assisted at the coronation of Lambert Simnel as Edward VI., at Christ Church, Dublin. His brother, the Chancellor of Ireland, fell at Stoke. However, when the earl made his submission to Edgecumbe, the king's controller, and had an interview with Henry VII. at Windsor, he again became Lord Deputy. After Warbeck's landing in Ireland, however, his office was taken from him, and Sir Edward Poynings had him attainted. He was then sent over to England, and confined in the Tower. Many stories are told of his conduct there, and his frank avowal that he burnt the cathedral at Cashel because he thought the archbishop was in it, is said to have convinced Henry that he was no conspirator. The Bishop of Meath, his chief accuser, concluded his charges by saying, "You see what a man he is—all Ireland cannot rule him." "Then," said the king, "it is meet that he should rule all Ireland." Ac-

cordingly the Earl of Kildare was again made Lord Deputy, and remained so till his death. From this time, however, he was a loyal subject, and waged incessant war against the natives, who were again encroaching on the Pale, till he fell in battle against the O'Moores (1513).

Moore, *Hist. of Ireland*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*

Kildare, Gerald Fitzgerald, 9th Earl of (*d.* 1534), became Lord Deputy after his father's death in 1513, and remained so till 1519, when, in spite of his successful administration, he was superseded by the Earl of Surrey. The hereditary feud with the Butlers (q.v.), meanwhile, assumed such dimensions that, though he had again been made Lord Deputy in 1524, he was summoned to England and kept a prisoner in the Tower from 1526 to 1530. In 1532, though the struggle with the Butlers was still going on, he was again Lord Deputy, but in 1534 he was once more summoned to England, though he was allowed to appoint a deputy during his absence. Gerald appointed his son, Lord Thomas, and after supplying his own castles with artillery and ammunition from the royal magazines, he left for England. He was at once thrown into the Tower, where it is reported he was beheaded.

Kildare, Gerald, 11th Earl of (*d.* 1585), was brother of Thomas, the tenth, and second son of Gerald, the ninth earl. On his father's death he was only ten years old; but in spite of all the efforts of the government to capture him, he was conveyed away from Ireland to the Continent. Cardinal Pole, a relation of his mother, Lady Gray, sent for him into Italy, in which country he was educated. His estates were restored under Edward VI., and under Mary he was reinstated in all his honours. The attainder, however, was not really reversed till the reign of Elizabeth. He was active in suppressing Irish insurrections, and died in 1585 in the Tower, where he had been sent on suspicion of being connected with the Geraldine rebellion in the south. All his sons died early, without issue, and the family honours descended to the present house of Leinster, through a brother of his.

Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Lodge, *Peerage.*

Kilkenny, Synod at, consisting of all the Irish bishops and delegates from the clergy, met at Kilkenny in May, 1642, and decided that no distinction was to be made between the old Irish and the new, or Anglo-Irish. A common oath of association was agreed on; the aid of foreign powers was to be solicited, and any repetition of the Ulster outrages, which the Synod condemned, was to bring down excommunication on the authors. A central council was established, and commanders were appointed for the different provinces—Owen Roe, for Ulster; Preston, for Leinster; Barry, for Munster; and Colonel John Burke, for Connaught. In 1643 a papal legate, Scarampi, joined them; and it was under his guidance that the council opposed the Cessation. First Lord Mountgarret, and then Rinuccini, occupied the place of president of the council. In 1647, after the failure of Glamorgan's treaty, they concluded peace with Ormonde; but it was only in 1649, after Rinuccini had fled, that they were really in earnest.

Froude, *English in Ireland.*

Kilkenny, The Convention at (1342). Alarmed at the attitude of the Anglo-Irish lords, Edward III. sent instructions to his justiciary, Sir John D'Arcy, bidding him exclude those who were possessed of great Irish estates from the high offices of State, and replace them by Englishmen whose estates lay at home. For the purpose of carrying out this measure, D'Arcy called a parliament at Dublin, which the Earl of Desmond and the other members of the Irish party refused to attend. The latter called a general meeting of those who sympathised with him; and this convention, meeting at Kilkenny in Nov., 1342, addressed a petition to Edward III. pointing out that English misgovernment had led to the loss of nearly all Leinster, appealing to Magna Carta, and stating their fears as to a resumption of grants and as to the contemplated supplanting of the English by blood by English by birth. Edward's reply to this remonstrance is not extant, but he seems to have received it graciously.

Close Roll, 16 Edward III.

Kilkenny, The Statute of (1367), was passed in a Parliament held in the town of this name, when Lionel, Duke of Clarence, was Lord Lieutenant for the third time. This statute was intended to check the degeneracy of the Anglo-Irish. Its chief provisions were—the prohibition of intermarriages between the English and the natives; of gossipred, and the adoption of the Brehon law by the English, who were also forbidden to make war on the natives. No man of English race was henceforth to be allowed to assume an Irish name, dress, language, or customs; while no Irish were for the future to be allowed to pasture their cattle on English ground, or to be admitted to any religious house or benefice. The breach of these provisions entailed the penalties of high treason. In addition to the above enactments, it was also provided that no Irish were to be called in as minstrels. Coyne and livery are also strictly forbidden. The statute, it may be pointed out, was directed exclusively against the Anglo-Irish, and where it deals with the natives, only does so to protect them from the lawless baronage.

Hallam, *Const. Hist.*

Killala, French Attempt at. On Aug. 22, 1798, General Humbert landed at Killala.

in Mayo, with about 1,100 men, and was joined by some Irish insurgents. He kept excellent discipline, and prevented the Protestants (among them the Bishop of Killala) from being molested by the rebels. General Lake's troops fled before the invaders; but on the destruction of the reinforcements that were coming by sea to his help, General Humbert found himself forced to surrender to Lord Cornwallis.

Alison, *Hist. of Europe.*

Killigrew, Sir Henry, who had taken part in Sir Henry Dudley's plot against Mary (1556), was, in 1559, selected to bring the Earl of Arran to England. In 1566 he was sent on an embassy to Mary, Queen of Scots; and in 1569 was employed in negotiating for the opening of fresh ports on the Baltic to English commerce. Three years later he was sent by Elizabeth to try to bring about the delivery of Mary Stuart to the Scots, and her execution; and was subsequently employed in some of the queen's most confidential missions.

Killigrew, Thomas (*b.* 1612, *d.* 1683), after having been a page in the court of Charles I., joined Charles II. in his exile, and was sent on an embassy to Venice, where his profligate conduct did much harm to his master's cause. On the Restoration, he was made master of the revels, a post for which he seems to have been well fitted. He had considerable influence over the king, and seems to have used it not unfrequently for good. Many anecdotes are told which show him as the candid friend of the king, whom he endeavoured to divert from his insatiable pursuit of pleasure. Killigrew was the author of many plays, none of which, however, are of any striking merit.

"Killing no Murder: briefly discoursed in three questions, by William Allen," was the title of a pamphlet published in May, 1657, to justify the assassination of Cromwell. It justified the recent attempt of Sundercombe, whom it compared to Brutus. The authorship of the pamphlet is generally attributed to Edward Sexby, the Leveller, then engaged in promoting an alliance between Levellers, Royalists, and Spaniards. It was claimed, after the death of Sexby, by Silas Titus.

Clarendon, *History of the Rebellion;* Evelyn, *Diary;* Masson, *Life of Milton.*

Kilmansegge, Baroness. [Darlington, Countess of.]

Kilmarnock, William Boyd, 2nd Earl of, joined the rebellion of 1745. After the battle of Culloden he surrendered himself, was carried to London, convicted of high treason, and executed on Tower Hill (1646). His title and estates were forfeited for treason.

Kilsyth, The Battle of (Aug. 15, 1645), was fought during the Civil War of the seventeenth century, and resulted in a victory for Montrose and the Cavaliers over the Covenanters, who were commanded by Baillie. Kilsyth is about ten miles south of Stirling.

Kilwardby, Robert, Archbishop of Canterbury (*d.* 1279), was Provincial of the Dominicans in England. On the death of Boniface of Savoy, in 1270, a dispute as to his successor took place between the king and the monks of Canterbury, which resulted in an appeal to the Pope, who nominated Kilwardby to the vacant see. He proved himself worthy of the office, and adopted a conciliatory policy, at the same time introducing many valuable reforms. Archbishop Kilwardby crowned Edward I. and his wife, Eleanor of Castile, in 1274. He was also present at the great council of Lyons, where the deputies of the Greek emperor, Michael Palæologus, expressed their longing for a union of the Eastern and Western Churches. The same year he seems to have attempted to instil something of his own spirit into the course of study at Oxford. He was a great patron of learning, and a prolific author. In 1278 he was made a cardinal, whereupon he vacated his archbishopric, and retired to Rome, where he died.

Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops.*

Kilwarden, Arthur Wolfe, Viscount (*d.* July 23, 1803), was, in 1787, made Solicitor-General for Ireland, and Attorney-General in 1789. In 1798 he became Lord Chief Justice of the King's Bench, and was elevated to the peerage. In 1803 he was unfortunately just driving into Dublin when Emmet's shortlived insurrection was raging, and together with his nephew, was piked by the furious rebels. As a judge he was well known for his inclinations to mercy; and, being Curran's friend, was able to save that statesman from many annoyances in 1798.

Kimberley, John Wodehouse, 1st Earl of (*b.* 1826, d. 1902), was the eldest son of the third Baron Wodehouse. In 1852 he first took office as Under Secretary of Foreign Affairs, till 1856, when he was appointed ambassador at St. Petersburg. In 1858 he returned, and resumed his post in Lord Palmerston's second administration (1859). In 1863 he was sent on a special mission to the North of Europe to endeavour to settle the Schleswig-Holstein difficulty, and next year succeeded the Earl of Carlisle as Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, resigning the post when Lord Russell's administration retired in 1866. He held the office of Privy Seal from 1869 to 1870, when he accepted the Colonial Office. In 1874 he retired with his colleagues. In 1880 he became colonial secretary, and in 1882 secretary for India. From 1892 to 1894 he was secretary for India and lord president of the Council, and in 1894–5 foreign secretary. On the resignation of Lord Rosebery, in 1896, he became leader of the Liberal Peers.

Kimberley, Siege of. [Boer War.]

King, is derived from a common Aryan root, meaning, originally, the father of a family, and is not connected so closely with kin as Old English usage would suggest (*cyning* = son of the race). The early Germans described by Tacitus were more frequently ruled over by elective *principes* in peace, or temporary *duces* in war, than by kings. One result of the migration into Britain was the universal establishment of monarchy among the old English. But the earliest kings can be regarded only as chief magistrates, or permanent *duces*. The constant war with the Britons had developed the *heretoga* into the *cyning*. But by degrees a halo of sanctity surrounded the royal house. Descent from Woden marked it out for special reverence; and though the royal dignity remained strictly elective, it was very exceptional for the choice of the Witan to fall on any but a member of the traditional royal race. As the representative and personification of the unity of the state, as the chief magistrate in peace, as the leader of the host in war, the Early English king acquired a position which ability and energy could always make imposing, despite the constitutional check of the Wise Men and the difficulties inherent in the exercise of power in a primitive and disorderly state of society. The consolidation of the smaller states into greater ones was invariably attended by a great increase in the royal power. "As the kingdom increased in extension," says Dr. Stubbs, "the royal power increased in intension." The conception of the sphere and functions of kingship was enlarged. The development of the *comitatus* gave the monarch a faithful band of followers, who became the nucleus of a new nobility. The blessing of the Church gave the Christian prince new attributes of dignity and sanctity. The traditions of Imperial Rome transferred to the overlord of all Britain the prestige of the emperor within the island which was his empire.

Thus throughout the Anglo-Saxon period the theory of kingship was constantly developing; but its old basis remained the same. Edgar was as much the king of the race, the personal monarch of a free people as the smallest "heptarchic" sovereign. But the growth of a feudalism of native origin side by side as yet with the old Teutonic polity gradually modified both the theory and practice of kingship. In the earliest tables of wergilds, the value of the king's life differs only in degree from the value of the life of a subject. But in the days of Alfred a rudimentary conception of treason had come into existence. The king became lord of the people, and was gradually becoming lord of the soil as well. Though still national monarch of the race, his position had become in part at least affected by the territorialising influences that attended the development of the Anglo-Saxon Constitution. But what the king gained on the one hand he lost on the other. Whatever fresh prerogatives were in theory assigned to him, he was compelled to delegate them to feudal vassals, who, if nominally holding their powers from the crown, were, for all real purposes, more independent of him than the national ministers of the earlier stages of kingship. The absence of an official organisation—the merely personal character of old English kingship—makes the transition from an Edgar to an Ethelred explicable. Even a Harold could hardly have held his own against the feudalising tendencies of the time. In fact, the election of the greatest of the earls to the seat of the house of Cerdic, was as great a triumph of the feudal principle, as the election of the leader of the national party was a triumph of the national policy.

The Norman Conquest had remarkable effects upon the development of English kingship. Though necessarily introducing a large feudal element into the constitution, William I. did his best to counteract the disruptive tendencies of the feudal party by emphasising as strongly as he could the continuity of the Old English kingship, and by assigning to it fresh prerogatives such as were claimed by continental sovereigns. He still professed to be the national king of the people as well as the feudal lord of the land. He did his best to use fully the powers which theoretically belonged even to the feudal king, however little practically they were in most countries exercised. As the custodian of law and order, as the protector of the people against the anarchy and disruption of the feudal party, the Norman king was in a real sense the leader of his people. Thus the general effect of the Conquest on kingship was a great development of the royal power on the old lines. The constitutional checks were removed. The elective element became nearly nominal. The establishment of a strong bureaucratic system, and an elaborate mechanism of organisation and administration, carried the royal power to the highest point ever known in England.

Henry II. completed what Henry I. had begun. The feudal reaction suppressed, the way was clear for the consolidation of a great despotism. It is hard to realise that the monarchy of the Angevins was a gradual evolution from the monarchy of the old West Saxon kings. But though the struggle with the Church had led to the growth of the opposition theory of the divine origin of kingship, and the results of the revived study of Roman Law doubtless entered into the idea of kingship as realised by Henry II., yet the inferiority of his own power in Normandy sufficiently indicates that the English monarchy had mainly developed from internal causes. Feudal Gaul had not much to teach the country of Edgar and Dunstan. The analogy of the Carolings was too remote to give more than the impulse to the growth of Henry II.'s despotism.

But the very administrative system which

gave permanence to the power of the Angevin monarchy, even when the carelessness of a Richard or the tyranny of a John had done its best to degrade the lustre of the crown, contained in itself the elements of the constitution which was to set limits to the prerogatives of future monarchs. The pure despotism of the Conqueror and his sons became a despotism tempered by precedent when the administrative system had worked long enough to establish a bureaucratic circle of administrative families and a well-defined administrative tradition. A baronage, which, in ceasing to be feudal, had become national, led the people to a struggle which in less than two generations from *Magna Carta* had established the mediæval constitution of England.

The reign of Henry III. marks the transition, that of Edward I. the completion of the new theory of English kingship. The legislative and taxative powers were now reposed in the hands of the national representatives, whose power of presenting grievances was an indication of that national feeling in accordance with which a wise king would govern. Practical efficacy was given to the old Teutonic maxim, *Lex fit consensu populi et constitutione regis*. But the whole executive power remained with the king. He still had in his hands the destinies of the whole state. He took the initiative in everything. He governed the country, made war or peace, was the fountain of justice and honour, appointed all ministers, negotiated all treaties, and, through his council, even exercised concurrent legislative and taxative powers with those of Parliament. So long as the nation trusted him, he could do almost anything; but he was the *rex politicus*, who ruled by law, and the law, so far as not fixed by tradition, could only be altered by Parliament.

During the fourteenth century, though the basis of kingship was hardly altered from the position of Edward I., there grew up, in proportion as the popular claims of a Parliamentary party, conscious of its strength, were advanced, an antagonistic series of royal assumptions. "For every assertion of national right," says Dr. Stubbs, "there is a counter-assertion of royal autocracy. Royalty becomes in theory more absolute, as in practice it is limited more and more by the national will." Edward III. was certainly less able to get his own way than Edward I., yet Edward III.'s claims to override Parliament were far in excess of Edward I.'s. The reign of Richard II. was a period of Parliamentary growth; but Richard was the most strenuous asserter of the divine right and indefeasible prerogatives of monarchy of any mediæval sovereign. His great attempt at despotism speedily led, however, to a new adjustment of the position of the monarchy by the Revolution of 1399.

Both the practice of the Lancastrian monarchs and the theorising of Sir John Fortescue illustrate very strongly the highest development of mediæval constitutionalism. "The origin of politic kingship," says Fortescue, "is the will of the people. The limitations of the royal power are the glory rather than the shame of regality," as the prosperity of constitutional England and the misery of despotic France sufficiently indicate. The nomination of the council in Parliament almost anticipates the modern ministry, and shows that, even within his executive functions, Henry IV. was under the control of Parliament. But constitutionalism was too weak a form of government for the fifteenth century. The Wars of the Roses demonstrated its futility, and the "new monarchy," which the Yorkist Edward IV. began, and the Lancastrian Henry VII. established, shows that a new development of kingship could alone cope with the turbulence of an age of revolution.

It is a mistake to regard the monarchy of the Tudors as in any formal sense a break in the continuity of the English constitution. But practically it was little less. The functions of Parliament were minimised, and the House of Lords packed with servile bishops, and the Commons with courtiers and placemen. But the absence of a standing army shows that Henry VIII. could rely on his people's support, and that the monarchy was strong because national and popular. The king was careful not to do illegal acts without sufficient reason for them. Even the *lex regia* of English history, which gave the king's proclamations the force of law, and the sanguinary attainder of fallen statesmen, show that Parliament was on the king's side. The assertion of the royal supremacy over the Church was the chief new contribution of the Tudor period to the theory of the monarchy. The claim of imperial self-sufficiency for the English king was hardly new; but there was the less need to theorise when the practical power was secure. Yet now that the mediæval feudal checks were removed, the proprietary theory of sovereignty, which was a result of feudalism, and regarded the nation as the estate of the king—as much his private property as the land of his nobles—directly prepared the way for the divine right theories of the Stuarts.

As a rule, the political writers of the sixteenth century spoke of "the regiment of England as no mere monarchy, but a rule mixed by oligarchy and democracy" (Aylmer); but Raleigh regards the English and French monarchies as similar in power, and the language of Sir T. Smith is much less emphatic than that of Fortescue. The troubles of an age of revolution had resulted in a theory that, in addition to the ordinary constitutional and limited prerogatives of the crown, the supreme necessity of saving the state involved in the very conception of kingship a dictatorial and paramount sovereignty, which was generally called the king's "absolute power." This perhaps necessary

conception was now combined with the high monarchical theorisings of James I., and the doctrine of the rising Arminian party that the origin of government was to be found in that patriarchal society, whose monarchical constitution was the precedent for all time, that an indefeasible divine right entitled the next heir by hereditary succession to the monarchy, that all constitutional checks on the crown are of favour and not of right, and that passive obedience was in all cases to be paid to the established monarch. This was supplemented by lawyers zealous for the dignity of the fountain of justice, and by reformers who could see in the royal prerogative the only way to progress and improvement; but the antagonistic claims of Parliament soon reduced these theories into unreality. The Civil War practically decided the struggle. However Hobbes might theorise on the absolutism of the sovereign state, or Filmer on the patriarchal basis of divine rights; however parliaments might record their approval of the doctrines of passive obedience and non-resistance, the government under Charles II. was practically in the hands of two political parties, of which one might indeed be more personally favourable to the monarch, but the 'Tories' adulation of the royal power was turned into open rebellion when James II. took them at their word, and lost his throne.

The Revolution of 1681 was the triumph of the Whig theory of monarchy, which Locke's political treatises had developed against Filmer. The sovereign owed his position to the "original contract" between king and people. The violation of this led to an *ipso facto* abdication; for the people had transferred their power to the king under a contract, which was annulled by his failure to perform his part. But not only was the power of the sovereign thus limited in theory, not only was the ultimately elective character of the monarchy re-asserted, and all the old checks recapitulated and enlarged, but the distinction between the crown and the king, between the royal office and the royal person, which the Long Parliament had used to justify their rebellion, became now an essential part of that unwritten constitutional usage which, in practice, soon superseded the old legal and theoretical constitution of the country. The influence and power of the crown went on increasing, while the king's real power became less and less. Nothing but the fiction of jurists regards the nominal head of the modern English State, who "reigns but does not govern," as the real wielder of the ever-increasing executive power which is carried on in his name. The cabinet, an informal committee of Parliament, and ultimately of the House of Commons, is the real king in the mediæval sense. The old distinction of the legislative and executive power upon which the old constitution rested, has been broken down. Many theoretical powers of the sovereign, such as the royal veto on bills, are practically obsolete.

Indirect influence, rather than acts of authority, now makes the monarch a still important factor in English politics. George III., for a time, restored the old royal right of naming ministers, but his ultimate success rested on a harmony of royal and popular wishes which, possible under the "Venetian oligarchy" of the eighteenth century, becomes increasingly difficult when three Reform bills have brought into full power the English democracy, and made the "Patriot King" almost impossible. The continuity of English kingship, so long as it remained a reality, is very remarkable, despite the change of its forms and the fluctuations of its power.

A general view of the growth of kingship can be obtained from the *Constitutional Histories* of Stubbs, Hallam, and May. The primitive kingship of Germany is to be studied in Tacitus' *Germania*. Some parts of the *Dialogus de Scaccario* illustrate the Angevin monarchy, and the formal treatises of mediæval political philosophers, such as Thomas Aquinas, put mediæval monarchy on its broadest basis. Mr. Freeman's writings, while fully illustrating early English kingship, bring out clearly its continuity. Allen *On the Prerogative* is sometimes useful. Fortescue's book, *De Laudibus Legum Angliæ*, is the only full original statement of the constitutional position of the mediæval monarchy. The preambles to some of Henry VIII.'s reforming statutes, illustrate clearly the position claimed by that monarch. Aylmer's answer to Knox's *Blast against the Regiment of Women*; Harrison, *Description of England*, prefixed to Holinshed's *Chronicle*; Sir T. Smith, *On the Commonwealth*; and some of Raleigh's political writings, show the position of the monarchy under Elizabeth. James I.'s *True Law of Free Monarchies* gives the theoretical, Bacon's political treatises the practical basis; and Overall's *Convocation Book*, and Cowell's *Interpreter*, the ecclesiastical and legal justifications of the Stuart claims. Filmer's *Patriarcha* is a more elaborate statement of the divine right position; Hobbes's *Leviathan*, a strong declaration of the autocracy of the State, which, in practice, led to a despotism of the Cromwell or Richelieu type. Locke's *Treatise of Government* is the text-book of eighteenth century Whiggism, and in a sense, aimed against both Filmer and Hobbes. Bolingbroke's *Patriot King*, marks the revival of the Tory monarchical party, which ultimately carried George III. into power. Mr. Bagehot's *English Constitution* gives the best view of the present position of the monarchy. [T. F. T.]

REGNAL YEARS OF THE KINGS OF ENGLAND.—"The importance of extreme accuracy," says Sir H. Nicolas (from whose valuable *Chronology of History* the subjoined table is taken) "respecting the regnal years of the Kings of England, is at once shown by the fact that, in most instances, after the reign of Henry II. no other date of a year occurs, either in public or private documents, than the year of the reign of the existing monarch, and that an error respecting the exact day from which the regnal year is calculated may produce a mistake of one entire year in reducing such a date to the year of the Incarnation. Every year of a king's reign is in two years of our Lord, except (which has never yet happened in England) in the case of an accession on the 1st of January. The first year of the reign of our late sovereign commenced on the 26th of June, 1830, and terminated on the 25th of June, 1831. If, therefore, the be-

ginning of that reign be erroneously calculated—for example, from the 28th instead of from the 26th of June, 1830—every document dated on the 26th and 27th of June, 1 William IV., would be assigned to the year 1831 instead of the year 1830, and a similar mistake would occur on each of those days in every year of that reign. The effect of an error of even a few days, much more of one entire year in the date of events, must be evident, and a correct table of the regnal years of the Kings of England is consequently a *sine quâ non* to the historical student.

"In using this table, it is necessary to observe that it is calculated according to the common and historical year—viz., from the 1st of January—but as the civil, ecclesiastical, and legal year for a long period began on the 25th of March, all dates between the 1st of January and the 25th of March belong, according to the civil computation, to the year before the historical year. For example, from the 1st of January to the 25th of March, in the first year of the reign of William the Conqueror, was in the civil year 1066 instead of 1067. For the same reason, Edward III.'s reign is sometimes said to have begun on the 25th of January, 1326, instead of the 25th of January, 1327; Henry V.'s on the 21st of March, 1412, instead of the 21st of March, 1413; Edward IV.'s on the 4th of March, 1460, instead of the 4th of March, 1461; and the same remark, *mutatis mutandis*, applies to the commencement of the reigns of Edward VI., James I., Charles II., James II., William and Mary, and Queen Anne accordingly, whether the historical or civil year be alluded to."

William the Conqueror.

1	25	Dec.	1066	8	25	Dec.	1073	15	25	Dec.	1080
	24	,,	1067		24	,,	1074		24	,,	1081
2	25	,,	1067	9	25	,,	1074	16	25	,,	1081
	24	,,	1068		24	,,	1075		24	,,	1082
3	25	,,	1068	10	25	,,	1075	17	25	,,	1082
	24	,,	1069		24	,,	1076		24	,,	1083
4	25	,,	1069	11	25	,,	1076	18	25	,,	1083
	24	,,	1070		24	,,	1077		24	,,	1084
5	25	,,	1070	12	25	,,	1077	19	25	,,	1084
	24	,,	1071		24	,,	1078		24	,,	1085
6	25	,,	1071	13	25	,,	1078	20	25	,,	1085
	24	,,	1072		24	,,	1079		24	,,	1086
7	25	,,	1072	14	25	,,	1079	21	25	,,	1086
	24	,,	1073		24	,,	1080		9	Sept.	1087

William the Second.

1	26	Sept.	1087	6	26	Sept.	1092	10	26	Sept.	1096
	25	,,	1088		25	,,	1093		25	,,	1097
2	26	,,	1088	7	26	,,	1093	11	26	,,	1097
	25	,,	1089		25	,,	1094		25	,,	1098
3	26	,,	1089	8	26	,,	1094	12	26	,,	1098
	25	,,	1090		25	,,	1095		25	,,	1099
4	26	,,	1090	9	26	,,	1095	13	26	,,	1099
	25	,,	1091		25	,,	1096		2	Aug.	1100
5	26	,,	1091								
	25	,,	1092								

Henry the First.

1	5	Aug.	1100	11	5	Aug.	1110	21	5	Aug.	1120
	4	,,	1101		4	,,	1111		4	,,	1121
2	5	,,	1101	12	5	,,	1111	22	5	,,	1121
	4	,,	1102		4	,,	1112		4	,,	1122
3	5	,,	1102	13	5	,,	1112	23	5	,,	1122
	4	,,	1103		4	,,	1113		4	,,	1123
4	5	,,	1103	14	5	,,	1113	24	5	,,	1123
	4	,,	1104		4	,,	1114		4	,,	1124
5	5	,,	1104	15	5	,,	1114	25	5	,,	1124
	4	,,	1105		4	,,	1115		4	,,	1125
6	5	,,	1105	16	5	,,	1115	26	5	,,	1125
	4	,,	1106		4	,,	1116		4	,,	1126
7	5	,,	1106	17	5	,,	1116	27	5	,,	1126
	4	,,	1107		4	,,	1117		4	,,	1127
8	5	,,	1107	18	5	,,	1117	28	5	,,	1127
	4	,,	1108		4	,,	1118		4	,,	1128
9	5	,,	1108	19	5	,,	1118	29	5	,,	1128
	4	,,	1109		4	,,	1119		4	,,	1129
10	5	,,	1109	20	5	,,	1119	30	5	,,	1129
	4	,,	1110		4	,,	1120		4	,,	1130

Henry the First (*continued*).

31	5	Aug.	1130	33	5	Aug.	1132	35	5	Aug.	1134
	4	,,	1131		4	,,	1133		4	,,	1135
32	5	,,	1131	34	5	,,	1133	36	5	,,	1135
	4	,,	1132		4	,,	1134		1	Dec.	1135

Stephen.

1	26	Dec.	1135	8	26	Dec.	1142	14	26	Dec.	1148
	25	,,	1136		25	,,	1143		25	,,	1149
2	26	,,	1136	9	26	,,	1143	15	26	,,	1149
	25	,,	1137		25	,,	1144		25	,,	1150
3	26	,,	1137	10	26	,,	1144	16	26	,,	1150
	25	,,	1138		25	,,	1145		25	,,	1151
4	26	,,	1138	11	26	,,	1145	17	26	,,	1151
	25	,,	1139		25	,,	1146		25	,,	1152
5	26	,,	1139	12	26	,,	1146	18	26	,,	1152
	25	,,	1140		25	,,	1147		25	,,	1153
6	26	,,	1140	13	26	,,	1147	19	26	,,	1153
	25	,,	1141		25	,,	1148		25	Oct.	1154
7	26	,,	1141								
	25	,,	1142								

Henry the Second.

1	19	Dec.	1154	13	19	Dec.	1166	25	19	Dec.	1178
	18	,,	1155		18	,,	1167		18	,,	1179
2	19	,,	1155	14	19	,,	1167	26	19	,,	1179
	18	,,	1156		18	,,	1168		18	,,	1180
3	19	,,	1156	15	19	,,	1168	27	19	,,	1180
	18	,,	1157		18	,,	1169		18	,,	1181
4	19	,,	1157	16	19	,,	1169	28	19	,,	1181
	18	,,	1158		18	,,	1170		18	,,	1182
5	19	,,	1158	17	19	,,	1170	29	19	,,	1182
	18	,,	1159		18	,,	1171		18	,,	1183
6	19	,,	1159	18	19	,,	1171	30	19	,,	1183
	18	,,	1160		18	,,	1172		18	,,	1184
7	19	,,	1160	19	19	,,	1172	31	19	,,	1184
	18	,,	1161		18	,,	1173		18	,,	1185
8	19	,,	1161	20	19	,,	1173	32	19	,,	1185
	18	,,	1162		18	,,	1174		18	,,	1186
9	19	,,	1162	21	19	,,	1174	33	19	,,	1186
	18	,,	1163		18	,,	1175		18	,,	1187
10	19	,,	1163	22	19	,,	1175	34	19	,,	1187
	18	,,	1164		18	,,	1176		18	,,	1188
11	19	,,	1164	23	19	,,	1176	35	19	,,	1188
	18	,,	1165		18	,,	1177		6	July	1189
12	19	,,	1165	24	19	,,	1177				
	18	,,	1166		18	,,	1178				

Richard the First.

1	3	Sept.	1189	5	3	Sept.	1193	8	3	Sept.	1196
	2	,,	1190		2	,,	1194		2	,,	1197
2	3	,,	1190	6	3	,,	1194	9	3	,,	1197
	2	,,	1191		2	,,	1195		2	,,	1198
3	3	,,	1191	7	3	,,	1195	10	3	,,	1198
	2	,,	1192		2	,,	1196		6	April	1199
4	3	,,	1192								
	2	,,	1193								

John.

1	27	May	1199	7	19	May	1205	13	12	May	1211
	17	,,	1200		10	,,	1206		2	,,	1212
2	18	,,	1200	8	11	,,	1206	14	3	,,	1212
	2	,,	1201		30	,,	1207		22	,,	1213
3	3	,,	1201	9	31	,,	1207	15	23	,,	1213
	22	,,	1202		14	,,	1208		7	,,	1214
4	23	,,	1202	10	15	,,	1208	16	8	,,	1214
	14	,,	1203		6	,,	1209		27	,,	1215
5	15	,,	1203	11	7	,,	1209	17	28	,,	1215
	2	June	1204		26	,,	1210		18	,,	1216
6	3	,,	1204	12	27	,,	1210	18	19	,,	1216
	18	May	1205		11	,,	1211		19	Oct.	1216

Henry the Third.

1	28	Oct.	1216	6	28	Oct.	1221	11	28	Oct.	1226
	27	,,	1217		27	,,	1222		27	,,	1227
2	28	,,	1217	7	28	,,	1222	12	28	,,	1227
	27	,,	1218		27	,,	1223		27	,,	1228
3	28	,,	1218	8	28	,,	1223	13	28	,,	1228
	27	,,	1219		27	,,	1224		27	,,	1229
4	28	,,	1219	9	28	,,	1224	14	28	,,	1229
	27	,,	1220		27	,,	1225		27	,,	1230
5	28	,,	1220	10	28	,,	1225	15	28	,,	1230
	27	,,	1221		27	,,	1226		27	,,	1231

Henry the Third (*continued*).

16	28	Oct.	1231	30	28	Oct.	1245	44	28	Oct.	1259
	27	,,	1232		27	,,	1246		27	,,	1260
17	28	,,	1232	31	28	,,	1246	45	28	,,	1260
	27	,,	1233		27	,,	1247		27	,,	1261
18	28	,,	1233	32	28	,,	1247	46	28	,,	1261
	27	,,	1234		27	,,	1248		27	,,	1262
19	28	,,	1234	33	28	,,	1248	47	28	,,	1262
	27	,,	1235		27	,,	1249		27	,,	1263
20	28	,,	1235	34	28	,,	1249	48	28	,,	1263
	27	,,	1236		27	,,	1250		27	,,	1264
21	28	,,	1236	35	28	,,	1250	49	28	,,	1264
	27	,,	1237		27	,,	1251		27	,,	1265
22	28	,,	1237	36	28	,,	1251	50	28	,,	1265
	27	,,	1238		27	,,	1252		27	,,	1266
23	28	,,	1238	37	28	,,	1252	51	28	,,	1266
	27	,,	1239		27	,,	1253		27	,,	1267
24	28	,,	1239	38	28	,,	1253	52	28	,,	1267
	27	,,	1240		27	,,	1254		27	,,	1268
25	28	,,	1240	39	28	,,	1254	53	28	,,	1268
	27	,,	1241		27	,,	1255		27	,,	1269
26	28	,,	1241	40	28	,,	1255	54	28	,,	1269
	27	,,	1242		27	,,	1256		27	,,	1270
27	28	,,	1242	41	28	,,	1256	55	28	,,	1270
	27	,,	1243		27	,,	1257		27	,,	1271
28	28	,,	1243	42	28	,,	1257	56	28	,,	1271
	27	,,	1244		27	,,	1258		27	,,	1272
29	28	,,	1244	43	28	,,	1258	57	28	,,	1272
	27	,,	1245		27	,,	1259		16	Nov.	1272

Edward the First.

1	20	Nov.	1272	13	20	Nov.	1284	25	20	Nov.	1296
	19	,,	1273		19	,,	1285		19	,,	1297
2	20	,,	1273	14	20	,,	1285	26	20	,,	1297
	19	,,	1274		19	,,	1286		19	,,	1298
3	20	,,	1274	15	20	,,	1286	27	20	,,	1298
	19	,,	1275		19	,,	1287		19	,,	1299
4	20	,,	1275	16	20	,,	1287	28	20	,,	1299
	19	,,	1276		19	,,	1288		19	,,	1300
5	20	,,	1276	17	20	,,	1288	29	20	,,	1300
	19	,,	1277		19	,,	1289		19	,,	1301
6	20	,,	1277	18	20	,,	1289	30	20	,,	1301
	19	,,	1278		19	,,	1290		19	,,	1302
7	20	,,	1278	19	20	,,	1290	31	20	,,	1302
	19	,,	1279		19	,,	1291		19	,,	1303
8	20	,,	1279	20	20	,,	1291	32	20	,,	1303
	19	,,	1280		19	,,	1292		19	,,	1304
9	20	,,	1280	21	20	,,	1292	33	20	,,	1304
	19	,,	1281		19	,,	1293		19	,,	1305
10	20	,,	1281	22	20	,,	1293	34	20	,,	1305
	19	,,	1282		19	,,	1294		19	,,	1306
11	20	,,	1282	23	20	,,	1294	35	20	,,	1306
	19	,,	1283		19	,,	1295		7	July	1307
12	20	,,	1283	24	20	,,	1295				
	19	,,	1284		19	,,	1296				

Edward the Second.

1	8	July	1307	8	8	July	1314	15	8	July	1321
	7	,,	1308		7	,,	1315		7	,,	1322
2	8	,,	1308	9	8	,,	1315	16	8	,,	1322
	7	,,	1309		7	,,	1316		7	,,	1323
3	8	,,	1309	10	8	,,	1316	17	8	,,	1323
	7	,,	1310		7	,,	1317		7	,,	1324
4	8	,,	1310	11	8	,,	1317	18	8	,,	1324
	7	,,	1311		7	,,	1318		7	,,	1325
5	8	,,	1311	12	8	,,	1318	19	8	,,	1325
	7	,,	1312		7	,,	1319		7	,,	1326
6	8	,,	1312	13	8	,,	1319	20	8	,,	1326
	7	,,	1313		7	,,	1320		20	Jan.	1327
7	8	,,	1313	14	8	,,	1320				
	7	,,	1314		7	,,	1321				

Edward the Third.

1	25	Jan.	1327	6	25	Jan.	1332	11	25	Jan.	1337
	24	,,	1328		24	,,	1333		24	,,	1338
2	25	,,	1328	7	25	,,	1333	12	25	,,	1338
	24	,,	1329		24	,,	1334		24	,,	1339
3	25	,,	1329	8	25	,,	1334	13	25	,,	1339
	24	,,	1330		24	,,	1335		24	,,	1340
4	25	,,	1330	9	25	,,	1335	14	25	,,	1340
	24	,,	1331		24	,,	1336		24	,,	1341
5	25	,,	1331	10	25	,,	1336	15	25	,,	1341
	24	,,	1332		24	,,	1337		24	,,	1342

Edward the Third (*continued*).

16	25	Jan.	1342	28	25	Jan.	1354	40	25	Jan.	1366
	24	,,	1343		24	,,	1355		24	,,	1367
17	25	,,	1343	29	25	,,	1355	41	25	,,	1367
	24	,,	1344		24	,,	1356		24	,,	1368
18	25	,,	1344	30	25	,,	1356	42	25	,,	1368
	24	,,	1345		24	,,	1357		24	,,	1369
19	25	,,	1345	31	25	,,	1357	43	25	,,	1369
	24	,,	1346		24	,,	1358		24	,,	1370
20	25	,,	1346	32	25	,,	1358	44	25	,,	1370
	24	,,	1347		24	,,	1359		24	,,	1371
21	25	,,	1347	33	25	,,	1359	45	25	,,	1371
	24	,,	1348		24	,,	1360		24	,,	1372
22	25	,,	1348	34	25	,,	1360	46	25	,,	1372
	24	,,	1349		24	,,	1361		24	,,	1373
23	25	,,	1349	35	25	,,	1361	47	25	,,	1373
	24	,,	1350		24	,,	1362		24	,,	1374
24	25	,,	1350	36	25	,,	1362	48	25	,,	1374
	24	,,	1351		24	,,	1363		24	,,	1375
25	25	,,	1351	37	25	,,	1363	49	25	,,	1375
	24	,,	1352		24	,,	1364		24	,,	1376
26	25	,,	1352	38	25	,,	1364	50	25	,,	1376
	24	,,	1353		24	,,	1365		24	,,	1377
27	25	,,	1353	39	25	,,	1365	51	25	,,	1377
	24	,,	1354		24	,,	1366		21	June	1377

Richard the Second.

1	22	June	1377	9	22	June	1385	17	22	June	1393
	21	,,	1378		21	,,	1386		21	,,	1394
2	22	,,	1378	10	22	,,	1386	18	22	,,	1394
	21	,,	1379		21	,,	1387		21	,,	1395
3	22	,,	1379	11	22	,,	1387	19	22	,,	1395
	21	,,	1380		21	,,	1388		21	,,	1396
4	22	,,	1380	12	22	,,	1388	20	22	,,	1396
	21	,,	1381		21	,,	1389		21	,,	1397
5	22	,,	1381	13	22	,,	1389	21	22	,,	1397
	21	,,	1382		21	,,	1390		21	,,	1398
6	22	,,	1382	14	22	,,	1390	22	22	,,	1398
	21	,,	1383		21	,,	1391		21	,,	1399
7	22	,,	1383	15	22	,,	1391	23	22	,,	1399
	21	,,	1384		21	,,	1392		29	Sept.	1399
8	22	,,	1384	16	22	,,	1392				
	21	,,	1385		21	,,	1393				

Henry the Fourth.

1	30	Sept.	1399	6	30	Sept.	1404	11	30	Sept.	1409
	29	,,	1400		29	,,	1405		29	,,	1410
2	30	,,	1400	7	30	,,	1405	12	30	,,	1410
	29	,,	1401		29	,,	1406		29	,,	1411
3	30	,,	1401	8	30	,,	1406	13	30	,,	1411
	29	,,	1402		29	,,	1407		29	,,	1412
4	30	,,	1402	9	30	,,	1407	14	30	,,	1412
	29	,,	1403		29	,,	1408		20	Mar.	1413
5	30	,,	1403	10	30	,,	1408				
	29	,,	1404		29	,,	1409				

Henry the Fifth.

1	21	Mar.	1413	5	21	Mar.	1417	8	21	Mar.	1420
	20	,,	1414		20	,,	1418		20	,,	1421
2	21	,,	1414	6	21	,,	1418	9	21	,,	1421
	20	,,	1415		20	,,	1419		20	,,	1422
3	21	,,	1415	7	21	,,	1419	10	21	,,	1422
	20	,,	1416		20	,,	1420		31	Aug.	1422
4	21	,,	1416								
	20	,,	1417								

Henry the Sixth.

1	1	Sept.	1422	9	1	Sept.	1430	17	1	Sept.	1438
	31	Aug.	1423		31	Aug.	1431		31	Aug.	1439
2	1	Sept.	1423	10	1	Sept.	1431	18	1	Sept.	1439
	31	Aug.	1424		31	Aug.	1432		31	Aug.	1440
3	1	Sept.	1424	11	1	Sept.	1432	19	1	Sept.	1440
	31	Aug.	1425		31	Aug.	1433		31	Aug.	1441
4	1	Sept.	1425	12	1	Sept.	1433	20	1	Sept.	1441
	31	Aug.	1426		31	Aug.	1434		31	Aug.	1442
5	1	Sept.	1426	13	1	Sept.	1434	21	1	Sept.	1442
	31	Aug.	1427		31	Aug.	1435		31	Aug.	1443
6	1	Sept.	1427	14	1	Sept.	1435	22	1	Sept.	1443
	31	Aug.	1428		31	Aug.	1436		31	Aug.	1444
7	1	Sept.	1428	15	1	Sept.	1436	23	1	Sept.	1444
	31	Aug.	1429		31	Aug.	1437		31	Aug.	1445
8	1	Sept.	1429	16	1	Sept.	1437	24	1	Sept.	1445
	31	Aug.	1430		31	Aug.	1438		31	Aug.	1446

Henry the Sixth (*continued*).

25	1 Sept.	1446	30	1 Sept.	1451	35	1 Sept.	1456
	31 Aug.	1447		31 Aug.	1452		31 Aug.	1457
26	1 Sept.	1447	31	1 Sept.	1452	36	1 Sept.	1457
	31 Aug.	1448		31 Aug.	1453		31 Aug.	1458
27	1 Sept.	1448	32	1 Sept.	1453	37	1 Sept.	1458
	31 Aug.	1449		31 Aug.	1454		31 Aug.	1459
28	1 Sept.	1449	33	1 Sept.	1454	38	1 Sept.	1459
	31 Aug.	1450		31 Aug.	1455		31 Aug.	1460
29	1 Sept.	1450	34	1 Sept.	1455	39	1 Sept.	1460
	31 Aug.	1451		31 Aug.	1456		4 Mar.	1461

Edward the Fourth.

1	4 March	1461	9	4 March	1469	17	4 March	1477
	3 ,,	1462		3 ,,	1470		3 ,,	1478
2	4 ,,	1462	10	4 ,,	1470	18	4 ,,	1478
	3 ,,	1463		3 ,,	1471		3 ,,	1479
3	4 ,,	1463	11	4 ,,	1471	19	4 ,,	1479
	3 ,,	1464		3 ,,	1472		3 ,,	1480
4	4 ,,	1464	12	4 ,,	1472	20	4 ,,	1480
	3 ,,	1465		3 ,,	1473		3 ,,	1481
5	4 ,,	1465	13	4 ,,	1473	21	4 ,,	1481
	3 ,,	1466		3 ,,	1474		3 ,,	1482
6	4 ,,	1466	14	4 ,,	1474	22	4 ,,	1482
	3 ,,	1467		3 ,,	1475		3 ,,	1483
7	4 ,,	1467	15	4 ,,	1475	23	4 ,,	1483
	3 ,,	1468		3 ,,	1476		9 April	1483
8	4 ,,	1468	16	4 ,,	1476			
	3 ,,	1469		3 ,,	1477			

Edward the Fifth.

1	9 April	1483	
	25 June	1483	

Richard the Third.

1	26 June	1483	2	26 June	1484	3	26 June	1485
	25 ,,	1484		25 ,,	1485		22 Aug.	1485

Henry the Seventh.

1	22 Aug.	1485	9	22 Aug.	1493	17	22 Aug.	1501
	21 ,,	1486		21 ,,	1494		21 ,,	1502
2	22 ,,	1486	10	22 ,,	1494	18	22 ,,	1502
	21 ,,	1487		21 ,,	1495		21 ,,	1503
3	22 ,,	1487	11	22 ,,	1495	19	22 ,,	1503
	21 ,,	1488		21 ,,	1496		21 ,,	1504
4	22 ,,	1488	12	22 ,,	1496	20	22 ,,	1504
	21 ,,	1489		21 ,,	1497		21 ,,	1505
5	22 ,,	1489	13	22 ,,	1497	21	22 ,,	1505
	21 ,,	1490		21 ,,	1498		21 ,,	1506
6	22 ,,	1490	14	22 ,,	1498	22	22 ,,	1506
	21 ,,	1491		21 ,,	1499		21 ,,	1507
7	22 ,,	1491	15	22 ,,	1499	23	22 ,,	1507
	21 ,,	1492		21 ,,	1500		21 ,,	1508
8	22 ,,	1492	16	22 ,,	1500	24	22 ,,	1508
	21 ,,	1493		21 ,,	1501		21 April	1509

Henry the Eighth.

1	22 April	1509	14	22 April	1522	27	22 April	1535
	21 ,,	1510		21 ,,	1523		21 ,,	1536
2	22 ,,	1510	15	22 ,,	1523	28	22 ,,	1536
	21 ,,	1511		21 ,,	1524		21 ,,	1537
3	22 ,,	1511	16	22 ,,	1524	29	22 ,,	1537
	21 ,,	1512		21 ,,	1525		21 ,,	1538
4	22 ,,	1512	17	22 ,,	1525	30	22 ,,	1538
	21 ,,	1513		21 ,,	1526		21 ,,	1539
5	22 ,,	1513	18	22 ,,	1526	31	22 ,,	1539
	21 ,,	1514		21 ,,	1527		21 ,,	1540
6	22 ,,	1514	19	22 ,,	1527	32	22 ,,	1540
	21 ,,	1515		21 ,,	1528		21 ,,	1541
7	22 ,,	1515	20	22 ,,	1528	33	22 ,,	1541
	21 ,,	1516		21 ,,	1529		21 ,,	1542
8	22 ,,	1516	21	22 ,,	1529	34	22 ,,	1542
	21 ,,	1517		21 ,,	1530		21 ,,	1543
9	22 ,,	1517	22	22 ,,	1530	35	22 ,,	1543
	21 ,,	1518		21 ,,	1531		21 ,,	1544
10	22 ,,	1518	23	22 ,,	1531	36	22 ,,	1544
	21 ,,	1519		21 ,,	1532		21 ,,	1545
11	22 ,,	1519	24	22 ,,	1532	37	22 ,,	1545
	21 ,,	1520		21 ,,	1533		21 ,,	1546
12	22 ,,	1520	25	22 ,,	1533	38	22 ,,	1546
	21 ,,	1521		21 ,,	1534		28 Jan.	1547
13	22 ,,	1521	26	22 ,,	1534			
	21 ,,	1522		21 ,,	1535			

Edward the Sixth.

1	28 Jan.	1547	4	28 Jan.	1550	6	28 Jan.	1552
	27 ,,	1548		27 ,,	1551		27 ,,	1553
2	28 ,,	1548	5	28 ,,	1551	7	28 ,,	1553
	27 ,,	1549		27 ,,	1552		6 July	1553
3	28 ,,	1549						
	27 ,,	1550						

Mary.

1	6 July	1553	2	6 July	1554			
	5 ,,	1554		24 ,,	1554			

Philip and Mary.

(*The marriage took place* 25 *July*, 1554.)

1	25 July	1554	3	25 July	1556	5	25 July	1558
	24 ,,	1555		24 ,,	1557		17 Nov.	1558
2	25 ,,	1555	4	25 ,,	1557			
	24 ,,	1556		24 ,,	1558			

Elizabeth.

1	17 Nov.	1558	16	17 Nov.	1573	31	17 Nov.	1588
	16 ,,	1559		16 ,,	1574		16 ,,	1589
2	17 ,,	1559	17	17 ,,	1574	32	17 ,,	1589
	16 ,,	1560		16 ,,	1575		16 ,,	1590
3	17 ,,	1560	18	17 ,,	1575	33	17 ,,	1590
	16 ,,	1561		16 ,,	1576		16 ,,	1591
4	17 ,,	1561	19	17 ,,	1576	34	17 ,,	1591
	16 ,,	1562		16 ,,	1577		16 ,,	1592
5	17 ,,	1562	20	17 ,,	1577	35	17 ,,	1592
	16 ,,	1563		16 ,,	1578		16 ,,	1593
6	17 ,,	1563	21	17 ,,	1578	36	17 ,,	1593
	16 ,,	1564		16 ,,	1579		16 ,,	1594
7	17 ,,	1564	22	17 ,,	1579	37	17 ,,	1594
	16 ,,	1565		16 ,,	1580		16 ,,	1595
8	17 ,,	1565	23	17 ,,	1580	38	17 ,,	1595
	16 ,,	1566		16 ,,	1581		16 ,,	1596
9	17 ,,	1566	24	17 ,,	1581	39	17 ,,	1596
	16 ,,	1567		16 ,,	1582		16 ,,	1597
10	17 ,,	1567	25	17 ,,	1582	40	17 ,,	1597
	16 ,,	1568		16 ,,	1583		16 ,,	1598
11	17 ,,	1568	26	17 ,,	1583	41	17 ,,	1598
	16 ,,	1569		16 ,,	1584		16 ,,	1599
12	17 ,,	1569	27	17 ,,	1584	42	17 ,,	1599
	16 ,,	1570		16 ,,	1585		16 ,,	1600
13	17 ,,	1570	28	17 ,,	1585	43	17 ,,	1600
	16 ,,	1571		16 ,,	1586		16 ,,	1601
14	17 ,,	1571	29	17 ,,	1586	44	17 ,,	1601
	16 ,,	1572		16 ,,	1587		16 ,,	1602
15	17 ,,	1572	30	17 ,,	1587	45	17 ,,	1602
	16 ,,	1573		16 ,,	1588		24 Mar.	1603

James the First.

1	24 Mar.	1603	9	24 Mar.	1611	17	24 Mar.	1619
	23 ,,	1604		23 ,,	1612		23 ,,	1620
2	24 ,,	1604	10	24 ,,	1612	18	24 ,,	1620
	23 ,,	1605		23 ,,	1613		23 ,,	1621
3	24 ,,	1605	11	24 ,,	1613	19	24 ,,	1621
	23 ,,	1606		23 ,,	1614		23 ,,	1622
4	24 ,,	1606	12	24 ,,	1614	20	24 ,,	1622
	23 ,,	1607		23 ,,	1615		23 ,,	1623
5	24 ,,	1607	13	24 ,,	1615	21	24 ,,	1623
	23 ,,	1608		23 ,,	1616		23 ,,	1624
6	24 ,,	1608	14	24 ,,	1616	22	24 ,,	1624
	23 ,,	1609		23 ,,	1617		23 ,,	1625
7	24 ,,	1609	15	24 ,,	1617	23	24 ,,	1625
	23 ,,	1610		23 ,,	1618		27 ,,	1625
8	24 ,,	1610	16	24 ,,	1618			
	23 ,,	1611		23 ,,	1619			

Charles the First.

1	27 Mar.	1625	9	27 Mar.	1633	17	27 Mar.	1641
	26 ,,	1626		26 ,,	1634		26 ,,	1642
2	27 ,,	1626	10	27 ,,	1634	18	27 ,,	1642
	26 ,,	1627		26 ,,	1635		26 ,,	1643
3	27 ,,	1627	11	27 ,,	1635	19	27 ,,	1643
	26 ,,	1628		26 ,,	1636		26 ,,	1644
4	27 ,,	1628	12	27 ,,	1636	20	27 ,,	1644
	26 ,,	1629		26 ,,	1637		26 ,,	1645
5	27 ,,	1629	13	27 ,,	1637	21	27 ,,	1645
	26 ,,	1630		26 ,,	1638		26 ,,	1646
6	27 ,,	1630	14	27 ,,	1638	22	27 ,,	1646
	26 ,,	1631		26 ,,	1639		26 ,,	1647
7	27 ,,	1631	15	27 ,,	1639	23	27 ,,	1647
	26 ,,	1632		26 ,,	1640		26 ,,	1648
8	27 ,,	1632	16	27 ,,	1640	24	27 ,,	1648
	26 ,,	1633		26 ,,	1641		30 Jan.	1649

Charles the Second.

1	30 Jan.	1649	
	29 ,,	1650	
2	30 ,,	1650	
	29 ,,	1651	
3	30 ,,	1651	
	29 ,,	1652	
4	30 ,,	1652	
	29 ,,	1653	
5	30 ,,	1653	
	29 ,,	1654	
6	30 ,,	1654	
	29 ,,	1655	
7	30 ,,	1655	
	29 ,,	1656	
8	30 ,,	1656	
	29 ,,	1657	
9	30 ,,	1657	
	29 ,,	1658	
10	30 ,,	1658	
	29 ,,	1659	
11	30 ,,	1659	
	29 ,,	1660	
12	30 ,,	1660	
	29 ,,	1661	
13	30 Jan.	1661	
	29 ,,	1662	
14	30 ,,	1662	
	29 ,,	1663	
15	30 ,,	1663	
	29 ,,	1664	
16	30 ,,	1664	
	29 ,,	1665	
17	30 ,,	1665	
	29 ,,	1666	
18	30 ,,	1666	
	29 ,,	1667	
19	30 ,,	1667	
	29 ,,	1668	
20	30 ,,	1668	
	29 ,,	1669	
21	30 ,,	1669	
	29 ,,	1670	
22	30 ,,	1670	
	29 ,,	1671	
23	30 ,,	1671	
	29 ,,	1672	
24	30 ,,	1672	
	29 ,,	1673	
25	30 ,,	1673	
	29 ,,	1674	
26	30 Jan.	1674	
	29 ,,	1675	
27	30 ,,	1675	
	29 ,,	1676	
28	30 ,,	1676	
	29 ,,	1677	
29	30 ,,	1677	
	29 ,,	1678	
30	30 ,,	1678	
	29 ,,	1679	
31	30 ,,	1679	
	29 ,,	1680	
32	30 ,,	1680	
	29 ,,	1681	
33	30 ,,	1681	
	29 ,,	1682	
34	30 ,,	1682	
	29 ,,	1683	
35	30 ,,	1683	
	29 ,,	1684	
36	30 ,,	1684	
	29 ,,	1685	
37	30 ,,	1685	
	6 Feb.	1685	

Commonwealth.

James the Second.

1	6 Feb.	1685	
	5 ,,	1686	
2	6 ,,	1686	
	5 ,,	1687	
3	6 Feb.	1687	
	5 ,,	1688	
4	6 Feb.	1688	
	11 Dec.	1688	

William and Mary.

1	13 Feb.	1689	
	12 ,,	1690	
2	13 ,,	1690	
	12 ,,	1691	
3	13 ,,	1691	
	12 ,,	1692	
4	13 ,,	1692	
	12 ,,	1693	
5	13 ,,	1693	
	12 ,,	1694	
6	13 Feb.	1694	
	27 Dec.	1694	

William III.

7	28 Dec.	1694	
	27 ,,	1695	
8	28 ,,	1695	
	27 ,,	1696	
9	28 ,,	1696	
	27 ,,	1697	
10	28 Dec.	1697	
	27 ,,	1698	
11	28 ,,	1698	
	27 ,,	1699	
12	28 ,,	1699	
	27 ,,	1700	
13	28 ,,	1700	
	27 ,,	1701	
14	28 ,,	1701	
	8 Mar.	1702	

Anne.

1	8 Mar.	1702	
	7 ,,	1703	
2	8 ,,	1703	
	7 ,,	1704	
3	8 ,,	1704	
	7 ,,	1705	
4	8 ,,	1705	
	7 ,,	1706	
5	8 ,,	1706	
	7 ,,	1707	
6	8 Mar.	1707	
	7 ,,	1708	
7	8 ,,	1708	
	7 ,,	1709	
8	8 ,,	1709	
	7 ,,	1710	
9	8 ,,	1710	
	7 ,,	1711	
10	8 Mar.	1711	
	7 ,,	1712	
11	8 ,,	1712	
	7 ,,	1713	
12	8 ,,	1713	
	7 ,,	1714	
13	8 ,,	1714	
	1 Aug.	1714	

George the First.

1	1 Aug.	1714	
	31 July	1715	
2	1 Aug.	1715	
	31 July	1716	
3	1 Aug.	1716	
	31 July	1717	
4	1 Aug.	1717	
	31 July	1718	
5	1 Aug.	1718	
	31 July	1719	
6	1 Aug.	1719	
	31 July	1720	
7	1 Aug.	1720	
	31 July	1721	
8	1 Aug.	1721	
	31 July	1722	
9	1 Aug.	1722	
	31 July	1723	
10	1 Aug.	1723	
	31 July	1724	
11	1 Aug.	1724	
	31 July	1725	
12	1 Aug.	1725	
	31 July	1726	
13	1 Aug.	1726	
	11 June	1727	

George the Second.

1	11 June	1727	
	10 ,,	1728	
2	11 ,,	1728	
	10 ,,	1729	
3	11 ,,	1729	
	10 ,,	1730	
4	11 ,,	1730	
	10 ,,	1731	
5	11 ,,	1731	
	10 ,,	1732	
6	11 ,,	1732	
	10 ,,	1733	
7	11 ,,	1733	
	10 ,,	1734	
8	11 June	1734	
	10 ,,	1735	
9	11 ,,	1735	
	10 ,,	1736	
10	11 ,,	1736	
	10 ,,	1737	
11	11 ,,	1737	
	10 ,,	1738	
12	11 ,,	1738	
	10 ,,	1739	
13	11 ,,	1739	
	10 ,,	1740	
14	11 ,,	1740	
	10 ,,	1741	
15	11 June	1741	
	10 ,,	1742	
16	11 ,,	1742	
	10 ,,	1743	
17	11 ,,	1743	
	10 ,,	1744	
18	11 ,,	1744	
	10 ,,	1745	
19	11 ,,	1745	
	10 ,,	1746	
20	11 ,,	1746	
	10 ,,	1747	
21	11 ,,	1747	
	10 ,,	1748	
22	11 June	1748	
	10 ,,	1749	
23	11 ,,	1749	
	10 ,,	1750	
24	11 ,,	1750	
	10 ,,	1751	
25	11 ,,	1751	
	10 ,,	1752	
26	11 ,,	1752	
	10 ,,	1753	
27	11 June	1753	
	10 ,,	1754	
28	11 ,,	1754	
	10 ,,	1755	
29	11 ,,	1755	
	10 ,,	1756	
30	11 ,,	1756	
	10 ,,	1757	
31	11 June	1757	
	10 ,,	1758	
32	11 ,,	1758	
	10 ,,	1759	
33	11 ,,	1759	
	10 ,,	1760	
34	11 ,,	1760	
	25 Oct.	1760	

George the Third.

1	25 Oct.	1760	
	24 ,,	1761	
2	25 ,,	1761	
	24 ,,	1762	
3	25 ,,	1762	
	24 ,,	1763	
4	25 ,,	1763	
	24 ,,	1764	
5	25 ,,	1764	
	24 ,,	1765	
6	25 ,,	1765	
	24 ,,	1766	
7	25 ,,	1766	
	24 ,,	1767	
8	25 ,,	1767	
	24 ,,	1768	
9	25 ,,	1768	
	24 ,,	1769	
10	25 ,,	1769	
	24 ,,	1770	
11	25 ,,	1770	
	24 ,,	1771	
12	25 ,,	1771	
	24 ,,	1772	
13	25 ,,	1772	
	24 ,,	1773	
14	25 ,,	1773	
	24 ,,	1774	
15	25 ,,	1774	
	24 ,,	1775	
16	25 ,,	1775	
	24 ,,	1776	
17	25 ,,	1776	
	24 ,,	1777	
18	25 Oct.	1777	
	24 ,,	1778	
19	25 ,,	1778	
	24 ,,	1779	
20	25 ,,	1779	
	24 ,,	1780	
21	25 ,,	1780	
	24 ,,	1781	
22	25 ,,	1781	
	24 ,,	1782	
23	25 ,,	1782	
	24 ,,	1783	
24	25 ,,	1783	
	24 ,,	1784	
25	25 ,,	1784	
	24 ,,	1785	
26	25 ,,	1785	
	24 ,,	1786	
27	25 ,,	1786	
	24 ,,	1787	
28	25 ,,	1787	
	24 ,,	1788	
29	25 ,,	1788	
	24 ,,	1789	
30	25 ,,	1789	
	24 ,,	1790	
31	25 ,,	1790	
	24 ,,	1791	
32	25 ,,	1791	
	24 ,,	1792	
33	25 ,,	1792	
	24 ,,	1793	
34	25 ,,	1793	
	24 ,,	1794	
35	25 Oct.	1794	
	24 ,,	1795	
36	25 ,,	1795	
	24 ,,	1796	
37	25 ,,	1796	
	24 ,,	1797	
38	25 ,,	1797	
	24 ,,	1798	
39	25 ,,	1798	
	24 ,,	1799	
40	25 ,,	1799	
	24 ,,	1800	
41	25 ,,	1800	
	24 ,,	1801	
42	25 ,,	1801	
	24 ,,	1802	
43	25 ,,	1802	
	24 ,,	1803	
44	25 ,,	1803	
	24 ,,	1804	
45	25 ,,	1804	
	24 ,,	1805	
46	25 ,,	1805	
	24 ,,	1806	
47	25 ,,	1806	
	24 ,,	1807	
48	25 ,,	1807	
	24 ,,	1808	
49	25 ,,	1808	
	24 ,,	1809	
50	25 ,,	1809	
	24 ,,	1810	
51	25 Oct.	1810	
	24 ,,	1811	
52	25 ,,	1811	
	24 ,,	1812	
53	25 ,,	1812	
	24 ,,	1813	
54	25 ,,	1813	
	24 ,,	1814	
55	25 ,,	1814	
	24 ,,	1815	

Regency.

56	25 Oct.	1815	
	24 ,,	1816	
57	25 ,,	1816	
	24 ,,	1817	
58	25 ,,	1817	
	24 ,,	1818	
59	25 ,,	1818	
	24 ,,	1819	
60	25 ,,	1819	
	29 Jan.	1820	

Regency.

George the Fourth.

1	29 Jan.	1820	
	28 ,,	1821	
2	29 ,,	1821	
	28 ,,	1822	
3	29 ,,	1822	
	28 ,,	1823	
4	29 ,,	1823	
	28 ,,	1824	
5	29 Jan.	1824	
	28 ,,	1825	
6	29 ,,	1825	
	28 ,,	1826	
7	29 ,,	1826	
	28 ,,	1827	
8	29 ,,	1827	
	28 ,,	1828	
9	29 Jan.	1828	
	28 ,,	1829	
10	29 ,,	1829	
	28 ,,	1830	
11	29 ,,	1830	
	26 June	1830	

William the Fourth.

1	26 June	1830	
	25 ,,	1831	
2	26 ,,	1831	
	25 ,,	1832	
3	26 ,,	1832	
	25 ,,	1833	
4	26 June	1833	
	25 ,,	1834	
5	26 ,,	1834	
	25 ,,	1835	
6	26 June	1835	
	25 ,,	1836	
7	26 ,,	1836	
	20 ,,	1837	

Victoria.

1	20 June	1837	
	19 ,,	1838	
2	20 ,,	1838	
	19 ,,	1839	
3	20 ,,	1839	
	19 ,,	1840	
4	20 June	1840	
	19 ,,	1841	
5	20 ,,	1841	
	19 ,,	1842	
6	20 ,,	1842	
	19 ,,	1843	
7	20 June	1843	
	19 ,,	1844	
8	20 ,,	1844	
	19 ,,	1845	
9	20 ,,	1845	
	19 ,,	1846	

VICTORIA (*continued*).

10	20	June	1846	29	20	June	1865	48	20	June	1884
	19	,,	1847		19	,,	1866		19	,,	1885
11	20	,,	1847	30	20	,,	1866	49	20	,,	1885
	19	,,	1848		19	,,	1867		19	,,	1886
12	20	,,	1848	31	20	,,	1867	50	20	,,	1886
	19	,,	1849		19	,,	1868		19	,,	1887
13	20	,,	1849	32	20	,,	1868	51	20	,,	1887
	19	,,	1850		19	,,	1869		19	,,	1888
14	20	,,	1850	33	20	,,	1869	52	20	,,	1888
	19	,,	1851		19	,,	1870		19	,,	1889
15	20	,,	1851	34	20	,,	1870	53	20	,,	1889
	19	,,	1852		19	,,	1871		19	,,	1890
16	20	,,	1852	35	20	,,	1871	54	20	,,	1890
	19	,,	1853		19	,,	1872		19	,,	1891
17	20	,,	1853	36	20	,,	1872	55	20	,,	1891
	19	,,	1854		19	,,	1873		19	,,	1892
18	20	,,	1854	37	20	,,	1873	56	20	,,	1892
	19	,,	1855		19	,,	1874		19	,,	1893
19	20	,,	1855	38	20	,,	1874	57	20	,,	1893
	19	,,	1856		19	,,	1875		19	,,	1894
20	20	,,	1856	39	20	,,	1875	58	20	,,	1894
	19	,,	1857		19	,,	1876		19	,,	1895
21	20	,,	1857	40	20	,,	1876	59	20	,,	1895
	19	,,	1858		19	,,	1877		19	,,	1896
22	20	,,	1858	41	20	,,	1877	60	20	,,	1896
	19	,,	1859		19	,,	1878		19	,,	1897
23	20	,,	1859	42	20	,,	1878	61	20	,,	1897
	19	,,	1860		19	,,	1879		19	,,	1898
24	20	,,	1860	43	20	,,	1879	62	20	,,	1898
	19	,,	1861		19	,,	1880		19	,,	1899
25	20	,,	1861	44	20	,,	1880	63	20	,,	1899
	19	,,	1862		19	,,	1881		19	,,	1900
26	20	,,	1862	45	20	,,	1881	64	20	,,	1900
	19	,,	1863		19	,,	1882		22	Jan.	1901
27	20	,,	1863	46	20	,,	1882				
	19	,,	1864		19	,,	1883				
28	20	,,	1864	47	20	,,	1883				
	19	,,	1865		19	,,	1884				

EDWARD THE SEVENTH

1	22	Jan.	1901	4	22	Jan.	1904	7	22	Jan.	1907
	21	,,	1902		21	,,	1905		21	,,	1908
2	22	,,	1902	5	22	,,	1905	8	22	,,	1909
	21	,,	1903		21	,,	1906		21	,,	1910
3	22	,,	1903	6	22	,,	1906				
	21	,,	1904		21	,,	1907				

King, WILLIAM (*b.* 1650, *d.* 1729), Archbishop of Dublin, was born at Antrim. He was a writer of philosophical treatises, and among his works were *On the Origin of Evil* (1702), and *The State of the Protestants in Ireland under King James's Government* (1691).

King-maker, THE. [WARWICK, EARL OF.]

"King never dies, THE," a legal maxim, according to which the accession of each monarch is considered as having taken place at the very moment of his predecessor's decease. This theory was unknown in the earlier periods of our history, and could not have been held so long as the right of succession was recognised as being inalienably bound up in a strict line of descent. Accordingly, on the death of the early Norman and Plantagenet kings, there always seems to have been a period anterior to the coronation of the new sovereign, in which the lawless baron, or man of lower degree, felt himself free to commit whatever outrages he would, on the plea that there was as yet no higher potentate to whom he was responsible. "From William I. to Henry III. inclusive, the reign of each king was considered only to commence at his coronation. From Edward II. to Henry VIII., the accession is ascribed to the day following the death or deposition of the preceding king; but from Edward VI. to the present day, the above-cited maxim has prevailed."

King of Folly, THE, was a title given to Roger Mortimer, by his own son, on account of his reckless affectation of more than royal state and splendour.

King of the Commons, THE, was the title assumed by John Litster, the leader of the Norfolk insurgents at the time of the Peasant Revolt in 1381. James V. of Scotland was also called King of the Commons.

King's Bench, THE COURT OF, was an offshoot from the Curia Regis. Its origin as a distinct tribunal is attributed by Dr. Stubbs to the arrangements made by Henry II., in 1178, by which five judges in the Curia sat constantly to hear the complaints of the people. By the beginning of the reign of Henry III., the Curia had become divided into the three branches of the Court of Common Pleas, the Exchequer, and the King's Bench, the two first entertaining causes concerned with the private suits of subjects, and with the revenue; and the last, all suits in which the king was concerned, *placita coram rege*, as they were called, which practically embraced the rest of the business of the old Curia Regis. The court still continued to follow the king, who was theoretically supposed to sit in banco, and this practice was continued by the *Articuli super Cartas* of Edward I. Shortly before the end of the reign of Henry III., the office of Justiciar became extinct, and the King's Bench received a staff of judges of its own. There was a regular succession of chief justices of the King's Bench from the beginning of Edward I. The denomination Curia Regis was now applied exclusively to this court. We find a constant tendency in this court, as well as in the others, to enlarge its jurisdiction. Thus the King's Bench, having cognisance of all personal actions where the defendant was already under custody of the court, used a legal fiction by which persons not actually in custody of the marshal of the court were assumed to be so, in order that the lawyers in that court might have more practice. This custom, which tended to confuse the system of judicature, was frequently legislated against, but without success, until the statutes 2 Will. IV., c. 39, and 2 Vict., c. 110, established one form of process, the writ of summons, for all the courts. The justices of the King's Bench sat with the Lord Chancellor, the Lord Treasurer, and the justices of Common Pleas, in the Court of Exchequer Chamber, which was created by statute 31 Edw. III., c. 12, to determine errors from the common law side of the Court of Exchequer. A second Court of Exchequer, composed of the justices of Common Pleas and the barons

of the Court of Exchequer, was created by 27 Elizabeth, c. 8, to determine writs of error from the King's Bench. Both these courts were abolished, and a new "Court of Exchequer Chamber" established by 11 Geo. IV., and 1 Will. IV., c. 70. The jurisdiction of this court was, however, merged in that of the new Court of Appeal by the Judicature Act of 1873, by which great Act also the Court of Queen's (or King's) Bench became once more a part of one Supreme Court of Judicature, called the High Court of Justice, of which the judges of the Queen's Bench formed the first division. [CURIA REGIS.]

Reeves, *Hist. of the English Law*; Stephen, *Commentaries*, iii.; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, ii. ch. xv.: Laugmead, *Const. Hist.*, ch. v.; 36 & 37 Vict., c. 66.

King's Friends was the name given to the secret counsellors and supporters of George III. in his attempt to restore the royal authority to its old power, and to govern without exclusive reliance on either of the two great parties of the State. This movement, in its practical issue, was a revolt against the oligarchy of the great Whig families who had in the main guided the destinies of the country since the Revolution; and the germs of the principles which it afterwards developed are to be traced in the writings of Bolingbroke, who, in Mr. Lecky's words, "strongly urged the necessity of disregarding the old party distinctions, and building up the royal authority on their decay." But as a matter of fact, the "King's Friends," though drawn from both the great parties of the State, were in the main recruited from the ranks of the Tories. George III., however, did not accept his new supporters as being members of either party; his one object was to create a body of men faithful to himself, and detached from either of the great sections of political life. This body was to be his constant adviser, and to carry out his will. Of its leaders he took counsel in private, and followed its advice rather than that of his nominal ministers. It is this state of affairs that is so bitterly sketched in Burke's *Thoughts on the Causes of the Present Discontents*. It has been sometimes thought that the picture drawn by the great statesman is a little highly coloured; but of the general truth of his assertions there can be no question. It was due to a knowledge of this secret power in the background thatLord Rockingham, in 1765, would only accept office on condition that "some of the particular friends of the Earl of Bute should not either publicly or privately, directly or indirectly, have any concern or interest in public affairs." For the Earl of Bute was recognised as the centre of this undue influence. But even after this protest the same condition of things continued. It was by means of this undue pressure that George III. opposed the repeal of the Stamp Act while pretending to support his ministers, and Lord Rockingham had to obtain his written consent to the passing of his measure of repeal. At last, in 1766, the king succeeded in getting rid of the Whigs, and in forming a government, under the Duke of Grafton and Lord Chatham, that should be free from party connections. On Lord North's accession to power (1770), the king consented to identify his own policy with that of his minister, and would admit none to power except those who would carry out his wishes to the utmost. When Pitt came into power (1784) this great minister was content to "make common cause with the crown," and, according to Sir Erskine May, the royal influence through the new premier was greater than it had been before. As a rule, their views were identical; but when they differed, the king was ready to make use of his old tactics. So, on the Catholic question of 1801, George III. is reported to have said that he should reckon any man his personal enemy who should propose any such measure. On Pitt's return to office in 1804, Mr. Addington, the late Prime Minister, took up the position of leader of the "King's Friends," a party which then reckoned some sixty or seventy members in its ranks. The sentiments of the Portland and Liverpool ministries were so well in accord with those of the crown that the party of the "King's Friends," though still existing, had no cause to separate itself from the ostensible government.

Burke, *Thoughts on the Causes of the Present Discontents*; Lecky, *History of England in the Eighteenth Century*, iii. iv.; Massey, *Hist. of Eng.*; Sir E. May, *Const. Hist.* [T. A. A.]

King's Evil, the name formerly given to scrofula, which was supposed to be cured by the king's touch. Edward the Confessor is said to have been the first king who touched for the king's evil, which was done in 1058. The custom reached its height under the Stuarts, and Charles I. is said to have touched over 10,000 persons. It was continued under Anne, but was finally dropped by George I. The touching was accompanied by a religious service.

Kingston, SIR ANTHONY (*d.* 1556), was sent to Cornwall as Provost Marshal after the rebellion of 1549, and is said to have behaved with great cruelty on this occasion. He presided at the execution of Bishop Hooper, 1555, and in the following year was implicated in the plot to marry the Princess Elizabeth to the Earl of Devon, and to proclaim her queen. On the discovery of the conspiracy Kingston committed suicide.

Kingsweston, THE BATTLE OF (Aug., 1549), was fought between a party of the western rebels under Mr. Coffin and the royal troops. The latter were completely victorious.

Kinsale, THE SIEGE OF (1601). Five thousand Spaniards, commanded by Don

Juan d'Aguila, landed in the harbour of Kinsale in September, 1601, having been despatched to support Hugh O'Neil's rebellion. They took possession of the castle of Kincorain, but soon lost it to Lord Mountjoy. That nobleman being shortly after joined by the Earl of Thomond and some 1,000 men, defeated O'Neil's attempt to raise the siege (Dec. 23). Don Juan, who was tired of Irish warfare, thereupon surrendered Kinsale, Castlehaven, and the other towns in his possession in return for permission to sail for Corunna with all his forces.

Kirk, Scottish. [Scotland, Church of.]

Kirk of Field was an old and roofless church just without the walls of Edinburgh: close by this was a building which had formerly belonged to the Dominican order. It was here that Darnley was murdered on the night of Feb. 9, 1567. [Darnley.]

Kirkcaldy, Sir William, of Grange (*d.* 1573), was one of the murderers of Cardinal Beaton (1546). He was a leader of the confederacy against Queen Mary in 1567, and to him it was that she surrendered after the battle of Carberry Hill. Appointed Governor of Edinburgh Castle in the same year, he fought for Murray at Langside in 1568; but shortly afterwards joined the queen's party, and held the castle and town of Edinburgh against the regent Morton. In 1573 he was compelled to surrender the place. Morton caused him to be hanged as a traitor in Edinburgh, Aug. 3, 1573.

Melville, *Memoirs*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Burton, *Hist. of Scotland.*

Kirke, Colonel Percy, was a soldier who had served for some years at Tangier, and was put in command of some troops at the battle of Sedgemoor. After the defeat of Monmouth, Kirke and his troops, who were known as "Kirke's Lambs," committed fearful atrocities in the west of England against the followers of Monmouth. Kirke was one of the first to join William in 1688, and subsequently was put in command of some troops in Ireland, and raised the siege of Derry in 1689.

Kitchener, Horatio Herbert, first Viscount Kitchener of Khartoum (*b.* 1850) entered the Royal Engineers in 1871, and saw service in the Soudan in 1883–5. In the latter year he was made commissioner for the delimitation of the territories of the Sultan of Zanzibar. He was Governor-General of the Red Sea Littoral from 1886 to 1888, and of the Soudan in 1899. In 1888 he was severely wounded in an engagement at Handoub. From that date until 1892 he was Adjutant-General of the Egyptian Army, and Sirdar from 1892 to 1899. He effected the conquest of the Soudan, breaking the power of the Khalifa at the battle of Omdurman. On the outbreak of the South African war he was made Chief of the Staff, and was Commander-in-Chief in South Africa from 1900 to 1902, from the retirement of Lord Roberts until the end of the war. From 1902 to 1909 he was Commander-in-Chief in India. He was raised to the peerage in 1898, and created a Viscount in 1902.

Kit-Kat Club, The, was a Whig club, instituted in 1703 to promote the principles of the Revolution and the Protestant succession. It took its name from a confectioner in Westminster named Christopher Kat, at whose house the members used to dine.

Knight, William, Bp. of Bath and Wells in 1541, was often an ambassador under Henry VIII. He was employed in 1527 at Rome to forward the negotiations for the king's divorce from Katherine of Aragon. Knight obtained more than one opportunity of seeing Clement in Henry's interest; and when the Pope escaped to Orvieto he at once followed him thither, and obtained from Clement his signature to two documents granting respectively a commission to two cardinals, for hearing and determining the cause in England, and a dispensation for the king to marry another wife. But, while affixing his signature to the documents, Clement had been careful to date them, not from Orvieto, where he then was, but from his prison in Rome.

Brewer, *Reign of Henry VIII.*

Knight, Charles (*b.* 1791, *d.* 1873), commenced business as a publisher in London about the year 1823. He was one of the earliest members of the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, for which he published *The Library of Entertaining Knowledge* (1832—45). About the year 1844 he published the *Pictorial History of England*, a very useful and interesting work, and some years later (1856—62) his *Popular History of England*. Both hold a high place among our general histories.

Knighton, Henry, lived in the reign of Henry II., and was a monk of Leicester Abbey. He was the author of a *Compilatio de Eventibus Angliæ a tempore Regis Eadgari usque ad mortem Regis Ricardi Secundi.* The earlier part is a mere compilation from previous chroniclers; but the portion which relates to the later part of Edward III.'s reign and that of Richard II. is of considerable value.

Knighton's work is printed in Twysden, *Scriptores Decem.*

Knighthood. The word knight is derived from the Anglo-Saxon *cniht*, which, although primarily equivalent to *servus*, was, even before the Conquest, occasionally used as equivalent to *miles*. It is necessary to distinguish between the personal distinction of knighthood and the legal system of knights' fees. In its wider sense, knight-

hood may be taken as nearly equivalent to chivalry or to feudalism, and will be found treated under those heads. The actual ceremony of conferring knighthood does not seem to have been known in England before the Conquest, and the first instance of it we have on satisfactory evidence is the investiture of the Conqueror's sons by their father. After the Conquest, the extent of land held by a knight, or the *knight's fee*, was the unit of the system of feudal tenure. The system of knight's fee was not invented before the compilation of Domesday, though it was regularly established by the reign of Henry II. What the exact value and extent of a knight's fee were is hardly ascertained. It is probable that the five hides of land which constituted a thegn before the Conquest formed one of the knight's qualifications after it; and Dr. Stubbs thinks that the extent may have varied, but that the common quantity was expressed in the twenty pounds' worth of annual value, the qualification for knighthood. It has been said (on the authority of Ordericus Vitalis) that soon after the Conquest England was divided into 60,000 knights' fees. This, however, is unlikely, and the number has been supposed by modern authorities to have been between eight and nine thousand. Knighthood was made compulsory on all freeholders possessing an estate of £20, and was frequently enforced; as, for instance, by proclamation to the sheriffs in the nineteenth of Henry III., and by Edward I. in 1278. Writs for distraint of knighthood were issued to enforce this law, and continued to be issued down to the time of Charles I., the only difference being that the estate for which knighthood was compulsory was raised from £20 to £40 per annum. Elizabeth and James I. issued these writs, apparently, only on one occasion in each reign; but the practice was revived and rigidly enforced by Charles I. in 1629. It was finally abolished, with all feudal tenures and customs, in 1661. Knights in the Middle Ages, from the time of Edward I. (and probably before), were either knights banneret, who were entitled to display the square banneret, and supposed to command a larger force in the field; and knights bachelors, who carried the triangular pennon, and were of inferior rank. In England, as elsewhere, knighthood was purely a personal distinction, and was never hereditary. Knights bannerets had disappeared by the sixteenth century, and were not subsequently created. In England there are now eight Orders of Knighthood: the Garter (founded in the fourteenth century), the Thistle (founded 1687), St. Patrick (1788), the Bath (1725), St. Michael and St. George (1818), Star of India (1861), Indian Empire (1876), Royal Victorian (1896).

Knights of the Shire. [PARLIAMENT; ELECTIONS.]

Knolles, SIR ROBERT (*d.* 1407), was originally a leader of one of the Free Companies which devastated France in the fourteenth century. But having subsequently obtained a regular command in the English army, he greatly distinguished himself by his bravery and military skill. When the Peasants' Rebellion broke out, in 1381, he was instrumental in protecting Richard II. from the insurgents.

Knollys, SIR FRANCIS (*d.* 1596), "the sternest Puritan of his day," was known during the reign of Edward VI. as one of the most zealous of the advocates of the Reformation. The religious persecution of Mary's reign forced him to seek an asylum in Germany; but on the accession of Elizabeth, to whom he was cousin by marriage, he returned to England, imbued with the spirit of Puritanism more than ever. Made Vice-Chamberlain of the royal household, he was subsequently advanced to the office of Lord Treasurer, whilst immediately after his arrival in England he was appointed a Privy Councillor. In 1566 he was sent to Ireland, when he recommended the Council in England to approve of the campaign proposed by Sidney. Two years later he was appointed the custodian of Mary, Queen of Scots, whose charms his "keen, hard sense" was supposed to despise. It was he who suggested the plan of marrying Mary to George Carey, son of Lord Hunsdon, for, "so matched, Elizabeth need have no fear of her." Knollys, like the rest of Queen Elizabeth's ministers, was liable to have his course of action repudiated by his mistress if she found it convenient; and in his dealings with Mary Stuart he found himself repeatedly forced to act upon his own responsibility, with the danger of a subsequent disavowal of his proceedings. Notwithstanding the occasional bad treatment he received at the queen's hands, Sir Francis remained till his death one of her most faithful ministers, though on one occasion he exclaimed that he doubted whether she were any longer fit to rule.

Knox, JOHN (*b.* 1505, *d.* 1572), was a native of Haddington, and educated at the grammar school of that town and at Glasgow. He seems to have taken orders as a secular priest in 1530, and to have had some connection with one of the religious establishments at Haddington for some years afterwards. In 1546 he became converted to the Reformed faith, and placed himself under the protection of some of the Protestant gentry of St. Andrews. In June, 1547, the French captured St. Andrews, and Knox was carried prisoner to France, and sent to the galleys. He obtained his release in the beginning of 1549, and came to England, where he remained till the death of Edward VI. For two years he was minister of Berwick, where he put in practice, two years before it was

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JOHN KNOX.

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authorised by Edward VI.'s second Prayer-book, the substitution of common bread for wafers at the Communion, and allowed sitting instead of kneeling. Knox was appointed one of Edward's chaplains, and was consulted on the composition of Cranmer's Forty-five Articles. On the accession of Mary he retired to France, and subsequently to Geneva, where he remained till 1559, and wrote several controversial and other works, including his *Blast of the Trumpet against the Monstrous Regiment of Women*, which gave great offence to Queen Elizabeth. In 1559 he returned to Scotland, and immediately joined the party of the Lords of the Congregation. In July of this year he was chosen minister of Edinburgh. He took a large share in the proceedings of the Protestant leaders henceforth, and was mainly instrumental in drawing up the *Confession of Faith*, accepted by Parliament in 1560. On the arrival of Mary in Scotland, she held several conferences with Knox, and at length, in December, 1562, ordered him to be tried for treason before the Council. He was, however, acquitted. After the marriage of Mary and Darnley in 1565, he preached a sermon which gave great offence to the royal couple. He was called before the Council, and inhibited from preaching. He preached the coronation sermon when the infant James VI. was crowned, in July, 1567. After the death of Murray (January, 1569), Knox, who had incurred the enmity of Kirkcaldy of Grange, left Edinburgh, and retired to St. Andrews. He returned to Edinburgh in August, 1572, preached twice more (once when the news of the St. Bartholomew Massacre arrived), and died Nov. 24, 1572. Knox was twice married, first to Marjory Bowes in 1555, and secondly to Margaret Stewart, daughter of Lord Ochiltree. Besides numerous epistles, discourses, and polemical tracts, Knox wrote a *Historie of the Reformatioun of Religion within the Realm of Scotland*, which is of considerable historical value.

Knox's *Works*, ed. by D. Laing, 6 vols., Edinburgh (1846—64); McCrie, *Life of John Knox*; Moncreiff, *Knox and the Scottish Reformation*; Froude, *The Reformation and the Scottish Character*; Carlyle, *Portraits of John Knox* and *Heroes and Hero Worship*; Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*.

Koles, The, are an aboriginal tribe of Western Bengal. Having come under the operation of laws which they did not understand, they were excited by the systematic encroachment of Bengal settlers and zemindars. In 1832 they rose in arms, and the insurrection was not put down without much bloodshed. On the suppression of the rebellion the new regulations were withdrawn, and the Koles were placed under a special commissioner. Since then they have made considerable advances in civilisation and prosperity.

Korygaom, The Battle of (Jan. 1, 1818), was fought during Lord Hastings's war against Holkar and the Peishwa. Captain Staunton, who had been summoned to Poonah with his division, encountered the Mahratta army of the Peishwa Bajee Rao, 25,000 strong, near the village of Korygaom. The Mahrattas immediately crossed the river to attack the English troops, and the combat that ensued was most arduous and brilliant. Captain Staunton's sepoys fought with desperate valour till they were sinking with exhaustion and frantic with thirst. The approach of General Smith, who was in hot pursuit, so alarmed the Peishwa, that he retreated in the night, and thus abandoned the contest.

Kotah, The Siege of (Mar. 22, 1858). Kotah was a strongly fortified town on the Chumbul. Its Rajah was friendly to the English, but had been coerced into rebellion by his followers. General Roberts, therefore, found there were two parties in Kotah, and was immediately joined by the Rajah, who was in possession of the citadel and palace. The rebels, about 5,000 in number, held the rest of the town. Batteries were erected by General Roberts against the northern end of the town, a reinforcement was sent to the citadel, and on the 30th the place was easily carried by assault.

Annual Register, 1858; Malleson, *Indian Mutiny*.

Kruger, President. [Boer War; also Transvaal Colony.]

Kurdlah Campaign, The (1795). When the temporising policy of Sir John Shore left the Mahrattas free to attack the Nizam in order to enforce their claims for *choute* or tribute, the whole Mahratta Confederacy assembled for the last time under the banner of the Peishwa, commanded by Hurry Punt. The Nizam, deserted by the English, had thrown himself into the hands of a French officer named Raymond, who had organised for him a disciplined army of 18,000 men, commanded and trained by European officers. The Nizam advanced to Beder, and the two armies met at Kurdlah (March 11, 1795). The Nizam's cavalry drove the entire centre division of the Mahrattas from the field, and Raymond's infantry stood their ground gallantly against Scindia's disciplined battalions. The Nizam, however, was persuaded by his favourite sultana to retire from the field, and the whole army followed him in headlong rout. Soon afterwards he was shut up in Kurdlah and captured. To secure his liberty he had to make territorial cessions to the value of thirty-five lacs of rupees a year, besides surrendering his chief minister Musheer-ul-Mulk, who was by far the ablest man at his court, and a warm partisan of the English.

J. Grant Duff, *Hist. of the Mahrattas*.

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Labourers, The Statutes of, were first enacted in 1349, immediately after the Black Death. The dearth of labourers which this plague occasioned altered the relations between employer and employed, and the latter demanded an immediate and considerable rise in wages. To check this, two statutes were enacted forbidding the men to receive or the masters to offer higher wages than before the Black Death; labourers were to be compelled to work, and were forbidden to leave their employment without agreeing with their masters. These statutes were re-enacted in 1357, 1361, 1368, and 1376, but, as might be expected, they proved nugatory, and only increased the ill-feeling between masters and men, and the social difficulties which culminated in the revolt of 1381. [Black Death.]

Rogers, *History of Agriculture;* Seebohm, Papers on *The Black Death* in the *Fortnightly Review*.

Labrador was first discovered by Sebastian Cabot in 1496, and probably visited by him again in 1513. It was explored by Frobisher in 1576, but seems to have been lost sight of till it was rediscovered by Hudson in 1610. No regular settlements were made till some Moravian colonies were formed about 1750. It was not, however, constituted a colony, and formed merely an outlying and neglected portion of the Hudson Bay territory, till the cession of the company's territory to the crown and their incorporation with the Dominion of Canada in 1868.

Labuan, an island in the Malay Archipelago, was ceded to Great Britain by the Sultan of Borneo (1847), owing to the influence of Sir James Brooke, the Rajah of Sarawak, who had formed a settlement there in 1846. In 1907 Labuan became a part of the Straits Settlements, and was incorporated for administrative purposes in the settlement of Singapore.

Lackland (or, Sansterre) was the name by which King John was commonly known, from his not receiving any great fief from his father as his brothers had done.

Lack-learning (or, Unlearned) **Parliament,** The, was the name given to the Parliament which met at Coventry in 1404. It acquired its name from the fact that the king, acting upon an ordinance issued by Edward III. in 1372, directed that no lawyers should be returned as members. This Parliament is chiefly remarkable for the proposal that the lands of the clergy should for one year be taken into the king's hands for the purposes of the war with France.

Ladysmith, Siege of. [Boer War.]

Lænland (*i.e. loanland*), in Anglo-Saxon times, was opposed to the ethel or alod by virtue of its being land "whose title and possession were not vested in the same person." That is, in other words, lænland was land held and cultivated, either directly or indirectly, by one who was not its real owner in point of law, and who, in most cases, paid rent in money, kind, or service in return for the privileges he enjoyed. Læns were of two descriptions —viz., "unbooked" (which was of course the earlier custom) and "booked." As a matter of necessity our knowledge of unbooked lænland is very scanty, and is for the most part due to incidental allusions in charters drawn up at the time when the property in question was passing from the earlier to the later state; as, for example, in Kemble (cod. 617), where Archbishop Oswald grants Tidington to Ælfsige for three lives, "that he may have it as freely for bookland as he had it for lænland" (A.D. 977). Under the head of unbooked lænland, according to Mr. Lodge's view, would be comprised those parts of a lord's estate which he did not keep in his own hands (his *utland*), when cultivated by freemen, and all estates of folkland. It is, however, to be noted that, in common usage, folkland is only known as lænland when it has been once more let out by the original grantee. From the above instance it will be seen that booked lænland might run for several terms of lives; but it is probable that the original term of unbooked lænland would be but for one. A single instance may suffice to show that lænland was not in any degree looked upon as belonging to the tenant. A certain Helmstan, who held lænland of Duke Ordlaf, being found guilty of theft, forfeited his chattels to the king, but not his land, which being Ordlaf's "he could not forfeit." It will perhaps be interesting to give in conclusion one or two examples of the rents by which lænland was held. In the first half of the ninth century the estate bequeathed by Heregyth of Canterbury was bound to pay thirty ambers of ale, 300 loaves of fine and coarse bread, an ox, a hog, wethers, geese, honey, butter, and salt. Forty hides at Alresford were, perhaps a little earlier, rented at four and a half shillings the hide. The freemen of Hurstbourn in Alfred's days had to pay forty pence per hide, with a certain quantity of ale and three horseloads of white wheat; three acres of their lord's lands were to be ploughed and sown by the tenants; hay was to be mowed and gathered; wood cut and stacked; at Easter they had to make a payment of lambs and ewes, and every week in the year, except three, they were to do any other work that might be required. This is a very good specimen of a rent of a very mixed character.

Lodge, *Essays in Anglo-Saxon Law*, 86—97; Kemble, *Saxons in England*, i. 310—326; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, i. 88; Kemble, *Codex Diplomaticus*.

[T. A. A.]

Læt. The iæt of the earliest English laws is generally accepted as being the equivalent of the *colonus* in Tacitus' account of the Germanic tribes, the *litus* of the capitularies of Charles the Great, and the *Lex Saxonum*, and perhaps the *lazzi* or *lassi* of the Continental Saxons in the eighth century. If this be so, the læt is not to be considered as a mere slave, but, in Dr. Stubbs's words, is to be "distinctly recognised as a member of the nation; he is valued for the wergild, summoned to the placitum, taxed for the Church, allowed the right of compurgation, and choice in marriage." According to the same authority, "he is free to every one but his lord, and simply unfree in cultivating land of which he is not the owner." The læt, then, in early English days would be employed on the estates of the great landowners or on the folk-land, and may in very many cases have been the degraded descendant of the earlier British possessor of the soil, who, by stress of circumstances, was now forced to till for a stranger lord the land that had once been his own or his father's, and served his lord "for hire or for land, though not yet reduced so low in the scale as the théow or wealh."

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Kemble, *Saxons in England.*; Waitz, *Deutsche Verfassungsgeschichte*

Lagos, a British crown colony until 1906, when it was incorporated with the colony and protectorate of Southern Nigeria. It is on the Gulf of Guinea, formerly a dependency of the Gold Coast Colony. It was ceded to England in 1861, and has since been used as a station for the suppression of the slave trade. The population is about a hundred thousand.

Lagos, The Battle of (Aug., 1759), was one of the naval victories gained by the English during the Seven Years' War. The French ships had been blockaded in their ports during the year; but in August the Toulon fleet attempted to join the Brest squadron. It was pursued by Admiral Boscawen from Gibraltar, and attacked off Lagos in Algarve, when of its largest ships two were captured, and two others run ashore. The Portuguese reasonably complained that the neutrality of their coast had been violated.

La Hogue, The Battle of (May 19, 1692). This naval victory checked a threatened invasion of England. Louis XIV., in support of James, had collected an army in Normandy. Two French fleets, amounting together to about eighty ships, were collected at Brest and Toulon, under Tourville and D'Estrées. James, misled by the intrigues of Admiral Russell, believed that there was great disaffection in the English fleet. Meanwhile, the combined English and Dutch fleet of ninety ships swept the Channel. Tourville had with him only his own squadron, consisting of forty-four ships of the line. Believing in the treachery of the English officers, he thought that he had only the Dutch to deal with. But the ill-judged declaration, whereby James exempted whole classes of Englishmen from pardon, and a stirring despatch on the other hand from Mary, had thoroughly roused the temper of the English fleet. Russell visited all his ships and exhorted his crews. The battle lasted till four in the afternoon. At first the wind was in favour of the French, and only half the allied fleet could be brought into action. But just as the French had resolved to retire the wind changed. Their retreat became a flight. Twelve of the largest ships took refuge in the bay of La Hogue, under the eyes of James. There they were attacked and destroyed, as they lay in the shallow water, during two successive days, by a flotilla of boats under Admiral Rorke.

Macaulay, *Hist. of England.*

Lahore, in the Punjaub, was the capital of the independent kingdom of Runjeet Singh from 1799. It was occupied by the British under Sir Hugh Gough in Feb., 1846, and the treaty of peace between the English and Dhuleep Singh was signed there (Mar., 1846).

Laing, David (*b.* 1793, *d.* 1878), was a learned Scottish antiquary and bibliographer. He edited very many works, among which are Dunbar's *Poems*, Sir David Lyndesay's *Poems*, and *Wyntoun's Chronicle*. He also published the *Life and Works of John Knox* (1847—48).

Laing, Malcolm (*b.* 1762, *d.* 1818), was the author of a *History of Scotland*, which is a work showing considerable research. He also wrote the concluding volume of Henry's *History of England*.

Lake, Gerard, Viscount (*b.* 1744, *d.* 1808), entered the army at an early age, and served during the Seven Years' War in Germany. He went through the American War under Cornwallis, and earned great distinction. In 1793 he was in the campaign in Flanders, and here also greatly distinguished himself. In 1800 he was appointed to the command of the army in India. In this capacity he bore a chief share in the Mahratta War of 1803, and enhanced his reputation as a brilliant soldier. He defeated Scindia at Laswaree (Nov., 1803), and captured Delhi. He received a peerage in 1804. He returned to England in 1807, and was appointed Governor of Portsmouth.

Lally, Count de, arrived in India, 1757, as commander of the French. A dashing soldier, but harsh, severe, and unconciliating, he alienated the native allies as much as Dupleix had conciliated them. For some time he maintained the war, and in 1759 besieged Madras. The siege failed; Lally was defeated at Wandewash, driven out of Pondicherry, and the French dominion was at an end in India. On his return to France he was imprisoned

for eighteen months, tried, and condemned to death. He was conveyed to the scaffold with a large gag in his mouth, to prevent his speaking, and executed.

Lambeth Articles, The (1595), were drawn up by Archbishop Whitgift, assisted by Fletcher, Bishop of London; Vaughan, Bishop of Bangor; and Tindal, Dean of Ely. They consisted of nine articles, embracing all the most pronounced doctrines of Calvinism, and were sent to Cambridge, where Calvinistic ideas were rife, with a permission from the archbishop that they should be adopted. They were, however, disapproved by the queen and Lord Burleigh, and as they were not accepted by the Parliament, they had no binding force. They were again brought forward and rejected at the Hampton Conference (1604).

Lambeth, Treaty of (1217), was made after the Fair of Lincoln by the regent, Earl of Pembroke, acting for Henry III., and the French prince, Louis. By this treaty it was agreed that Louis should at once evacuate England, that the prisoners on either side should be released, and that a general amnesty should be granted. It also seems that a sum of money, amounting to 10,000 marks, was paid to Louis as the price of his departure.

Lancaster was a Roman station founded by Agricola, A.D. 79. It was bestowed by William the Conqueror on Roger of Poitou, who built the castle. It was burnt by the Scots in 1322 and 1389. In the Civil War it was taken by the Parliamentarians, Feb., 1643, and by the Royalists, March, 1643. The town was occupied by the Scots in 1648 under Hamilton. It was occupied by the Jacobite insurgents for two days, Nov. 7 and 9, 1715, and by Charles Edward, Nov. 24, 1745.

Lancaster, The Duchy and County Palatine of, grew out of the *honour of Lancaster*, mentioned in *Magna Carta*, which, having reverted to the crown on the death of William of Blois, brother of King Stephen, had been granted to the Earls of Chester, and on their extinction in 1232, to William de Ferrers. After the second rebellion of Robert de Ferrers, Henry III. erected the honour into an earldom in favour of his son Edmund, afterwards called Crouchback. The Duchy was created by Edward III. in 1351 in favour of Henry, Edmund's grandson, and in his patent of creation the dignity of an earl palatine was conferred upon him. The latter title was also given in 1377 to John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, who had married Henry of Lancaster's heiress. Henry IV., his heir, being conscious of the weakness of his title to the throne, prevented the union of the Duchy with the crown, by procuring an Act of Parliament, soon after his accession, providing that the title and revenues should remain with him and his heirs for ever. Henry V. added to it the estates inherited from his mother, Mary Bohun; but a large part of it had to be put into the hands of trustees for the payment of his debts. On the attainder of Henry VI., after the accession of Edward IV., the Duchy was forfeited to the crown, and was inseparably united to it by Act of Parliament, the County Palatine, which had hitherto been kept separate, being incorporated in the Duchy. This settlement was confirmed by an Act passed in the reign of Henry VII. The revenues of the Duchy are not reckoned among the hereditary revenues, in place of which the Civil List was granted to William IV. in 1830, but are paid over to the Privy Purse, an annual account being presented to Parliament. Burke, in 1780, reckoned the average returns at £4,000 a year, but they have since increased. The Chancery Court of the County Palatine sat at Preston: the Duchy Court being held at Westminster. Their functions appear to have been defined by Henry IV. The Court of the Duchy was given concurrent jurisdiction with the Chancery as to matters in equity relating to lands holden of the crown in right of the Duchy, and was chiefly concerned in questions of revenue. By recent Acts, the administration of justice has been assimilated to that of the rest of England, the Court of the County having been abolished by the Judicature Act of 1873. The office of Chancellor of the Duchy is now a political appointment, and is frequently held by a cabinet minister. Its duties are nominal. The Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, if a commoner, takes precedence next after the Chancellor of the Exchequer.

Selden, *Titles of Honour*; Baines, *History of Lancashire*; Beatson, *Book of Dignities*; Stephen, *Commentaries on the Laws of England*, vol. iii., ch. v.

[L. C. S.]

Lancaster, The Family of. The position of the royal house of Lancaster can scarcely be understood without some regard to that earlier family to whose title it succeeded. Edmund, the younger son of Henry III., had been given the earldoms of Lancaster and Leicester; to these his son Thomas had added Derby, and, through his marriage, Lincoln. When, therefore, this Thomas took up the position of leader of the baronial opposition to Edward II., he was supported by a body of vassals, many of whom—those of Lancaster and Lincoln in particular—were accustomed to war against the crown. With Thomas of Lancaster we can have no sympathy. He was unscrupulous, yet quite devoid of political ability; selfish in his objects, and retrograde and oligarchical in policy. But his action associated the name of Lancaster with opposition to the king and alliance with the clergy; and his violent death secured for him the reputation of a martyr to the popular cause. His son Henry assisted in the deposition of Edward II., but also in the ruin of

Mortimer; and this Henry and his heir—another Henry—showed themselves faithful servants of Edward III., during the greater part of whose reign there is scant trace of any baronial opposition. But the last Henry's daughter, Blanche, married John of Gaunt, and carried with her the earldoms of her father; and in the circumstances of Edward's latter years there seemed every opportunity for the re-formation of an opposition. Gaunt, however, preferred to act the part of court leader against the bishops and the constitutionalists in the House of Commons, and departed still further from the old Lancastrian tradition by championing and accepting the aid of Wycliffe. It was left for his son, Henry of Derby (who had married one of the co-heiresses of Bohun of Hereford, a name also recalling resistance to the crown), to take up the position assigned by tradition to the Lancastrian family. In conjunction with Thomas of Gloucester he reorganised the baronial opposition, and though for a time he made peace with the court, and assisted in the ruin of the Lords Appellant, his banishment and the seizure of the Duchy of Lancaster made him again a popular hero; while the reaction against Richard's autocratic measures gave to Henry's accession the character of a triumph of constitutionalism.

But Henry IV. knew that the great mass of the people regarded him with indifference, and that the revolution of 1399 had been, as a contemporary says—

> "For hatred more of Kyng Richardes defection,
> Than for the love of Kyng Henry."

The subsequent conduct of the Percies, also, showed with what motives many of the nobles had supported him. The ideas of legitimacy were still deeply rooted in the nation. Henry must have shared in this feeling, and must have felt his own position to be doubtful. It is not difficult to see that a man in his situation might easily become the cold and calculating monarch whom the chroniclers of his reign describe.

Henry V. had no such doubts. He believed himself called upon to realise the claims of his predecessors to the French throne, to restore spiritual unity to Christendom by alliance with Sigismund, and even to regain the Holy Land from the infidel. Like his father, he allied himself firmly with the clergy, and supported them in their efforts to put down Lollardy; but this action was due, not to a desire to gain clerical support, but to a sincere orthodoxy. He was possessed by the idea of the unity of the Holy Roman Church, and persecution of heretics was, according to the public opinion of the time, its natural expression. He possessed all the "chivalric" virtues, but he was more than a Richard I. or Edward III.; he was a hardworking and skilful statesman, and it is scarcely possible to decide as to the feasibility of the great plans which his early death interrupted.

In the minority of Henry VI., Bedford, Gloucester, and Beaufort became the chief figures in the drama, Bedford carrying on the work of Henry V. in France, Beaufort pursuing at home the constitutional policy of the last two kings, and both thwarted by the selfish and thoughtless Gloucester. When he arrived at manhood, Henry VI. showed himself incapable of ruling with a firm hand either in England or France. Overworked in his boyhood, of weak health, and with a tendency to insanity inherited from his grandfather, Charles VI., he became a mere tool in the hands of opposing factions. The ill-success of the French War, and the peace policy which followed his marriage, gave an opportunity to the house of York to assert its claims; and with the beginning of the Wars of the Roses, the great Lancastrian experiment of governing England in concert with a free Parliament broke down.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, ch. xvi. (for Thomas of Lancaster), and xviii. (wherein is to be noted the discussion of Henry IV.'s alleged claim through Edmund of Lancaster); Pauli, *Geschichte von England*, iii., especially pp. 174—180, on Henry V. [W. J. A.]

Lancaster, Edmund Crouchback, Earl of (*b.* 1245, *d.* 1296), was the son of Henry III. He was created Earl of Lancaster in 1266, and acquired large estates both in England and on the Continent. He received the cure of Sicily from the Pope in 1253, but never obtained more than the title. He accompanied Edward I. on the Crusades, and died fighting bravely in Gascony. He married twice, his second wife being Blanche, widow of the King of Navarre. He was called Crouchback or Crossback from having taken the Cross, though in later times the Lancastrians pretended that he was in reality the eldest son of Henry III., but was set aside as a cripple, and on this extraordinary fiction was partly founded Henry IV.'s claim to the throne.

Lancaster, Thomas, Earl of (*d.* 1322), was the son of Edmund, second son of Henry III., and titular King of Sicily, by Blanche, queen-dowager of Navarre. He was therefore cousin to Edward II., and uncle to his queen Isabella. He was Earl of Lancaster, Leicester, and Derby, and his wife the heiress to the earldom of Lincoln. He came forward as the leader of the barons against Piers Gaveston at the beginning of Edward II.'s reign. He was one of the Ordainers appointed in 1310, and in 1312 was present at the execution of Gaveston. In 1313 he received the royal pardon, and was reconciled with the king, but in the next year he refused to take part in the expedition to Scotland. In 1316 he became practically supreme in England, but his rule was oppressive and disastrous. His wife was carried off from him by Earl Warenne, and private war broke out between the two earls. His popularity declined, and the king, aided by the

two Despencers, attempted to govern without him. Once more Lancaster came forward as the leader of the barons, and insisted on the banishment of the favourites, but his power was shortlived. His forces were defeated at Boroughbridge (Mar., 1322), and he was taken prisoner. On the 22nd he was tried at Pontefract, and being found guilty of treason was forthwith beheaded. [LANCASTER, FAMILY OF.]

Lancaster, HENRY, EARL and DUKE OF (*d.* 1362), was the son of Henry, Earl of Lancaster, and grandson of Edmund, titular King of Sicily. He served in the Scotch and French wars of Edward III.'s reign, and in 1345 was made governor of Aquitaine. He was frequently employed by the king on diplomatic errands. In 1351 he was created Duke of Lancaster, and in 1362 he died of the black death. His daughter and heiress, Blanche, married John of Gaunt, who thus obtained all the honours and claims of the house of Lancaster.

Lancaster, JOHN, DUKE OF, commonly called JOHN OF GAUNT (*b.* 1340, *d.* 1399), was the fourth son of Edward III. He was born at Ghent during his father's visit to Flanders. In 1359 he married Blanche, the daughter of Henry, Duke of Lancaster, and thus became possessed of the estates of the Lancastrian family. He was created Duke of Lancaster in 1362. In 1367 he served under his brother in Spain, and distinguished himself at Navarette. His wife being dead, he married in 1370 Constance, the daughter of Pedro the Cruel, and assumed the title of King of Castile. In 1373 he marched through France from Calais to Bordeaux. On his return he took a prominent part in English politics, and was at the head of the court or ministerial party, which was opposed by the Good Parliament under the auspices of his brother the Black Prince. At the same time John of Gaunt patronised Wycliffe, and supported Wycliffe against the bishop and the Londoners at the Council of London, 1377. In 1381 his palace in the Savoy was burnt by Wat Tyler's mob. In the first years of Richard II.'s reign his influence over the government was very great, but in 1384 he was accused of treason by Latimer, a Carmelite friar, and retired from court; and though he was reconciled, and returned the same year, his importance in English politics diminished. He now devoted his attention to asserting his claim to Castile. He formed an alliance with John I. of Portugal and led an army into Castile in 1386. He was compelled to retire to Gascony the next year. In 1388, having married his daughter Catherine to Henry of Castile, he returned to England, where he succeeded in effecting a formal reconciliation between the Duke of Gloucester and the king. He took no prominent part in politics henceforth. After his death (Feb. 3, 1399) his estates were seized by Richard, and this was one of the causes which led to the return of his son, Henry of Bolingbroke (Henry IV.), and the deposition of Richard. On the death of his second wife he married, in 1396, his mistress, Catherine Swynford, and his children by her, the Beauforts, were legitimised by patent in 1397. From one of these, John Beaufort, Henry VII. was descended. [BEAUFORT, FAMILY OF; LANCASTER, FAMILY OF.]

Land Bank. [BANKING.]

Land Legislation, IRISH. The principal penal laws relating to land have been mentioned in the article on Ireland. The Irish and the English land laws were in other respects practically identical until the famine of 1846—48. That visitation would have tried the soundest agricultural economy. But the agricultural economy of Ireland was not sound. The artificial prosperity caused by the great war had led to improvident charges upon family estates. The fall of prices brought embarrassment, the famine ruin. Creditors obtained no interest. The absence of purchasers made it impossible to enforce securities. The receivers of the Court of Chancery held property with a nominal rental of £750,000. The insolvent landlords could neither work their estates nor employ the starving labourers. The first condition of progress was to replace them by a class of wealthy proprietors. With this object a special commission was created by statute (11 and 12 Vic., c. 48) to facilitate sales of incumbered estates. Certain incumbrancers on land, and all incumbered owners, including owners of any limited interest which was itself charged with the incumbrance, were empowered to apply to the commissioners by petition in a summary way, for a sale of the entire incumbered interest. The petition was referred to a master, who, after due inquiry reported to the court, which thereupon ordered or refused a sale. Purchasers obtained an indefeasible Parliamentary title. The purchase money was distributed amongst the incumbrancers by the court. Twenty-three millions-worth of land was sold under this Act between 1850 and 1858. It did much good, and some lasting evil. Many of the purchasers were Englishmen and Scotchmen. They raised the standard of farming, and applied badly needed capital to the soil. But their ignorance of the people, and their inclination to treat their occupying tenants from a purely commercial point of view, largely fostered agrarian discontent. In 1858 the commission was wound up, and a permanent tribunal with extended powers created, under the name of the Landed Estates Court. The new body can sell on the petition of any incumbrancer, or of any owner whether incumbered or not. It has a wide discretion in ordering or refusing sales, and ample powers for effecting them upon such terms and conditions as it may deem most advantageous to

the parties concerned (21 and 22 Vic., c. 72). Several important changes were introduced in 1860. The "Landlord and Tenant Law Amendment Act" of that year (23 and 24 Vic., c. 154) is founded on the principle laid down in the third section, that the relation between landlord and tenant is one of contract, expressed or implied, and not of tenure. It aims at simplifying and defining the rights of both parties where they have failed or neglected to express fully the terms of their agreement. It gives the landlord and his representatives the same remedy against the assignee of a tenant for breach of the conditions of his tenancy, that he would have had against the original tenant, and it gives the tenant and his representatives a like remedy in like circumstances against the assignee of the landlord. It imports certain covenants into leases, entitles tenants to remove certain fixtures, abolishes the doctrine of implied waiver, limits the remedy by distress to a single year's rent, and facilitates the remedy by ejectment. The Act of 1860 looked primarily to the intention of the parties. Where they had expressed their meaning fully and aptly the law enforced it. Where the expression was technically defective it supplied the defects. Where the agreement was silent, it annexed to it terms usual in similar contracts, and presumably intended by the parties.

The Land Act of 1870 reversed this policy. It read into existing contracts provisions not contemplated by the makers, and it disabled the majority of tenants from making certain contracts in the future. The chief innovations were compensation for "disturbance," and for improvements. Any tenant of any holding under a tenancy created after the Act, if "disturbed" in his holding by the act of the landlord, and any tenant from year to year of any holding under a tenancy created before the Act, rated at not more than £100 per annum, if "disturbed" by the act of his immediate landlord, is declared to be "entitled to such compensation for the loss which the court shall find to be sustained by him, by reason of quitting his holding, as the court shall think fit." The maximum is regulated by a scale in the Act amended in the tenant's interest by the Act of 1881.* A tenant holding under a lease for thirty-one years or upwards, made after the Act, could claim for disturbance. But "any tenant" might claim compensation for improvements made by himself or his predecessors in title, subject to certain limitations laid down in the Act (amended in the tenant's interest by the Act of 1881), and all improvements were presumed to be the tenant's where the holding was rated at or under £100 a year. Improvements (except permanent buildings and reclamation) made twenty years before claim, did not entitle to compensation. In calculating the amount of compensation the period of the tenant's enjoyment of the improvement was to be taken into account. "Town parks," labourers' holdings, cottage allotments, and some other small lettings were excepted altogether from the Act. The Act contained provisions for enlarging the leasing powers of limited owners, facilitating sales to tenants, and authorising advances for that purpose by the Board of Works. Like the similar clauses in the Act of 1881, these have proved for the most part inoperative.

The Land Law Act of 1881 (44 and 45 Vic., c. 49) further limited the power of regulating the incidents of Irish tenancies by contract, and completely altered the terms of most subsisting agreements. It divided tenants into two classes—"present" tenants, whose tenancies existed at the date of the Act; and "future" tenants, whose tenancies should be created after Jan. 1, 1883. It constituted a "Land Commission" with extensive powers, which that body was authorised to delegate to sub-commissioners nominated by the executive (sec. 43). Any "present" tenant might apply to a "court" of sub-commissioners to fix the "fair" or "judicial" rent of his holding (sec. 8). A "statutory term" of fifteen years is created by the decree fixing the "judicial" rent. The rent cannot be raised, nor can the tenant be evicted during a statutory term except for non-payment of rent, persistent waste, sub-division, or sub-letting, and certain other acts specified in the statute. If ejectment was brought for breach of these "statutory conditions," the tenant could still sell his tenancy. If the eviction was actually carried out, he could claim compensation for improvements under the Act of 1870. The Act practically conferred upon every "present" tenant a lease for fifteen years, renewable for ever, deprived the landlord of all direct right to evict, and "invested the court with a discretionary power of permitting eviction in the cases described." A statutory term might also be created by an agreement and declaration between the parties, fixing the "fair" rent, and filed in court (sec. 8, ss. 6), or by the acceptance by any tenant, present or future, of an increase of rent demanded by the landlord (s. 4). The covenant to surrender was avoided by the Act in all subsisting leases, and the lessees were to become present tenants on their expiration.

Future tenants were not to apply to have a fair rent fixed. If, however, the landlord at any time raised the rent of a future tenant, such tenant might either accept the rise, thereby acquiring a statutory term, or sell his tenancy subject to the increased rent. Upon such a sale he might apply to the court to decide whether the value of his tenancy had been depreciated below what it would have been at a fair rent, and claim

* The "court" is the county court, or the Land Commission, since 1881.

the amount of such depreciation with costs from the landlord. If the future tenant should neither accept nor sell, he could claim compensation for disturbance and improvements under the Act of 1870. A lease for thirty-one years or upwards, agreed upon between the parties, and sanctioned by the court (called a "judicial lease"), excluded the operation of the Act during its continuance. If the lessee were a future tenant, his tenancy would absolutely determine the lease. So, too, if he were a present tenant, and accepted such a lease for more than sixty years. But if the term be for sixty years or under, the tenant would still be a present tenant at its expiration.

Even with this far-reaching measure, it was not found that finality had been reached. In 1882 an Arrears Act came into force, cancelling all arrears up to date on payment of one year's rent. In 1885 the "Ashbourne Act" enabled the State to advance the full value of their holdings to tenants who desired to buy from landlords who were willing to sell. The amount so to be advanced, £5,000,000, was greatly increased in 1891, and the process of purchase simplified by the Land Act of 1896. In 1903 yet another Land Act was passed to induce tenants to purchase their holdings. The amount of money to be advanced was largely increased, and additional facilities were given to those who desired to become the owners of their holdings.

Land Tax, The, was first levied in 1690, when it was 3s. in the pound. It was originally an annual grant, and varied in amount each year; but in 1798 it was made perpetual, and was fixed at 4s. in the pound upon the valuation of 1692, provision being made for its redemption by the payment of a lump sum. This has been taken advantage of by many landowners; but at the present time there is still a large quantity of land on which the tax has not been redeemed and is still levied. Mr. Lloyd George's Budget for 1909 provided for the taxation of land values.

Land Tenure. The origin of the peculiarities of land tenure in England is exceedingly obscure. It was supposed at one time that while the so-called higher kinds of tenure, as those of the noble, the knight, the churchman, and the cultivating freeholder, were the necessary sub-divisions of feudal estates, so the very various kinds of base tenure, those of villeinage and copyhold, were the result of individual caprice on the part of the superior lord; or at best, relics, mutilated or distorted, of more ancient tenancies. Such was the view of the early writers on English tenancies, as the author of the *Dialogus de Scaccario*, Glanvill, Bracton and Fleta, Littleton, and his great commentator, Coke. Latterly, however, the subject has been more fully, but not finally, investigated by many inquirers, German and English. A difficulty in exactly determining on the facts arises because nearly all the information which can be obtained is derived from documents, the date of which, however early it may be, is long posterior to influences which, as we know, might have modified, and almost certainly did modify, the original tenures to which the documents refer. Thus, after the Roman period, the earliest deeds are those which belonged to monastic and other ecclesiastical foundations. But such foundations were essentially of foreign origin, and were the product of a more or less lengthened process, under which native custom was brought into collision with external practice, and was naturally altered by it. It is probable, too, that many of the peculiarities of what we call the feudal system have appeared at very different times, and in very different countries, not by virtue of any definite law, but solely for the economical reason that the labour of the husbandman always provides more than is necessary for his individual wants, and that, therefore, it becomes possible for a stronger man to extract from such a person part of the produce of his labours, as tax, or rent, or customary due. In return for such a tribute, the superior might covenant to leave the husbandman in peace, or even to guarantee him from the assaults of other oppressors; and thus the levy of black-mail, practised from the days of David and his companions in exile to those of Rob Roy and his tribesmen, becomes the type of those dues and duties which, in theory at least, were always characteristic of the feudal system, and were supposed to be reciprocal between lord and tenant, and, it may be, is their origin.

It is clear that the subjection of classes was characteristic of the times which preceded the Norman Conquest, as well as of those which followed it. There were serfs and slaves, inferior or dependent tenants, and military vassals on the estate of Earl Godwin, as well as on the estate of Earl Odo. It is probable that the country folk were no better off, and no worse off, under the rule of the descendants of William the Norman, than they were under that of the descendants of Alfred the Great. There was a change of masters, of landlords, but no change of system. It is probable that the gradual discontinuance of a system under which fines were levied for offences, with the alternative of slavery, and the gradual establishment of a custom under which outrages were deemed an offence against the king's peace, and punishable by his judges, may have assisted the process by which freemen were degraded from their condition, and forced to accept a lower status, and may even have assisted the counter-process by which the serf gradually achieved the rights of the freeman.

When we are in view of the actual state of

things which prevailed in England when documentary evidence is clear and continuous, the following facts are obvious and universal. There was an over-lord in every manor, the manor being generally, but not always, identical in its boundaries with the parish. This over-lord might be the king, or a noble, or an ecclesiastic, or a corporation, or a private individual. The over-lord who was a subject, was liable to certain dues to the king, either fixed by custom, or granted on emergency by Parliament, and his estate was liable to forfeiture in the event of his committing certain offences, or to escheat in case he died having no heirs to succeed him. It was important that there should be a central authority, and no means were more ready and more certain to effect this result than to inflict the penalties of forfeiture on certain acts of disobedience or outrage. Beneath these lords were free and serf tenants, all of whom had a sufficient amount of arable land joined to their rights in the common pasture, and their use of the wood for fattening their hogs for the purpose of their own maintenance and that of their families. The free tenants had to pay a rent fixed in amount, either in money or kind, sometimes in labour, but the amount of either was unalterable; they were masters of their own actions as soon as this rent was satisfied, or they could transfer their holdings and quit the manor. The serf was sometimes bound to a money rent. But his liabilities were generally in labour, though even this could be commuted for money from a very early period, and constantly was commuted. When his labour was yielded, or its equivalent was paid, he was free to employ himself on his land, or for the matter of that, on any other tenant's land, or on the lord's land, at ordinary wages. But he could not leave the manor without licence, for which he paid an annual sum; he could not give his daughter in marriage without paying a fine, or send his son to school in view of his becoming a priest, or get him made a monk, without similar payments, and when his occupancy descended to his heirs, they paid a fine on admittance, and were brought under his liabilities, while sometimes his best chattel, horse or ox, or article of furniture, was forfeited to the lord under the name of a heriot. His liabilities were not in the aggregate much more heavy than those of the free tenant; in some particulars they were less, for he was not held to any military service, but his condition was degraded, and he was under social disabilities.

It appears that in early times, and till 1290, the tenants, whether lord or vassal, could not sell or alienate their estates. But they had, it is well known, the right of admitting subtenants to themselves, though probably this right was not exercised, or if exercised was difficult for the inferior tenant. At the date above referred to, every tenant was permitted, by the statute *Quia Emptores*, to alienate his estate to another, under the condition that the new-comer should stand in exactly his position. This law made a great change, in that it put an end to the creation of new manors. Still the lord was allowed to admit new tenants to his own domain, serf or free, provided that the new tenant held on the same condition as the old. In effect, however, that which was so characteristic of ancient tenures, ceased—the subordination of ranks created at the pleasure of the lord. Whatever distinction existed was traditional, and therefore ceased to be vital. It was certain to gradually decay. But before the change referred to was made by law, the lord was permitted to create a new kind of estate, the form of which was exempted from the later alteration. This was the "estate tail," an institution the significance of which no one foresaw, as it was not employed on a large scale till nearly two centuries after its first establishment.

Such were lay estates. They were all liable to obligations—the higher, that of knight service, to military duties; the next, that of a socager, to rent; the third, that of the serf, to labour. There were also cottagers who subsisted by their labour, who had a tenement with its garden or curtilage, and who had to get their livelihood by hiring themselves as farm servants. But vast estates were held by the clergy, either secular, who correspond to the parochial clergy and the dignitaries of the Church, archbishops, bishops, deans, and chapters, who generally held land beyond the tithes with which they had immemorially been endowed, or the monks. It is said that before the Reformation the monasteries held a third of all the land in the kingdom. In theory the clergy were held to satisfy all obligations by their prayers, or by divine service, as it was called, and were said to hold their land by free alms. But in course of time, though not without violent struggles on their part, they were made to contribute by grants to the necessities of the crown, through Parliament. The lands of the Church were thus a fourth kind of tenure; and these four kinds were practically inclusive, for another which is enumerated, that in ancient demesne, and which consisted of land which had been once the estate of the Confessor, or of the Conqueror, was possessed of certain privileges and exemptions only.

But the expression "land tenure" may be also taken to indicate the process by which these lands were occupied and distributed among the several tenants. The lord always had a manor house, in which a local judicature was held, the judge being the lord's steward, and a jury, who presented offenders, the court leet being inhabitants of the manor taken from all ranks, and the homage, of freeholders only, who registered the inhabitants on the court roll. The lord

also possessed the best land in the parish, the water meadow—always of great value in a country where there were no winter roots and no artificial grasses—and the most convenient and fertile fields. Each homestead also had its paddocks and curtilages near the house and farmyard. But the principal part of the tenant's holding was in the common arable fields. Here the land was ploughed in strips, generally each an acre in dimension, a "balk" or space of unploughed land being left between each one of these sets of strips. In these strips the lord, the parson, the monk, the farmer shared in varying quantities. On such land it was not easy to induce fertility, except by carrying manure to it, for it would not be possible to fold sheep on such plots, and folding sheep was then, as now, the best way in which to restore exhausted land. This kind of cultivation, which Mr. Seebohm has attempted to trace back to very remote times, remained, and was customary in many parts of England down to very modern experience.

The first great change in the English land tenures were from the consequences of the Black Death in the middle of the fourteenth century. Such was the scarcity of hands that wages rapidly doubled, and even trebled, in amount. The serf's labour had been commuted for money payments, and now the lord found that he was often receiving for labour which had been his due not more than a third of its present market value. After trying the effect of proclamations, laws, and penalties, he attempted, and, as the facts prove, simultaneously over England, to reverse the bargain. The serfs resented the action, and the tremendous insurrection of Wat Tyler, which involved two-thirds of the country and all its most prosperous districts, broke out. The insurrection collapsed, but the serfs remained masters of the situation, and the tenure in villeinage was rapidly developed into copyhold or customary tenancy. Within less than a century, land which in previous times could not have been held without social degradation was freely purchased by nobles and gentlemen.

The next important change came after the great Civil War of Succession. Up to this time, entails had been very rare, and only in small estates. Now, however, the landowner, who entered the fray and belonged to the beaten party, had to incur the risks of forfeiture. But an estate tail was not liable to forfeiture on treason, perhaps not even to a Parliamentary attainder. Hence the custom arose of entailing the great estates as a measure of precaution, since no one could forfeit what was not his, and the estate of the descendant would survive the misconduct of his ancestors. Henry VIII., however, framed a statute under which entails were made liable to the penalties of treason.

The same reign saw the vast estates of the monasteries, and not a few of those belonging to the secular clergy, flung upon the market, in amount perhaps not less than two-fifths of the whole land in the kingdom. These estates passed from the crown by grant or purchase to a new, and generally needy, set of proprietors, and great distress ensued. But there was no modification in the nature of tenures. The old divisions still prevailed—knight service, socage, copyhold, and free alms. But what had once been honourable had now become oppressive. The nobles and gentry would have gladly commuted their liabilities to the crown on fair terms, and strove to make a bargain with James. But the scheme broke down, and the policy of the king, in exacting his extreme rights, doubtless led to the formation of a Parliamentary party within the House of Lords, which gave some weight in the struggle between Charles and the House of Commons.

The Civil War between king and Parliament developed a new kind of land tenure, which has continued to our own day, and has been the principal instrument by which land has been accumulated into few hands. The Royalist party were, after their defeat, in great danger of ruin. They knew that they had to bear serious and heavy fines, and they feared that a sentence of forfeiture might fall upon them. Hence they employed two lawyers, Palmer and Bridgman, who devised the *strict settlement*, under which the ancestor (say the father) was made tenant for life, with certain powers, and his descendants (say his sons) were made succeeding tenants in tail. The conveyance, according to Blackstone, was of suspicious validity, and was certainly in contravention of public policy, as it practically created a perpetuity. But after the Restoration the two lawyers became crown officers, and in their administrative capacity gave validity to the devices which they had invented as conveyancers. During the same period the abolition of the tenures in chivalry took place. The Court of Wards and all feudal incidents were abolished by resolutions of both Houses in February, 1646. These resolutions were repeated by an Act of Parliament in 1656, and confirmed by the act of the Convention Parliament in 1660. The crown was compensated for the loss of its hereditary revenue from the feudal incidents by the grant of half the excise, a tax established by the Long Parliament two years before the abolition of tenures in chivalry, and, like it, confirmed at the Restoration.

Action has from time to time been taken in Parliament with the view of getting rid of the incidents which still belong to copyhold tenures, and are found to be inconvenient and capricious. When this is done, there will be only one kind of tenure recognised in England. But the power of settlement still exists among us, and also the custom of primogeniture, the former being to some

extent changed from its strictness by late legislation,* and the latter being threatened by several causes, among which the present difficulties in which landlords and tenants stand, are probably the most dominant. The dispersion of other estates will probably be hastened by the contingency which is far from remote, that that estate in matters of succession duties will be soon put on the footing of personal property. †

Maine, *Early Hist. of Institutions*; Seebohm, *The English Village Community*; Ross, *Teutonic Holdings*; Blackstone, *Commentaries*; Digby, *Hist. of Law of Real Property*; Brodick, *English Land and Landlords*; [Shaw Lefevre, *Agrarian Tenures*; Maitland, *Domesday Book*].

[J. E. T. R.]

Landen, The Battle of (July 19, 1693), or, as it is sometimes called, the battle of Neerwinden, resulted in the defeat of William III. by Marshal Luxemburg. By an adroit feint on Liège the French general drew the king towards him. William might still have retreated, but he resolved to fight. The allies protected their line by a breastwork and a series of entrenchments, and a hundred pieces of cannon were placed along it. On the left flank was the village of Romsdorff and the little stream of Landen, and on the right the village of Neerwinden. The fighting began about eight o'clock. Two desperate assaults on the village were repulsed, in the first of which Berwick, who led the French, was taken prisoner. Luxemburg ordered a last attack to be made by the household troops, which was also unsuccessful. But the centre and left of the allies had been thinned to support the conflict at Neerwinden, and a little after four in the afternoon, the whole line gave way. William with the utmost bravery arrested the progress of the enemy, and made the retreat less disastrous. The French were victorious, but they had lost 10,000 of their best men. Luxemburg did not venture to molest the retreat, and William soon reorganised his forces.

Lane, Sir Richard (*b.* 1584, *d.* 1650), an eminent lawyer of the reign of Charles I., chiefly became known by the able way in which he conducted the defence of Strafford. He joined the king on the outbreak of the Civil War, and on Lyttelton's death in 1645 was made Lord Keeper. But the office was little more than nominal, and Lane fled to Holland, where, after the king's death, he became Lord Keeper to Charles II.

Lanercost Chronicle, The, contains a history of England from the earliest times to the year 1346. It does not seem to have been written at the abbey of Lanercost, in Cumberland, but at Carlisle. It is a most valuable record of Border history, and one of the most interesting of the northern chronicles.

The *Lanercost Chronicle* has been edited by Mr. Stevenson for the Bannatyne and Maitland Clubs.

Lanfranc (*b.* 1005, *d.* 1089), Archbishop of Canterbury, was the son of a wealthy citizen of Pavia. After studying in various schools, he in 1039 set up a school at Avranches, Normandy. In 1042 he became a monk of the Benedictine abbey of Bec, of which he became prior in 1046. Soon afterwards he was engaged in the controversy on the Real Presence which Berengarius of Tours had started. Brought at first into hostile contact with William of Normandy, owing to the latter's marriage with his cousin, he subsequently became closely attached to the duke. In 1066 he became abbot of the new monastery which William had enabled him to found at Caen. In 1070 he was appointed Archbishop of Canterbury. During the years of his primacy, he worked closely in accord with William. He was able, by the king's help, to gradually fill most of the English sees with Normans, and at the same time to purify and reform the national Church, stamping out simony and the marriage of the clergy. One result of his policy was to bring England into closer relations with the Church of Western Christendom, and therefore with Rome; but Lanfranc, like William, aimed at keeping up, so far as the altered conditions allowed, the old independence of the insular church, and when William refused to do homage to the Pope, and Lanfranc was summoned to Rome, he refused to obey.

Ordericus Vitalis, *Hist. Eccles.*; Hook, *Archbishops of Canterbury*; Freeman, *Norman Conquest*; Lanfranc's *Works* have been published at Oxford in 1844.

Langdale, Sir Marmaduke (*b.* ? 1598, *d.* 1661), was a gentleman of Yorkshire who raised troops for the king, and supported his cause with unwavering fidelity. In February, 1645, he successfully relieved Pontefract, and in the summer of the same year he commanded the king's left wing at Naseby. After the battle he collected fresh troops, and attempted, on the king's directions, to relieve Chester. In the attempt he was utterly routed by Colonel Pointz at Rowton Heath (Sept. 24, 1645). In the second Civil War he took up arms, seized Berwick, and formed a corps of English Cavaliers auxiliary to Hamilton's army. At Preston, where his corps formed the van, he was taken prisoner, but contrived to escape to the Continent. Charles II. created him a baron, and at the Restoration he was appointed Lord-Lieutenant of Yorkshire.

Langham, Simon (*d.* 1376), was made treasurer of the kingdom in 1360, and held this office till 1363, when he was promoted to the Chancellorship. In 1366 he was appointed to the archbishopric of Canterbury, and

* Especially the Settled Land Act, 1882 (45 & 46 Vict., c. 38).—Ed.

† A long step in this direction was taken by the Budget of 1894.—Ed.

resigned the Great Seal. During his primacy he did much to correct abuses which had crept into the Church, but in 1368, having been made a cardinal, he was compelled by the king to resign his archbishopric. He soon regained the royal favour, and was made Dean of Lincoln, though on the death of Archbishop Whittlesey, Edward refused to allow Langham to be re-elected to the primacy.

Langport, Battle of (July 10, 1645). After the battle of Naseby Fairfax marched into the west to attack Goring's army. On July 11, Fairfax, advancing from Long Sutton towards Bridgewater, found Goring's forces strongly posted on some hills on the east of Langport. The Royalists were defeated, driven through Langport, and chased by Cromwell and the horse to within two miles of Bridgewater. The victory enabled Fairfax to besiege and capture the Somersetshire fortresses.

Sprigge, *Anglia Rediviva*; *Fairfax Correspondence*; Carlyle, *Cromwell*; Markham, *Life of Fairfax*.

Langside, The Battle of (May 13, 1568), was fought near Glasgow between the forces of Mary Queen of Scots, who had just escaped from Lochleven Castle, and those of the Regent Murray. Mary, in spite of the superior numbers of her army, was defeated.

Langtoft, Pierre de, was probably a canon of Bridlington, in Yorkshire, and lived in the reigns of Edward I. and Edward II. He wrote a *Chronicle* in the corrupt Norman-French of Yorkshire, the principal object of which was to show the justice of Edward's Scotch wars.

Langtoft's *Chronicle* has been published in the Rolls Series under the editorship of Mr. Wright.

Langton, John de (*d.* 1337), was Chancellor from 1292 to 1302, during which period he carried on successfully the work of Robert Burnel. In 1305 he was made Bishop of Chichester, and shortly after the accession of Edward II. (1307) was re-appointed to the Chancellorship, which he held till 1310. He had at first supported the king, but the infatuation of Edward for Gaveston drove Langton to side with the barons, and he became one of the ordainers appointed in 1310 to regulate the royal household and realm. The rest of his life seems to have been spent in attending to the affairs of his bishopric.

Langton, Stephen, Archbishop of Canterbury (*d.* 1228), is supposed to have been born at Langton, near Spilsby, but of his parentage and early life nothing certain is known. He studied at the University of Paris, where he made the acquaintance of Lothaire, who, on his election to the Papal throne as Innocent III., sent for Langton, whose reputation as a scholar and divine was very great. In 1206 he was created a cardinal. Shortly afterwards Hubert Walter, Archbishop of Canterbury, died, and a disputed election to the primacy followed. The younger monks chose Reginald, their sub-prior, while the elder, and the suffragan bishops, elected John de Gray, Bishop of Norwich, the king's nominee. On the case being referred to the Pope, Innocent rejected the claims of both candidates, and caused Langton to be chosen. The king refused to accept him, and regarded the action of the Pope as an unjustifiable interference with the rights of the king and the English Church. For six years (1207—13), John remained obdurate, various proposals and offers were made by Innocent, England was placed under an interdict, and the king himself excommunicated, and it required a threat of deposition to induce him to yield. But, though the papal nominee, Langton soon won the gratitude of the English by his opposition to the tyranny of John. It was he who produced the charter of Henry I. before the baronial council at St. Paul's as an indication of the claims they ought to make; and all through the struggle for the charter he was the soul of the baronial party. For a time he forfeited the Pope's favour for this opposition to the Pope's new vassal. But his great personal influence with Innocent ultimately prevailed, and the accession of Henry III. and the acceptance of the charter by the papal party restored him to full influence. He procured the recall of the papal legate Pandulf, and a promise that during his lifetime no more legates should be sent from Rome. He excommunicated the mercenaries and feudalists. His death, in 1228, was soon followed by the quarrel of Hubert de Burgh and the king. He was one of the ablest of the mediæval archbishops.

Roger of Wendover; Matthew Paris; Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*

[F. S. P.]

Lansdown, Battle of (July 5, 1643). After the battle of Stratton, Hopton and the Cornish army were joined by the king's troops under Lord Hertford and Prince Maurice. The Parliamentary troops, defeated at Stratton, were likewise reinforced by the army of Sir William Waller, who took up his head-quarters at Bath. Waller entrenched himself at Lansdown, where he was attacked by Hopton's army on the morning of July 5. Hopton's Cornishmen stormed Waller's works, and remained masters of the field. But the losses of the conquerors were very great; they included Sir Bevil Grenville, "whose loss would have clouded any victory," and many officers. Hopton himself, wounded in the battle, was nearly killed by an explosion of gunpowder the next day. Sir William Waller's army was "rather surprised and discomforted with the incredible boldness of the Cornish foot, than much weakened by the number

slain, which was not greater than on the king's part."

Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion;* Warburton, *Prince Rupert.*

Lansdowne, William, Marquis of (*b.* 1737, *d.* 1805), was sprung on his father's side from the Fitzmaurices, Earls of Kerry, one of the oldest houses of Ireland; while, by female descent, he inherited the name and fortune of Sir William Petty. Entering the army at an early age, he distinguished himself at the battle of Minden, and on the accession of George III. was appointed an aide-de-camp to the king. The next year, after representing the family borough of Wycombe for a few weeks, he was called up to the House of Peers by the death of his father, the Earl of Shelburne. In his new sphere, Lord Shelburne at once attached himself to Lord Bute, and supported the peace negotiations of 1762. In the following year he was appointed a Privy Councillor and President of the Board of Trade. But in a very few months he deserted the government, and joined the Opposition under Pitt. No place was found for him in the Rockingham ministry, but on its fall and Lord Chatham's succession to office he was made Secretary of State. In 1768 the Duke of Grafton yielded to "the king's daily instigations to remove Lord Shelburne." During the long period of Lord North's administration, Lord Shelburne continued to act firmly with the Opposition, alike on the subject of Wilkes and the Middlesex Election, and on the policy adopted towards the American colonies. On the resignation of Lord North, Lord Shelburne rejected the urgent request of the king that he would form a cabinet, and refused to take the place which was due to the Marquis of Rockingham. When that nobleman did become Prime Minister, Lord Shelburne was appointed Home Secretary, Fox being Foreign Secretary; and between these two, on Rockingham's death, ensued a disastrous quarrel, which split up the Whigs, and resulted in the Coalition. Lord Shelburne succeeded as Prime Minister (July, 1782), but with only half of the Whigs behind him, he very soon had to yield to the imposing strength of the Coalition (Feb., 1783). In 1784 he was created Marquis of Lansdowne, and for a time retired from active life. On the outbreak of the French Revolution he joined the Opposition; but he never again regained his former eminent position. Lord Albemarle says of him that "his insight into character was shrewd and generally accurate; his eloquence was graceful and persuasive; his knowledge of business, especially that which related to foreign affairs, was extensive."

Chatham Correspondence; Lord E. Fitzmaurice, *Life of Shelburne;* Walpole, *Memoirs of George III.;* Jesse, *Memoirs of George III.;* Rockingham, *Memoirs;* Russell, *Life of Fox;* Stanhope, *Life of Pitt;* Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*

Lansdowne, Henry Charles Keith, 5th Marquis of (*b.* 1845), eldest son of the 4th Marquis, was governor-general of Canada from 1833 to 1888, and of India from 1888 to 1893. From 1895 to 1900 he was secretary for War, and secretary for Foreign Affairs from 1900 to 1905. In December, 1909, under his leadership the House of Lords refused to pass the Budget of that year before its approval by the country.

Large Declaration, The, was a narrative of Charles I.'s conduct towards the Scots, published to justify his policy during the events which led to the war. It was the work of Walter Balcanquall, Dean of Durham. The Scottish General Assembly, which met at Edinburgh in August, 1639, demanded that the king should suppress the book, and hand the author over to them for punishment.

Burton, *Hist. of Scotland.*

Largs, The Battle of (Oct. 2, 1263), was fought between Haco of Norway and the army of Alexander III. on the coast of Ayrshire. The ground was fiercely contested, and, though the Scots claimed a victory, the battle really appears to have been indecisive.

Laswaree, The Battle of (Nov. 1, 1803), was fought between the English, commanded by General Lake, and fifteen of Dowlut Rao Scindia's disciplined battalions. The engagement was very severe and protracted. Scindia's sepoys defended their position to the last, and only retired when all their guns were captured.

Wellesley Dispatches; Mill, *Hist. of India;* Grant Duff, *Hist. of the Mahrattas.*

Lathe was a division of the county of Kent, answering to the Riding of Yorkshire, or possibly to the Rape of Sussex, and corresponding, it is just possible, either to the original counties of the Kentish folk, or to the smaller sub-kingdoms, which were agglomerated to make up the kingdom.

Latimer, Hugh, Bishop of Worcester (*b.*? 1485, *d.* 1555), was the son of a prosperous Leicestershire yeoman. At fourteen years of age Latimer proceeded to Clare Hall, Cambridge, where he threw himself with conspicuous energy into the special studies affected by the favourers of the New Learning. He attracted the favourable notice of Thomas Cromwell, and, on finally quitting Cambridge, he was preferred by him to the living of West Kington, in Wiltshire. By this time Latimer had earned for himself no small amount of fame as an eloquent and telling preacher; but the boldness with which he proclaimed his religious views, and his unsparing denunciations of the existing ecclesiastical abuses, frequently placed him in positions of danger, from which it required all his own native address, backed up by powerful

friends at court, to successfully extricate him. In 1535, his own favour with Henry VIII., whose chaplain he was, together with the influence of Thomas Cromwell, procured his elevation to the see of Worcester. But after the enactment of the Six Articles Latimer was at once made an example of, and imprisoned for contumacy (1539). He was released in 1540, and remained in obscurity till 1546, when he was again imprisoned; but on the accession of Edward VI. he was immediately set free. He declined, however, to again undertake the responsibility of an episcopal charge, occupying himself instead with the more congenial work of an itinerant preacher. In this character, his popular preaching talents exerted a much wider and more permanent influence in the spread of his opinions than the most vigorous exercise of his episcopal authority could have done; and there is no doubt that his enthusiastic missionary labours contributed very largely to fix the doctrines of the Reformation in the minds of the people. On Edward VI.'s death he was again imprisoned, in the Tower and at Oxford, where attempts were made to compel him, with Ridley and Cranmer, to a disputation on the Mass. He and Ridley were martyred at Oxford, Oct. 16, 1555.

Burnet, *Hist. of the Reformation*; Strype, *Cranmer*; Foxe, *Book of Martyrs*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Latimer, *Sermons*.

Laud, William, Archbishop of Canterbury (*b.* 1573, *d.* 1645), was the son of a clothier of Reading, educated at Reading School, and St. John's College, Oxford. He was elected a fellow of that college in 1593, ordained in 1600, and became one of the principal opponents of the Puritan party in Oxford. In the year 1605 he caused great scandal by performing the marriage of the Earl of Devonshire to Lady Penelope Devereux, who had been divorced from her husband on account of her adultery with the earl. In spite of this he was in 1611 elected President of St. John's, made one of the king's chaplains, and appointed successively Archdeacon of Huntingdon and Dean of Gloucester. In 1621 he was further promoted to the bishopric of St. David's. King James, it is said, hesitated considerably to entrust a bishopric to so zealous and energetic a Churchman. "He hath a restless spirit, which cannot see when things are well, but loves to toss and change, and bring matters to a pitch of reformation floating in his own brain." Laud became the friend and spiritual adviser of Buckingham, and it was in order to convince the wavering mind of his patron's mother that he entered into controversy with the Jesuit Fisher on the questions at issue between the English and Roman Churches. With the accession of Charles his influence increased, and he employed it to promote and protect Arminian divines. The Commons remonstrated against his influence in 1628, but the king replied by promoting him to the bishopric of London (July, 1628), and promising him the archbishopric of Canterbury. But it was not till his return from accompanying the king in his progress to Scotland that Laud actually attained the archbishopric (August, 1633). Therefore, his activity during the years 1628—33 was mainly confined to the diocese of London, and to the University of Oxford, of which he was elected chancellor in 1630. But his influence stretched beyond the sphere of his immediate action, and inspired the silencing of controversial preaching, the suppression of the feoffees for impropriations, and other important steps in the king's ecclesiastical policy. After 1633 he was able to work more effectually. "I laboured nothing more," he says "than that the external public worship of God—too much slighted in most parts of this kingdom—might be preserved, and that with as much decency and uniformity as might be, being still of opinion that unity cannot long continue in the Church where uniformity is shut out at the Church door." He began by reviving the custom of metropolitical visitation, and sending officials to inquire into the condition of every diocese in his province. All communion tables were fixed at the east end of the church, every clergyman was obliged to conform to the Prayer-book, a searching inquiry took place into the conduct of the clergy, and uniformity of ritual was generally enforced. In the Council he quarrelled with Cottington and Windebank, raised Juxon to the Treasury, supported Wentworth against his enemies, and struggled to contend against the influence the queen exercised in favour of the Catholics. The new canons and Prayer-book, which the king endeavoured to force on the Scots, were submitted to and amended by Laud. That the English Prayer-book was imposed on Scotland, rather than the liturgy prepared by the Scotch bishops, was Laud's doing. Throughout the two Scotch wars the archbishop, as a member of the Junto for Scotch affairs, supported Strafford in his vigorous policy. Therefore, as soon as the Long Parliament met, he was involved in the same fate, impeached (Dec. 18, 1640), committed to custody, and, after the articles against him had been passed by the unanimous vote of the Commons (Feb. 24, 1641), imprisoned in the Tower. For two and a half years the archbishop was imprisoned without a trial, his revenues sequestrated, his goods sold, and his papers seized. The trial began at last in November, 1643, the main charges being that he had endeavoured to subvert the laws, and overthrow the Protestant religion. The judges whom the Lords consulted declared that none of the charges made fell within the legal definition of treason. But this did not save him from the hatred of the Presbyterians, and he was condemned to death by an ordinance of both Houses. His execution took place on Jan. 10,

1645. The purity and lofty purpose of his life redeem the intolerance and severity with which he pursued his aim.

Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng.*; Hook, *Archbishops of Canterbury*, second series, vol. vi.; Heylin, *Cyprianus Anglicus*; Le Bas, *Life of Laud*; Rushworth, *Historical Collections*. Laud's own *Works* are collected in the *Library of Anglo-Catholic Theology*.

[C. H. F.]

Lauder Bridge, The Affair of (1482). During an expedition against England, the Scotch nobles, exasperated by the arrogance of the low-born favourites and ministers of James III., determined to put them to death, the Earl of Angus offering to be the one to "bell the cat." Accordingly Robert Cochrane, Roger Torphichen, a fencing master, Hammel, a tailor, and Leonard, a shoemaker, were seized, and hanged over the bridge of Lauder, in the presence of James III., who was himself taken to Edinburgh Castle, and placed under restraint. Lauder is in Berwickshire, twenty-six miles from Edinburgh.

Lauderdale, John Maitland, Duke of (*b.* 1616, *d.* 1682), born at Lethington, took part with the Covenanters against the king, became one of the Scotch representatives in the Westminster Assembly, and commanded a Scotch infantry regiment at the battle of Marston Moor. In December, 1647, he was one of the Scotch commissioners who signed the secret treaty with the king at Carisbrooke, and took up arms with Hamilton and the Engagers. Obliged to fly from Scotland when Argyle regained power, he returned with Charles II. in 1650, was taken prisoner at the battle of Worcester, and remained in confinement till March, 1660. He was rewarded for his services by being made Secretary of State for Scotland, opposed the re-establishment of Episcopalianism in that country, and by his skilful intrigues finally succeeded in overthrowing his rival Middleton (1663). From this moment he was virtually governor of Scotland, which he ruled through Lord Rothes and Archbishop Sharpe. "His great experience in affairs," says Burnet, "his ready compliance with everything that he thought would please the king, and his bold offering at the most desperate counsels, gained him such an interest with the king, that no attempt against him, nor complaint of him, could ever shake it, till a decay of strength and understanding forced him to let go his hold. He was in his principles much against popery and arbitrary government, and yet, by a fatal train of passions and interests, he made way for the former, and had almost established the latter. Whereas some by a smooth deportment made the first beginnings of tyranny less discernible and unacceptable, he by the fury of his behaviour heightened the severity of his ministry, which was liker the cruelty of an inquisition than the legality of justice." His great object was to exalt the power of the crown, and though he did not scruple to use the greatest severity against the zealous Presbyterians of Fife and the south-west, he aimed at preventing the Episcopalians from becoming too strong, and maintaining for the king the preponderance over both parties. He instigated the decree of 1669, by which a large number of expelled Presbyterian ministers were reinstated. He obtained for the king from the Parliament of 1669 the fullest possible recognition of the royal supremacy, and the control of the militia. In England he exercised a great influence as a member of the Privy Council, and was one of the persons to whom the king's treaty against Holland was confided (1670). He was credited with advising the king to use the forces of Scotland against the English Parliament, which, with other causes, led the Commons to demand his removal from the king's service (1674). The king created him Duke of Lauderdale in the Scottish and Earl of Guildford in the English peerage (1672). In spite of all attacks he retained his power until the Scotch insurrection of 1679. According to Burnet, "the king found his memory failing him, and so he resolved to let him fall gently, and bring all the Scotch affairs into the Duke of Monmouth's hands." He died on August 4, 1682.

Burnet, *Hist. of His Own Time*; *Lauderdale Papers* (Camden Society); Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*.

[C. H. F.]

Lawfeldt, The Battle of (July 2, 1747), was one of the most important contests during the War of the Austrian Succession in which British troops were engaged. The Duke of Cumberland took the field in February, while in March the French army, under Marshal Saxe, invaded the Dutch Netherlands. A revolution in that country promptly placed the Prince of Orange as Stadtholder at the head of the army. "Unfortunately, however," says Lord Stanhope, "he was found ignorant of tactics, and jealous of his more experienced but not less overbearing brother, the Duke of Cumberland." The disorganised forces encountered the French at Lawfeldt, in front of Maestricht. The Dutch gave way and fled; and the Austrians, on the right, remained within their fortified position. The brunt of the battle fell upon the British on the left. The English horse advanced too far, and were repulsed, their commander, Sir John Ligonier, being taken prisoner. The Duke of Cumberland could not long maintain his ground; his retreat, however, was effected in good order. The English lost four standards, but notwithstanding their repulse, they captured six, and retired to a strong position behind the Meuse. The number of killed and wounded on both sides was great, and nearly equal. Both commanders showed great personal bravery.

Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; Lecky, *Hist. of Eng.*; Arneth, *Maria Theresia*.

Lawman was the name of an officer of Danish origin, who is met with in the Five

Boroughs of Mercia, and other Danish portions of the country. In the towns of Danish origin there were usually twelve lawmen, whose function it was to expound and enforce the law, and, in some cases, to act as a town council or governing body. In some cases the dignity seems to have been hereditary.

Lawrence (LAURENTIUS), Archbishop of Canterbury (604—619), was one of the companions of St. Augustine, whom he succeeded. Christianity flourished in Kent during the reign of Ethelbert; but on the death of that king, his son and successor, Eadbald, threw himself into the hands of the heathen party, and threatened persecution. Justus and Mellitus fled, and it is said that Lawrence was about to follow their example, when he was admonished by St. Peter to remain. He did so. Eadbald was re-converted, and Christianity became once more the religion of the Kentish kingdom.

Bede, *Ecclesiastical Hist.*; Florence of Worcester, *Chronicle*; Hook, *Archbishops of Canterbury*.

Lawrence, SIR HENRY (*b.* 1806, *d.* 1857), obtained a cadetship in the Bengal army in 1821. He served in the Afghan campaign of 1843, and obtained his majority. In 1846, after the first Sikh War, Major Henry Lawrence was appointed British representative at Lahore. In this capacity, he extinguished the revolt in Cashmere, under Isnam-ud-deen, against the authority of Golab Singh. In 1847 he returned to England, for his health. In 1849, on the annexation of the Punjaub, he was appointed one of the Commissioners of the Board of Government, with his brother, John Lawrence, and Mr. Mansel. Differing with his brother, he was removed to Rajpootana by Lord Dalhousie. He was on the point of proceeding to Europe, for his health, in 1857, but, at the earnest request of Lord Canning, he assumed the Chief Commissionership of Oude (Mar. 20). He saw the discontent at the new revenue settlement, and he did his best to remove it and restore confidence. He fortified, provisioned, and garrisoned Lucknow, as well as he could, as soon as he perceived the danger from the caste question. On May 19 he asked for, and obtained, plenary military and civil power. On the outbreak of the Mutiny, on the 30th, his energetic action repressed it, and expelled the mutinous sepoys. Hearing of the fall of Cawnpore, he marched out, and attacked the army of Nana Sahib, but was compelled to retreat. On July 2 the enemy besieged Lucknow, and in the evening Sir Henry was killed by a shell.

Kaye, *Sepoy War*.

Lawrence, JOHN LAIRD MAIR, LORD (*b.* 1811, *d.* 1879), younger brother of Sir Henry Lawrence, was educated at Haileybury, and in 1829 received his nomination as a writer. In 1831 he was appointed Assistant to the Chief Commissioner and Resident at Delhi. In 1833 he became an officiating magistrate and collector. In 1836 he received the post of joint magistrate and deputy collector of the southern division of Delhi. In 1848 he was made Commissioner of the Trans-Sutlej Provinces. He also occasionally acted as Resident at Lahore. At the end of the second Sikh War he was appointed, with his brother Henry and Mr. Mansel, Administrator for the Punjaub. He abolished the barbarous laws of the Sikhs, and introduced the Indian Criminal Code. The disarmament of the Punjaub was effected mainly through his energy and courage. In 1856 he was made a K.C.B. At the outbreak of the Mutiny, he stamped out all signs of revolt in the Punjaub, at once diverted every available soldier to Delhi, and raised from the military population of the Punjaub, troops to oppose the sepoys. For his share in suppressing the Mutiny, he was created a baronet and G.C.B. He then retired to England, and was elected a member of the Indian Council. Five years later he undertook the onerous duty of Governor-General. On Jan. 12, 1864, he arrived, and found India at peace. He devoted himself to improving the life of English soldiers in India. He provided for their moral and physical condition, for their religious study and improvement, and for sanitary reform. In 1864, in consequence of the ill-treatment of the English envoy, the Hon. Ashley Eden, war was declared with Bhotan. The war was badly conducted, but the result was, on the whole, favourable to the English. In 1865 peace was concluded. In 1866 occurred the great famine in Orissa. The year 1867 was remarkable for the completion of many railways. During the struggle between Shere Ali and his brothers in Afghanistan, Sir J. Lawrence preserved a perfect neutrality. At the end of the year 1868, Sir J. Lawrence returned to England. On March 27, 1869, he was raised to the peerage, by the title of Baron Lawrence of the Punjaub, and of Grately, in the county of Southampton. When the London School Board was formed, in 1870, he became its first chairman. In 1879 he died, having to the last taken part in the Indian debates in the House of Lords.

Kaye, *Sepoy War*; R. Bosworth Smith, *Life of Lord Lawrence*.

Leake, SIR JOHN (*b.* 1656, *d.* 1720), was a celebrated English admiral. He entered the navy in 1677. At the siege of Londonderry he commanded the little squadron which relieved the town by breaking the boom at the entrance of Lough Foyle. Leake also distinguished himself at the battle of La Hogue (1692). Soon after the accession of Anne he was made vice-admiral (1703), his Whig politics being greatly in his favour. After the capture of Gibraltar Leake was left with eighteen ships of war for its defence. In 1705 he overtook and defeated Marshal Tessé, who with the

French fleet, had been besieging the rock. Next year he commanded the fleet off Barcelona. He declined to engage the Count of Toulouse, who was blockading the town, although his fleet was quite as strong as the Frenchman's; and was superseded by Peterborough. Soon afterwards a fleet of merchant vessels fell into his hands. Leake succeeded in taking the island of Sardinia with little or no resistance; and in conjunction with General Stanhope, drove the enemy out of Minorca (1708). In the following year he was placed at the head of the Admiralty Board. When the Tory ministry came into office, Leake, on the resignation of Orford, became First Lord. After the accession of George I. he ceased to take any part in politics. "The admiral," says Mr. Wyon, "seems to have been one of those men, who, however brave in subordinate positions, seem to be paralysed by the responsibility involved in a separate command."

Wyon, *Reign of Queen Anne.*

Lebanon Question, The. In 1860, broke out the quarrel between the Druses and the Maronites, two Syrian sects, which led to great atrocities and cruelties on both sides. The Turkish governor of Damascus did not attempt to interfere. England and France therefore took strong and decisive steps to restore tranquillity in the Lebanon. A convention was drawn up, to which all the great powers of Europe agreed, and which Turkey was forced to accept. Its provisions were that England and France should restore order; that France should supply the troops in the first instance, and that other requirements should be such as the powers thought fit. Lord Dufferin was sent out as English commissioner, and order was soon restored. The representatives of the great powers assembled in Constantinople, then agreed that a Christian governor of the Lebanon should be appointed in subordination to the Sultan, and the Sultan had to agree. In June, 1861, the French troops evacuated Syria.

Annual Register, 1860; *Hansard*, 1860—61.

Leeds, Thomas Osborne, Duke of (*b.* 1631, *d.* 1712), Viscount Latimer and Baron Danby (1673), Earl of Danby (1674), Marquis of Carmarthen (1689), and Duke of Leeds (1694), was the son of Sir Thomas Osborne, of Yorkshire. He was elected member for York in 1661, and took an active part in the prosecution of Clarendon. His official career began with his appointment as commissioner for examining the public accounts (1667), and he became successively Treasurer of the Navy (1671), Privy Councillor (1672), and on the fall of Clifford, Lord High Treasurer (1674). "He founded his policy," says North, "upon the Protestant Cavalier interest and opposition to the French." At home he put in force the laws against Catholics and Dissenters, endeavoured to impose a non-resistance test on all public functionaries, and introduced a bill to give securities to the Church in event of the succession of a Catholic king. Abroad he opposed the aggrandisement of France, so far as the king allowed him, and contrived to bring about the marriage of the Princess Mary to William of Orange (1677). But he corrupted the House of Commons, and stooped to be the agent of Charles II. in his bargains with Louis XIV. The latter finding Danby the opponent of French policy, worked his overthrow through Ralph Montagu, the ambassador at Paris, who revealed the secret despatch by which Danby, at the king's command, asked payment for England's neutrality. He was impeached in 1678, and though not tried, confined in the Tower till 1684. It was decided that the king's pardon could not be pleaded in bar of an impeachment by the Commons, and that the dissolution of Parliament did not put an end to an impeachment. In the next reign, finding that the measures of James II. threatened the Church, he allied himself with the Whig lords, signed the invitation of June 20, 1688, to the Prince of Orange, and secured York for the Revolution. Yet though he did not shrink from taking up arms, he scrupled to declare James deposed, and headed the party which argued that the king had by his flight abdicated, and that the crown had thus devolved on Mary. In the discussions between the Lords and the Commons which followed, it was mainly owing to Danby that the House of Lords consented to agree with the Commons, and invite William to ascend the throne. Therefore he naturally obtained a great position under the new government. He was appointed President of the Council, and became in 1690 the real head of the ministry; "as nearly Prime Minister," says Macaulay, "as any English subject could be under a prince of William's character." His second administration, like his first, was stained by systematic bribery, nor was he free from corruption himself. In 1695 it was proved that he had received a bribe of 5,500 guineas from the East India Company, and he was for a second time impeached. He escaped condemnation, and caused the suspension of the proceedings by contriving the flight of the principal witness; but though he retained his place for three years longer, he completely lost his power. "Though his eloquence and knowledge always secured him the attention of his hearers, he was never again, even when the Tory party was in power, admitted to the smallest share in the direction of affairs. In 1710 he made his last important appearance in debate in defence of Sacheverell, and thus explained his conduct in 1688." He had, he said, a great share in the late revolution, but he never thought that things "would have gone so far as to settle the crown on the Prince of Orange, whom he had often heard say that he had no such thoughts

himself. That they ought to distinguish between resistance and revolution, for vacancy or abdication was the thing they went upon, and therefore resistance was to be forgot; for had it not succeeded it had certainly been rebellion, since he knew of no other but hereditary right." But though he disavowed the principles of the Revolution, and shrank from the logic of his actions, his name is inseparably associated with that event, and the part he played then is his best title to remembrance. His character has been very variously judged; he was bold, ambitious, and unscrupulous, and he has been defined as "a bourgeois Strafford."

Ranke, *History of England*; Hallam, *Constitutional History*; Macaulay, *History of England*; *Memoirs Relative to the Impeachment of the Earl of Danby*. [C. H. F.]

Leet. The court leet is one of the most ancient legal institutions of the realm, though it has now been for a long period stripped of by far the greater part of its powers. The right of holding a court of this nature—which is in many cases incidental to the tenure of a manor—appears to be traceable to Anglo-Saxon times; for there is no distinction to be made between the courts-leet of the Middle Ages and the local jurisdiction of the Anglo-Saxon thegn who had "Sac and Soc" in his own estate apart from the general judicial machinery of the hundred or the shire. The court leet in theory consisted of all members of the jurisdiction or manor between the ages of twelve and sixty—even women and servants being, according to some authorities, bound to attend; but in practice all the upper classes, from earls, bishops, and barons, to monks and nuns, were by the Statute of Marlborough exempted from attendance. The steward was bound to give from six to fifteen days' notice of the projected meeting (which was to be held once a year either within a month of Easter or Michaelmas) to "all manner of persons which are resident or deciners or owe royal suit to this leet." Proclamation having been duly made by the bailiff, excuses or "essoynes" were then made for those who were prevented from attending, and the list called over to ascertain the absentees who are liable to be fined by the jury, which must consist of at least twelve, but may consist of more persons. If it consist of a larger number it is sufficient if twelve concur in any presentment; and the jury of a court leet differs from that of a court baron in that the latter may be comprised of less than twelve members. When the former has been sworn, his fellows follow by threes and fours, asserting that they will "present the truth and nothing but the truth." The business of the court is then entered upon, viz., that of presenting culprits. Of culprits there were two classes: (1) Those whose offences might be inquired into here but punishable by the Justices of Assize at the next gaol-delivery; (2) Offences which might be punished as well as presented at the court leet. The first class comprised petty treasons and felonies, *e.g.*, counterfeiting the king's seal, forging or clipping his coin, mutilation, various forms of murder prepense, manslaughter, arson, dove or pigeon stealing, the abetment of knaves, and theft under the value of twelve pence. The second class included the non-appearance of suitors and deciners (members of a frank-pledge): neglect of any one being above twelve years in age to take his oath of lealty and fealty to the king, or to pay his due manorial services; annoyances caused to the people of the manor by tampering with or polluting roads, ditches, and hedges. The jury might also present and punish notorious scolds, brawlers, and eavesdroppers; those who helped in a rescue or kept houses of ill-fame; vagabonds and common haunters of taverns; those who should adulterate anything they sold, be it ale, bread, lime, or flax, or who should give false measure, or sell goods at above the fair market value. The jury were likewise bound to present the officers who had failed to do their duties—the constable, ale-taster, &c.; to inquire into any abuse of purveyance, into questions of treasure-trove, abuse of commons, and outlawry. The court leet had likewise to see that there was no combination of labourers or tradesmen to exact excessive wages or prices; to insist on the practice of the long-bow, and to prevent the playing of such unlawful games as dicing, carding, tennis, or bowls. The jury of court leet also in many manors chose and swore in the bailiff, constables, ale-conners, and hayward. The steward was to be considered as judge in a court leet, and he had the power to detain a stranger passing by if the full complement of his jury was not made up. He could likewise fine for contempt of court. Such were the early powers and constitution of the court leet, an institution which, after having been for many centuries in a declining condition, has now practically vanished, except from an antiquarian point of view. It takes its place by the side of the court baron, both courts originally consisting of the same members. The court leet, however, has always been considered by the lawyers as emphatically one of the king's courts; whereas the court baron had more particular charge of local matters, such as determining services and tenures, admitting new tenants, making new by-laws, &c.

J. Kitchin, *Court Leet*; Scrivin, *Treatise on Copyhold* (4th ed.), vol. ii.; T. Cunningham, *Law Dict.*; Blackstone, *Commentaries*; J. Stephen, *Commentaries*, iv.; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*

[T. A. A.]

Leeward Islands, The. In 1871, Antigua (with Barbuda and Redonda), St. Kitts, Anguilla, Montserrat, Nevis, Dominica, and the Virgin Islands, were formed into one colony, under the title of the Leeward Islands. The federation was placed under a governor-

in-chief, residing in Antigua, the affairs of the various islands being administered by presidents. There are a Federal Executive Council and a Federal Legislative Council for the Leeward Islands, consisting of eight nominated and eight elective members. The population numbers about 127,000, of whom 5,070 are white, 23,000 coloured, and 99,000 black.

Legates, Papal, were the messengers or ambassadors of the Pope, the recipients of the formal delegation of the papal authority within a given country. Before the Norman Conquest the presence of a papal legate in England was rare and exceptional. The earliest founders of Christianity in England were indeed in such close relation to the Popes, that there was very little need for other than direct intercourse with them. Accordingly there is no trace of papal legation between the mission of John the Precentor to Theodore's Council at Hatfield in 680 and the mission of George and Theophylact, "to renew the faith which St. Gregory had sent us" (*Anglo-Saxon Chron.*, s.a. 785) at the famous council of 787. During the next three centuries papal legations are equally rare. The subordinate position of Nothhelm "*præco a domino Eugenio Papa*," at the Clovesho Synod of 824, shows the legation invested with few of the dignities of later times. Under Edward the Confessor the mission of an envoy of Alexander II. to counteract the adhesion of Stigand to the anti-Pope marks the beginning of a new period which the Conquest further developed. But while admitting the papal delegates, and using them in 1070 to reform the Church on Norman lines, William I. established the rule that no legate should be admitted into England unless sent at the instance of the king and Church. Anselm claimed for the see of Canterbury a prescriptive right to represent the Pope in England. Archbishop William of Corbeuil obtained from Honorius II. (1126) a formal legatine commission over the whole island of Britain. From this precedent grew the ordinary legation of the archbishops, which, acceptable by Church and nation as involving less practical interference with the ordinary rule of the Church, was agreeable to the Pope as implying that the independent metropolitical jurisdiction of Canterbury was the result of papal delegation. The steps in the process are as follows: on William of Corbeuil's death, Henry of Winchester was preferred to Theobald, the new archbishop, who obtained the legation, however, after the death of Henry's patron, Pope Innocent II. Henry II. for a time got Roger of York appointed legate instead of Becket; but during the quarrel Becket received the delegation. The next two archbishops were appointed legates, though Longchamp of Ely succeeded Baldwin, when the latter went on crusade, and Hubert Walter had to give up the title on the death of Celestine III. The surrender of John gave opportunities for extraordinary foreign legates, such as Gualo and Pandulf, who almost ruled England in the minority of Henry III.; but Langton obtained their recall, and the appointment of himself as *legatus natus*, and a promise that in his lifetime no other legate should be sent. Henceforth the Archbishops of Canterbury were regularly recognised as ordinary legates. In 1352 Thoresby of York acquired the same privilege for the northern province. The suspension of Chichele by Martin V. because he could not get the Statute of Provisors repealed, seems not to have been recognised; and Beaufort of Winchester's special delegation did not supersede the ordinary jurisdiction of Canterbury. But *legati missi*, *legati a latere* were still sent upon occasion. The missions of Otho and Othobon, and of Guy, Cardinal Bishop of Sabina, are good instances during Henry III.'s time. Wolsey combined with his small ordinary jurisdiction as Archbishop of York an extraordinary commission as legate, which became the excuse for his overthrow, and for the abolition of a power which, from the days of the Statute of *Præmunire*, can hardly be said to have had any legal basis in England, however conformable to the general ecclesiastical law. Nothing but the compromise of the *legatus natus* made the position of the legate tolerable to the national feelings of England. It involved a subordination to an alien jurisdiction antagonistic to the imperial claims of the English crown. One of the earliest steps of the Reformation was to ignore the claims of the papal legates. The mission of Campeggio in 1529 was, but for the revival of the ordinary legation of Cardinal Pole and his supersession by Peto, the last instance of papal legation in England.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Collier, *Church Hist.*

[T. F. T.]

Legge, Henry Bilson (*b.* 1708, *d.* 1764), was the son of the Earl of Dartmouth. He became Lord of the Admiralty in 1746, and Lord of the Treasury in 1747. In the following year he was appointed envoy extraordinary to the court of Berlin, and in 1749 became Treasurer of the Navy. In 1754 he became Chancellor of the Exchequer, but in 1755 he rebelled against Newcastle, refusing to sign the Treasury warrants necessary for carrying the treaty for the Hessian subsidy to a conclusion. He was accordingly dismissed. He again assumed office as Secretary of State, in 1756, but was dismissed in the following year, to be shortly afterwards reinstated as Chancellor of the Exchequer; he was, however, dismissed in 1761, owing to a quarrel with Bute. He continued, until his death, to adhere to Pitt in politics, although bound by no ties of friendship.

Legion Memorial, The (1701), was a Whig pamphlet, written to express the public disgust at the treatment by the Commons of the Kentish petitioners. It is supposed that its author was Daniel Defoe. The pamphlet takes its name from its concluding words, "our name is Legion, and we are many." Its language is extremely violent, and it contains not only questions of national politics, but also a bitter attack on the Unitarians, and on John Howe, a speaker against the Kentish Petition. It accurately represented the temper of a large section of the population. The Whigs were delighted, and the Tories infuriated with it.

Legislation. There was little legislation, or formal enacting of new laws, before the Norman Conquest. The unwritten customs and rules of law that the Angles and Saxons had brought to Britain were, from time to time, authoritatively declared, revised, amended, added to, adapted to the advancing experience of the race, or even reduced to crudely constructed codes; and the result was called after the king by whom or at whose instance the task had been undertaken. This moderate measure of legislation would seem to have regularly been the joint-work of the king and witan; the successive issues of laws profess to have been made either by the king and his witan, or by the king "with his witan," or "with the counsel of his witan." Indeed Alfred tells us that to his laws the *consent* of his witan was given; and the language of more than one ordinance of Ethelred II.'s reign states the authority of the witan alone. Mr. Kemble would rather "assert that they possessed the legislative power without the king, than that he possessed it without them." We may perhaps assume that their practical importance to this function varied with the character of the king. Very few laws were made in the reigns of the Norman kings. But in the making of these few the sovereign's will is believed to have been the sole effective force; the voice of the great and wise of the kingdom declined into an influence merely—perhaps into less. Yet it was seldom ignored; the charters and ordinances of William I. and Henry I. generally express the counsel or concurrence in some form of the higher clergy and barons, though it is likely that their approval was often taken for granted. The tendency, however, of the succeeding reigns was to make the share of the Great Council in the work more and more of a reality. Even the strong-willed Henry II. was careful to gain its assent to the assizes or constitutions he drew up. And this tendency grew until this body was recognised as a co-ordinate power with the king in this province. In one or two instances, indeed, notably in that of Magna Carta, what now pass for laws were really treaties concluded between conflicting parties in the State. As yet the only part the people had in legislation was to hear and obey the laws that were declared to them by sheriffs or itinerant justices. "Legislative action," says Bishop Stubbs, "belonged only to the wise, that is, to the royal or national council." The incorporation of the Commons with this council was necessarily followed by the concession to the representatives of the people of a right to a share in this action. But not at once to an important share. First their participation was either deemed unnecessary or assumed; then it was admitted to be essential to the repeal of a law; next, laws were enacted on their petition; and for some time this last remained the usual practice. During the fourteenth century the right of the Commons to present petitions and receive answers to them tended steadily to become the exclusive basis of legislation. There were exceptions, certainly—more than once a petition to the clergy led to the framing of a statute; but the regular course was for the king to ordain the law at the request of the Commons, and with the assent of the Lords. And to several laws even the *assent* of the Commons is stated. But the king was still largely in fact, as in form he has always been, the author of all legislation; and the statutes that he caused to be framed on the petitions of Parliament were often inadequate, evasive, or useless. To make sure of the fulfilment of their desires, therefore, Parliament, towards the end of Henry VI.'s reign, adopted the practice of proceeding by bills which could not be altered without their sanction, but might originate in either House, or even with the king. The method of petition was not altogether abandoned; but its use became rare, except in private legislation. And already in the fifteenth century the course of procedure was substantially what it is now. The three readings, the going into committee, the proposal of amendments, were established forms at least before the century ended. Then, too, the enacting clause of statutes had taken its final form—"be it enacted by the king, our sovereign lord, by and with the advice of the lords spiritual and temporal and commons in this present parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same." The language of our legislation has varied. It was generally English, but sometimes Latin, before the Conquest; was almost exclusively Latin from the Conquest till the Mad Parliament, when French made its appearance. French did not at once drive out Latin; but became the fashion in Edward I.'s reign, and almost universal after it. But ever since 1489 our laws have been written exclusively in English. French, however, still lingers in a few phrases: *le roy le veult* is the expression of the royal assent, and *le roy s'avisera* would be the form of royal refusal if such could now be given.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; May, *Law and Practice of Parliament.* [J. R.]

Leicester, The Earldom of, which had been held from early in the twelfth century by the Norman family of Beaumont, passed in 1207 to Simon of Montfort, the crusader, who was son (or, as some accounts say, husband) of Amicia, sister to the last Beaumont earl. Simon, however, seems never to have enjoyed more than the title, and when he died, his eldest son, Amalric, was well content to surrender his rights to his next brother, Simon, the famous national leader, on whose death at Evesham, in 1265, all his honours became forfeit. Nine years later the earldom was granted to Edmund, Earl of Lancaster, and followed the fortunes of that title until the death of Henry, Duke of Lancaster, in 1361, when the honour of Leicester descended to William, Count of Holland, husband to this prince's elder daughter and co-heiress, and then to John of Gaunt, who married the second daughter. It does not appear that William of Holland ever bore the title of earl; but John of Gaunt is at least once so styled, and in the person of his son, Henry of Bolingbroke, the honour was merged in the crown. In 1563 the earldom was granted to Sir Robert Dudley, younger son of John, Duke of Northumberland; he died without legitimate issue in 1588, and the title became extinct. In 1618 it was granted to Sir Robert Sydney, Viscount Lisle, in whose family it continued until its extinction in 1743. In the following year Thomas Coke, Baron Lovel of Minster Lovel, was created Earl of Leicester, but died in 1759 without surviving issue. In 1784 George Townshend, son of George, Viscount Townshend, was created earl of the county of Leicester, but on the death of his son in 1855, this title also became extinct. Meanwhile, in 1837, Thomas William Coke, a great-nephew of the Thomas Coke above named, was ennobled by the singular style of Earl of Leicester of Holkham, co. Norfolk. This title still exists.

Leicester, Simon de Montfort, Earl of. [Montfort.]

Leicester, Robert Dudley, Earl of (*b.* 1532, *d.* 1588), was the fifth son of John Dudley, Duke of Northumberland. Implicated to some extent in the schemes of his father, he was for some years in disgrace, but was ultimately restored in blood by Mary. In 1549 he married Amy (or Anne) Robsart, daughter of a Devonshire gentlemen, and is said to have procured her murder at Cumnor (1560). The charge cannot be absolutely proved; but she certainly perished at a time most convenient for Dudley's ambition. The probable truth is, as Mr. Froude points out, that she was murdered by some one who wished to see Dudley married to Elizabeth. He had not been long about the court before his handsome appearance won him the favour of the queen, whose relations with her "sweet Robin" were so peculiar as to lend colour to the worst representations of her enemies, though the rumours were probably groundless. The queen's fondness for Dudley, whom, in 1564, she created Earl of Leicester, caused his marriage with her to be regarded as a matter of certainty. But Elizabeth, fond as she was, preferred that "at court there should be no master, only mistress." The bitter enemy of Cecil, whom he regarded as his rival in influence over the queen, Leicester was continually trying to deprive him of his office, but without success. His arrogance and his influence over the queen made Leicester an object of almost universal detestation; and the probability of his marriage with Elizabeth called forth the most violent opposition. When the queen, in 1562, believed herself to be dying, she named the earl as Protector of the realm; and the following year, though she would not marry him herself, proposed him as a suitor for the hand of Mary Queen of Scots, that he might thus, perhaps, after all, obtain the throne of England. It was long, however, before Leicester gave up all hope of an alliance with the queen; and he was one of the most determined opponents of the projected marriages with the Duke of Anjou and Charles of Austria. About the year 1567, Leicester assumed the *rôle* of head of the Puritan party, partly out of chagrin with the Catholics, who refused him support, and as a means of checkmating his enemy Cecil. Twenty years later, when in the Netherlands, he gained many supporters amongst the Reformers by his pretence of sincere Protestantism. In 1578 he secretly married the Countess of Essex, and incurred the severe displeasure of the queen, who still retained her partiality for her favourite. In 1582 Elizabeth again quarrelled with him; but a reconciliation was effected, and, in 1585, he obtained the command of the English troops in the Low Countries; though his appointment only served to bring out his incapacity to fill a responsible position. On his arrival at Flushing, Leicester was offered and accepted the post of governor by the States, a fact which again provoked the anger of Elizabeth, who declared that the earl and the States had treated her with contempt. Before Leicester returned to England, towards the end of 1586, he had managed, "with conspicuous incapacity," to throw everything into confusion, and to bring the Low Countries to the verge of ruin. Notwithstanding this, the States again offered him the government, and he went back with supplies of men and money in 1587, though he only retained his post a few months. The following year, in spite of the incapacity he had displayed as a general, the command of the English army was entrusted to him during the alarm of the Spanish invasion; and he was about to be created Lieutenant-General of England and Ireland

when he died of a fever (Sept. 4, 1588). His character is that of an ambitious and unscrupulous courtier. "He combined in himself," says Mr. Froude, "the worst qualities of both sexes. Without courage, without talent, without virtue, he was the handsome, soft, polished, and attentive minion of the Court."

Stowe; Strype, *Annals, &c.*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.*; Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.* [F. S. P.]

Leigh, Thomas (*d.* 1601), a supporter of the Earl of Essex, formed a plot to obtain his release by seizing the person of the queen. It is said that the discovery of Leigh's intention caused Elizabeth to sign the death warrant of the earl without delay.

Leighton, Alexander (*b.* 1568 ? *d.* 1649), a Scotch divine, filled the chair of Moral Philosophy at Edinburgh from 1603 to 1615. In 1629 he published two works, one entitled *Zion's Plea*, the other *The Looking-glass of the Holy War*, in which he violently attacked the bishops, counselling the Parliament "to smite them under the fifth rib," and spoke of the queen as a Canaanite and an idolatress. For this he was sentenced by the Star Chamber to have his nose slit, his ears cut, be publicly whipped, and imprisoned for life. In 1640 he was released by the Long Parliament, and made keeper of the state prison at Lambeth Palace in 1642.

Leinster, The Kingdom and Province of, as far as can be gathered from the Irish legends, was first colonised by the Firbolgs, a number of tribes of British or Belgian origin, and after they had been defeated by the Tuatha Dé Dananns, it was the starting point from which the Milesians (Gauls or Spaniards) overran the country. When their leader Erimon divided the country he is said to have given Leinster to Crimhthann, a descendant of the Firbolgs, which race formed the bulk of the population. About the time of the Christian era Leinster was occupied by a number of kinglets, but Tuathal Techmar, who was a member of the dominant tribe, the Scoti, broke their power, imposed upon them a fine known as the "boromean," or cow-tribute, and took a portion of their territory, including the sacred hill of Tara, to form, with additions from the other kingdoms, the over-king's kingdom of Meath. His grandson, Conn "of the hundred battles," however, had little hold on the country, and the King of Leinster joined Mug of Munster in a victorious struggle against the over-king. At the time of the mission of St. Patrick (432 A.D.) Leinster, which comprised the present counties of Wexford, Wicklow, Carlow, Queen's County, parts of Kilkenny, King's County, and Kildare, together with the part of county Dublin south of the Liffey, had been consolidated into one kingdom under the Maelmordas, or MacMurroughs. It had already been partially converted to Christianity by Palladius. The Leinster kings seem to have been practically independent of the over-kings of the Hui-Neill dynasty (438 and onwards), and in 681 they obtained an abolition of the "boromean" tribute, at the instance of St. Moling. From time to time, however, their country was invaded from Meath, and terrific defeats inflicted upon them. The country suffered also from the ravages of the Northmen and Danes, the latter of whom took from them a considerable district round Dublin (about 850). In 984 the Kings of East and West Leinster had to submit to Brian Boru, King of Munster, who thus became king of the southern half of Ireland. With the aid of the Danes of Dublin, Leinster attempted in 1000 to cast off his yoke, but the allies were completely defeated at Glen Mama. Maelmorda was placed on the throne by Brian as sole king, but promptly began to intrigue afresh with the Danes against him, and was in consequence met by the combined forces of Brian Boru and Malachi, King of Meath. The battle of Clontarf (1014) resulted in the utter overthrow of the Kings of Leinster and Dublin. It was not long, however, before the kingdom recovered, and by the middle of the century we find Diarmait (Dermot), King of Leinster, driving out the Danish King of Dublin, and his son Murchad (Murtough), making the Isle of Man tributary; but these acquisitions were not long retained. Dermot's great-grandson, Dermot MacMurrough, having been deposed because of his treacheries and cruelties, repaired to Henry II. in Aquitaine, and obtained permission to raise forces in England against Roderick O'Connor. Hence began the Anglo-Norman invasion, which speedily resulted in the conquest of the coast towns, and victories over the tribes, into which it is unnecessary to enter here. On the death of Dermot in 1171, Strongbow, who had married his only child Eva, claimed the kingdom of Leinster, and his heiress transferred the claim to her husband, William Marshal, Earl of Pembroke, who left five co-heiresses. These ladies all married English nobles, whose descendants drew their rents, and lived away in England, the estates eventually becoming forfeited to the crown under the statute against absentees. Large tracts of land were also given by Dermot to others of the invaders, and these grants were confirmed by Henry on his visit to Ireland in 1172. Thus the Leinster Fitzgeralds held by subinfeudation under the De Vescis, Earls of Kildare, the descendants of one of Strongbow's daughters, until in the reign of Edward I. the De Vesci estates were forfeited, and bestowed on the Fitzgeralds, who soon became of great importance as Earls of Kildare (1316) and Dukes of Leinster. They maintained a long and arduous struggle with the Irish tribes, the MacMurroughs and the O'Tooles, who often confined them to their walled towns. In 1399 Richard II. came to the assistance of the English Pale, but tho

MacMurroughs evaded battle, and he had to retire; Kildare, and the country round Dublin, was now all that was left in Leinster to the English. This state of affairs did not mend until the reign of Henry VIII., when a double policy of coercion and conciliation was pursued with some success; the Geraldines were crushed; the estates of absentee landlords were confiscated; MacMurrough, who now took the name of Kavanagh, the representative of King Dermot, was pensioned, and the other chieftains won over, their loyalty being secured by gifts of confiscated Church lands. Under Mary, Gerald of Kildare was restored to his earldom, and the districts of Leix and Offaly were planted with English colonists, becoming Queen's County and King's County respectively. During the reign of Elizabeth Leinster suffered comparatively little in comparison with Ulster and Munster, the scenes of the O'Neill and Desmond rebellions, though there was continual war then between the Geraldines and Butlers. In this reign the old kingdom of Meath was added to Leinster, together with Louth, formerly a part of Ulster. James I., true to his policy of governing Ireland by English ideas, determined to effect the Plantation of Leinster. By means of a commission to inquire into defective titles, he despoiled the natives, and even the Anglo-Irish, of large portions of their lands, which were transferred to "undertakers," who speedily formed a new Irish nobility. Charles I. declared large districts of land in Wicklow and Wexford to be forfeited to the crown, but such was the outcry against the proceeding that it had to be abandoned. When Cromwell repaired to Ireland, in order to subdue the rebellion which had broken out in 1641, his stern displeasure fell heavily upon Leinster, and the massacres of Drogheda and Wexford went far to break all further opposition. In the settlement that followed, the Irish Catholic gentry were transported across the Shannon, and their lands given to Cromwellian soldiers, and adventurers who had advanced money, but after the Restoration about one-third of their estates were restored to the dispossessed Catholics. The last great Irish land settlement—that which followed the Treaty of Limerick (1691)—resulted in a further forfeiture of Catholic property, but it did not affect Leinster so much as the other provinces of Ireland, and its history as a separate province may be said to have ended with the Revolution.

Keating, *Hist. of Ireland*; Prendergast, *Cromwellian Settlement*; Carte, *Life of the Duke of Ormonde*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Haverty, *Hist. of Ireland*; Cusack, *Hist. of the Irish Nation*; King, *Estates of the Protestants of Ireland under James II.*; Walpole, *The Kingdom of Ireland*.

[L. C. S.]

Leinster, James, Duke of, 20th Earl of Kildare (*d.* Nov. 19, 1773), was in 1747 made Marquis of Leinster in the English peerage, in 1761 he became Marquis of Kildare, and in 1766 Duke of Leinster in the Irish peerage. Individually the most powerful and popular nobleman in Ireland, he refused to act with any other party. Hence it was that he only once was Lord Justice. In 1769 he joined the Patriots, as they called themselves. He raised and commanded the first regiment of Volunteers; when the trade restrictions were taken away he refused to embarrass the government, but again took the lead against them after the Mutiny Bill had been passed. He was one of the deputation to the Prince of Wales with the Regency Bill. He signed the "Round Robin," but refused to recede from that engagement; in consequence he lost the Mastership of the Rolls. He was father of Lord Edward Fitzgerald.

Leith, the port of Edinburgh, was burnt by Hertford, May, 1544. It was afterwards held by the queen regent, Mary of Guise, and a French garrison against the Lords of Congregation, and in 1560 was besieged by a combined force of Scotch and English. In 1571 it was held by the party of James VI., who nearly fell into the hands of Lord Bothwell here in 1594. During the ascendancy of Cromwell it was occupied by Lambert and Monk. In 1715 it was for a time in the hands of the Jacobite insurgents.

Lennox, Esmé Stuart, Duke of (*d.* 1583), the son of John d'Aubigné, captain of the Scots Guard in France, and the nephew of Matthew, Earl of Lennox, came to Scotland, 1579, where his polished manners soon recommended him to the favour of James VI., who created him Duke of Lennox, 1581, having previously made him Governor of Dumbarton, captain of his guard, and Earl of Lennox. Hated by the Scotch nobles as a foreigner and a favourite, Lennox sought to increase his popularity by becoming a Protestant, and to secure his power by the ruin of Morton. He became an object of dread to Elizabeth, who imagined that he would set himself to draw closer the connection between Scotland and France. Hurled from his high position by the Raid of Ruthven, Lennox was compelled to return to France, where he died at Paris, May, 1583. He is said, in spite of his vanity and love of ostentation, to have been a "gentle, humane, and candid" man.

Lennox, Matthew Stuart, Earl of (*d.* 1571), was a member of the French house of D'Aubigné. On his marriage with the daughter of the Earl of Angus and Queen Margaret, he joined the party of Henry VIII. in Scotland, but subsequently threw him over at the same time as the Assured Lords. He was the father of Darnley, on whose murder he endeavoured without avail to bring Bothwell to justice, for he dared not appear at the trial as his accuser. In 1567, on Mary's abdication, he was appointed one of the council of regency,

and the following year collected evidence against the Queen of Scots at the York commission. In 1570 he was elected regent of Scotland, and at once attacked and took the castle of Dumbarton, one of the strongholds of Mary's party. He was mortally wounded by a bullet in a fray at Stirling in September, 1571.

Lenthall, WILLIAM (*b.* 1591, *d.* 1662), was called to the bar in 1616, and, having a considerable practice, and being a member of an ancient county family, was chosen Speaker of the Long Parliament in 1640. He does not appear to have been equal to this important position, though on the attempted arrest of the Five Members by the king (Jan. 4, 1642), he showed considerable spirit. In 1643 the Parliament made him Master of the Rolls, and in 1646 one of the Commissioners of the Great Seal. In 1647, fearing the mob which attempted to overawe Parliament, he withdrew to the army, but soon after returned and resumed his office of Speaker, which he continued to hold down to the expulsion of the Long Parliament in 1653. In the Parliament of 1654 he was again chosen Speaker, and in 1656 was made one of Cromwell's House of Lords, having taken a prominent part in favour of the Protector's assuming the title of king. On the Restoration he was deprived of his judicial office, but was one of those who received the king's pardon. He thereupon retired into private life, and to the end remained unmolested by the new government.

Fox, *Judges of England.*

Leofric (*d.* 1057) was the son of Leofwine, Earl of Mercia. In 1017 he was appointed by Canute Earl of Chester, and soon after succeeded his father in the earldom of Mercia. On the death of Canute Leofric supported the claims of Harold. During the reign of Edward the Confessor Leofric occupied a middle position between the foreigners and the party of Godwin, and in 1051, when matters had come to a crisis, he prevented the outbreak of civil war by mediation. He died in 1057, and was succeeded in his earldom by his son Elfgar. Leofric and his wife Godgifu (the "Lady Godiva" of legend) were especially celebrated as builders of churches and monasteries, chief among them being the great minster of Coventry. [COVENTRY.]

Florence of Worcester, *Chronicle*; Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, vol. ii.

Leofwine (*d.* 1066) was the fifth son of Earl Godwin. Probably in 1057 he was appointed to an earldom, which included the shires of Kent, Surrey, Middlesex, Essex, Hertford, and Buckingham. He was slain in the battle of Hastings.

Leslie, DAVID (*d.* 1682), nephew of Alexander Leslie, Earl of Leven (q.v.), and an even more able commander, accompanied his uncle to England (1644) in the capacity of major-general. He was present at the battles of Marston Moor and Naseby, and in 1645 defeated Montrose at Philiphaugh. In 1650 he was opposed to Cromwell, who defeated him at Dunbar, and in the same year was taken prisoner at Worcester, and sent to the Tower, where he remained until the Restoration. He was made Lord Newark by Charles II. in recognition of his services at Worcester.

Leslie, NORMAN, Master of Rothes, was one of the Scotch commanders at the battle of Ancrum. In 1546 he murdered Cardinal Beaton in the castle of St. Andrews, where he was himself captured by a French force (1547), and sent to the French galleys as a heretic; he subsequently escaped.

Lethington, WILLIAM MAITLAND OF, son of Sir Richard Maitland, well known as an able and inscrutable politician at an early age, for some years played an almost continuous part in the history of Scotch politics, and in 1558 was appointed Secretary of State to Queen Mary, and was continually employed as her envoy to the English court. Although he joined the Lords of Congregation, he was nevertheless in favour of extending toleration to the queen as to her religion; in 1565 he vehemently opposed the marriage with Darnley, and a year later persuaded the queen to sue for a divorce. After Darnley's murder he accompanied Mary to Seton in Haddingtonshire, but deserted her on symptoms of danger appearing in 1567, and joined the Confederate Lords on Mary's captivity in England. However, he openly joined her party, and in 1569 was arrested and sent to Edinburgh as one of Darnley's murderers, but was acquitted, and resumed his office of Secretary of State, and remained faithful to Mary until the surrender of Edinburgh Castle placed him in the hands of his enemies. He poisoned himself, May 1573. His policy was characterised by a craft and depth that made him no bad match for the astute Cecil, but his whole course of action is steeped in mystery as to its motive and its end.

Iconographia Scotica; Burton, *Hist. of Scotland.*

Levellers was the name given to an important party during the period of the Commonwealth. Early in 1647 a considerable ultra-Republican sect appeared in the New Model Army, especially among the Adjutators. The rejection of the Army Proposals by Charles I., and the increasing hostility displayed by the Commons towards the army, furthered the spread of such opinions, and many of the soldiers distrusted Cromwell himself on account of his too lenient treatment of the king, and their distrust produced the mutiny of Nov. 15. [ADJUTATORS.]

A more formidable outbreak took place early in 1649. Lilburne, and those who thought

with him, considered the existing Republic too aristocratic, and little better than the monarchy to which it had succeeded. In two pamphlets, *England's New Chains Discovered*, and *The Hunting of the Foxes* (*i.e.* the army magnates) *from Newmarket and Triploe Heath to Whitehall by Five Small Beagles*, Lilburne demanded that the council of state should be dissolved and the management of public affairs should be given to parliamentary committees of short duration; that greater liberty of conscience and of the Press should be permitted; that a new and reformed parliament should speedily come together, and the Self-denying Ordinance revived. Lilburne and three other of the more conspicuous Levellers—Overton, Walwyn, and Prince—were arrested and brought before the Council; they were committed to the Tower. On April 25 a mutiny broke out among a troop quartered in Bishopsgate, who refused to obey an order to leave London. But Fairfax and Cromwell came up quickly and crushed the rising; fifteen mutineers were tried by court-martial, and one, Lockyer, was shot in St. Paul's Churchyard. More formidable risings took place in various parts of the country. A Captain Thompson with two hundred troopers rose in revolt at Banbury, issuing a manifesto, but he was overpowered by his colonel. From Salisbury a thousand insurgents marched towards London; they were surrounded by Cromwell at Burford and surrendered, and the very dangerous military Levelling movement was over.

Before this, another and more harmless Levelling movement had been defeated. Some thirty men met on St. Margaret's Hill and St. George's Hill, near Cobham in Surrey, where they "digged the ground and sowed it with roots and beans." They were dispersed, and their leaders brought before the Council. There one of them, Everard, declared that "what they did was to renew the ancient community of enjoying the fruits of the earth, and to distribute the benefit thereof to the poor and needy. But they intend not to meddle with any man's property nor to break down any pales or enclosures; but only to meddle with what was common and untilled, and to make it fruitful for the use of man; that the time will suddenly be, that all men should willingly come in and submit to this community."

Cromwell's attitude towards the Levellers appears in a speech of 1654, where he declares his approval of "the ranks and orders of man whereby England hath been known for hundreds of years. A nobleman, a gentleman, and a yeoman; that is a good interest of the nation. Did not that Levelling principle tend to the reducing of all to an equality? What was the purport of it but to make the tenant as liberal a fortune as the landlord?"

Whitelock, *Memorials;* Masson, *Milton and his Time*, iii. 526–9, 570, 582; iv. 43–51; Carlyle, *Cromwell.*

[W. J. A.]

Leven, Alexander Leslie, Earl of (*d.* 1661), having gained considerable military experience in the Low Countries and Sweden, returned to Scotland, 1638, and after serving as lieutenant to Montrose, was appointed commander-in-chief of the Covenanting army, Feb., 1639, in the May of which year he led the Scotch army to the Borders, encamping on Dunse Land just opposite the royal forces. A collision was for the time averted, but in 1640 Leslie entered England, winning the battle of Newburn and taking Newcastle. On a treaty being concluded at Ripon, Leslie was created Earl of Leven by Charles I., who hoped to win him over to his side. In 1644 he again led an expedition into England, and was present at the battle of Marston Moor. After the execution of Charles I. Leven supported Charles II. against Cromwell, but being captured in 1651 at Angus was sent to the Tower. He was kept in honourable confinement, and released in 1654, when he retired into private life.

Lewes, The Battle of (May 14, 1264), was fought between Henry III. and the barons under Simon de Montfort (q.v.). After the failure of the Mise of Amiens, war became certain, though negotiations still went on for a while. At first the war was confined to the capture of a few castles on either side, but in May both armies found themselves in Sussex, De Montfort marching to the relief of the Cinque Ports, which were threatened by the king. The forces met at Lewes on May 13, when De Montfort made one last attempt to avoid an encounter by offering the king 50,000 marks if he would engage to carry out the Provisions of Oxford. Henry returned a defiant answer, and De Montfort prepared to fight. At the break of day he suddenly advanced, and seized the heights above the town, and in this strong position forced the royal army to attack. Prince Edward opened the battle, and by a furious charge broke through the Londoners stationed on the right of the baronial army, and pursued them for some miles from the scene of action. Meanwhile, however, the royalist centre and left, crowded between the heights and the river, were completely defeated by De Montfort. The king himself, with his brother, the King of the Romans, was taken prisoner. Edward cut his way into the midst of the baronial troops, and, unable to retrieve the fortune of the day, was obliged to surrender also.

Rishanger, *Chronicle;* Robert of Gloucester; Blaauw, *Barons' War;* Pauli, *Simon von Montfort.*

Lewes, Mise of (1264), was the name given to the truce made between Henry III. and the barons after the victory of the latter at Lewes. By this treaty the Provisions of Oxford were confirmed, a new body of arbitrators was appointed to decide disputed points, and to choose a council for the king,

to consist entirely of Englishmen; the king was to act by the advice of this council in administering justice and choosing ministers, to observe the charters, and to live of his own without oppressing the merchants or the poor; Prince Edward and his cousin Henry of Almayne were given as hostages; and the Earls of Leicester and Gloucester were to be indemnified; and a court of arbitration to settle disputed questions was to be appointed, consisting of two Frenchmen and two Englishmen.

Rishanger, *Chronicle*; Blaauw, *Barons' War*.

Lewis, Sir George Cornewall (*b.* 1806, *d.* 1863), the eldest son of Sir Thomas Frankland Lewis, of Harpton Court, Radnorshire, was educated at Eton and Christ Church, and called to the Bar at the Middle Temple (1831). In 1835 he was appointed one of the Commissioners of Inquiry for the Relief of the Poor and into the State of the Church in Ireland; and in the following year was placed on the Commission of Inquiry into the Affairs of Malta; and was a Poor-Law Commissioner from Jan., 1839, to July, 1847, when he was first elected member for the county of Hereford. He sat for that county until 1852, and from March, 1855, to his death represented the Radnor district of boroughs. He succeeded to the baronetcy on the death of his father in 1855. Sir George Lewis filled numerous important offices in the government. He was appointed secretary to the Board of Control from Nov., 1847, to May, 1848; under secretary for the Home Department to July, 1850; financial secretary to the Treasury to Feb., 1852; chancellor of the exchequer from March, 1855, to Feb., 1858; and was appointed secretary of state to the Home Department, June, 1859. On the resignation of Lord Herbert, 1861, Sir George was appointed by Lord Palmerston secretary for war, which office he held till his death. Sir G. C. Lewis wrote numerous works on antiquities, history, and political philosophy. His *Influence of Authority in Matters of Opinion* was published in 1849, and *Dialogue on the Best Form of Government* in 1863.

Libel, The Law of, has always been somewhat indefinite in England. "Before the Revolution of 1688 it was held," says Mr. Hallam, "that no man might publish a writing reflecting on the government, nor upon the character, or even capacity and fitness of anyone employed in it," even though, as in the case of Tutchin, such reflection were merely general. Under William III. and Anne, prosecutions for libel were frequent, while it became an established principle that falsehood was not essential to the guilt of a libel. Under George III. the law became still further strained. A publisher was held liable for the act of his servant committed without his authority, and Lord Mansfield, in the case of Woodfall, the printer of the *Letters of Junius*, went so far as to hold that the jury had only to determine the fact of publication; the decision of the criminality of the libel resting with the judge alone. The hardship with which persons accused of libel were treated led to Fox's Libel Act, which passed in 1792, and declared, in opposition to the judges, that the jury might give a general verdict on the whole question at issue, although the judges were still allowed to express any opinion they pleased. In 1817 Lord Sidmouth's circular to the lords-lieutenant of counties, informing them that justices of the peace might issue a warrant to apprehend any person charged on oath with the publication of a blasphemous or seditious libel, and compel him to give bail to answer the charge, called forth great opposition, though it was to a large extent acted upon. In 1820 one of the *Six Acts* increased the punishments for libel. In 1843 the law of libel was still further amended by Lord Campbell's Act, which allows a defendant to plead that the publication was without his authority, and was from no want of care on his part, whilst he may also plead that a libel is true and for the public benefit. In 1839 the decision in *Stockdale* v. *Hansard*, that the House of Commons cannot legalise the publication of libellous matter by ordering it to be printed as a report, led to an Act in the following year, which provides that no proceedings can be taken in respect of any publications ordered by either House of Parliament. In 1868 it was held by Lord Chief Justice Cockburn, in an action brought against the proprietor of the *Times*, that "Criticism of the Executive is at the present time so important that individual character may be sacrificed."

Hallam, *Const. Hist.*; May, *Const. Hist.*; Thomas, *Leading Cases*; Broom, *Const. Law*.

Ligonier, John, Earl (*b.* 1680, *d.* 1770), belonged to a family of French Protestant refugees. He first appears as a volunteer at the storming of Liège (1702), and served as a soldier of fortune under Marlborough, being present at the battle of Blenheim. He was knighted for his gallant conduct at the battle of Dettingen (1743). As commander-in-chief of the British forces in Flanders, he greatly distinguished himself at the battle of Raucoux (1746); but in the following year he was taken prisoner at Lawfeldt, owing to the extreme ardour of the English horse, of which he was in command. It is said that he endeavoured to pass off as one of the enemy's officers when surrounded. Marshal Saxe availed himself of the capture to make overtures for peace through Ligonier. In 1748 he was returned for Bath, and became lieutenant-general of the Ordnance, and subsequently governor-general of Plymouth (1752). In 1757 he was removed from the Ordnance,

much to his disgust, but created Viscount Ligonier of Enniskillen and commander-in-chief, although no longer fit for active service. He was created an English peer in 1763, and an earl in 1766.

Lilburne, John (*b.* 1614, *d.* 1657), of a good family, in the county of Durham, was apprenticed to a tailor in the city of London, became engaged in the circulation of the prohibited books of Prynne and Bastwick, was brought before the Star Chamber, whipped, and imprisoned (1638). On the meeting of the Long Parliament he was released, and compensated for his sufferings (Nov., 1640). When the war broke out he entered the army of Essex, fought at Edgehill, was made prisoner at Brentford (Nov., 1642), tried for high treason before a council of war at Oxford, and was only saved from death by the intervention of the Parliament. Afterwards he escaped, and served in the Earl of Manchester's army, finally attaining the rank of lieutenant-colonel. At the close of the war he took to writing on all subjects, and was summoned before the House of Lords for attacking the Earl of Manchester, sentenced to pay a fine, and committed to prison. When released, in 1648, he became one of the leaders of the party termed Levellers, and wrote numerous pamphlets on the heads of the Parliament and army. In February, 1649, he presented to the Commons a paper called *The Serious Apprehensions of a Part of the People on behalf of the Commonwealth.* On March 5 appeared *England's New Chains Discovered*, and before the end of the month it was followed by *The Hunting of the Foxes from Newmarket and Triploe Heath to Whitehall by Five Small Beagles.* For this Lilburne was committed to the Tower, where he found means to summarise his views on government in a new pamphlet called *The Agreement of the People*, and, after six months' confinement, was tried for high treason. The jury acquitted him, and he was released in Nov., 1649. In 1652 he was banished, and fined £7,000 for a libel on Sir A. Haselrig. After the expulsion of the Long Parliament he ventured to return to England, but was arrested, tried, and a second time acquitted (Aug., 1653). In spite of this he was by order of the Council of State confined in the island of Jersey, but after a time released on his promise to live quietly.

Guizot, *Portraits politiques des hommes des divers partis*; Masson, *Life of Milton.*

[C. H. F.]

Lillibullero was the name of a song satirising James II. and the Catholics, written by Lord Wharton in 1686. It became very popular, and added in no slight degree to the feeling against the king. Bishop Burnet says that this "foolish ballad made an impression on the king's army that cannot be imagined by those who saw it not. The whole army, and at last the people both in city and country, were singing it perpetually. And, perhaps, never had so slight a thing so great an effect." There was some justification for Wharton's boast that he had sung the king out of three kingdoms. "Lillibullero" and "Bullen-e-lah" are said to have been passwords used by the Irish Catholics in their massacre of the Protestants in 1641.

The ballad will be found in the Percy's *Reliques*, in Wilkins's *Political Ballads*, and in W. Scott's *Irish Minstrelsy.*

Limerick, The Pacification of (Oct. 3, 1691), was the result of negotiations between the English and Irish commanders at the conclusion of the second siege of Limerick. The articles of capitulation were divided into two parts — a military treaty and a civil treaty. By the first it was agreed that such Irish officers and soldiers as should declare they wished to go to France should be conveyed thither. French vessels were to be permitted to pass and repass between Brittany and Munster. The civil treaty granted to the Irish Catholics such religious privileges as were consistent with law, or as they had enjoyed in the reign of Charles II. To all who took the oath of allegiance a perfect amnesty was promised, their lands and all the rights and privileges they had held under Charles II. were to be restored. Of the Irish army eleven thousand volunteered for the French service, but of these many afterwards deserted; three thousand either accepted passes from Ginkell, the English commander, or returned home. The terms of the civil treaty were discussed in the English Parliament. A bill was prepared in the Commons providing that no person should sit in the Irish Parliament, enjoy any office whatever, or practise law or medicine in Ireland until he had taken the oaths of allegiance and supremacy, and subscribed the declaration against transubstantiation. This was, however, found inconsistent with the terms of the treaty of Limerick. The bill was accordingly amended by Chief Justice Holt, and accepted in that form by the Commons. The question whether Roman Catholics could be admitted to Parliament was not finally settled until the reign of George IV. The Irish legislation under William III. and Anne, and of the greater part of the eighteenth century, was completely opposed to the spirit of the Treaty of Limerick. [Ireland.]

Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Story, *Continuation.*

Limerick, Sieges of. This ancient town was long a stronghold of the O'Briens. In 1651 it was taken by Ireton after six months' siege. In 1690 the Irish army defeated at the Boyne assembled behind its ramparts. Lauzun and Tyrconnel refused to defend the place, and retired to Galway. Sarsfield then took the

command, and determined to hold out. The Irish forces left in the place amounted to 20,000 men. William III. was marching against Sarsfield, who, however, setting out with all his cavalry, surprised the English siege train, dispersed the escort, and blew up the guns. The English troops, nevertheless, attempted the siege; on Aug. 27, however, when they tried to storm the place, they were driven back with fearful loss, and, the rains setting in, the king thought it wiser to raise the siege. Limerick continued to be the headquarters of the Irish army; first the Duke of Berwick, then Tyrconnel, after his return from France, being in command. Great scarcity prevailed in the army till St. Ruth arrived with a French fleet in 1691. After the battle of Aghrim, the greater portion of the Irish forces, 15,000 foot and 5,000 horse, again collected in Limerick. D'Usson and Sarsfield were in command. On Aug. 11, 1691, Ginkell appeared before the walls with a formidable train of artillery. The bridge connecting the part of the town situated in Clare with the Connaught part was soon stormed, and the people clamouring for a capitulation, Sarsfield had to negotiate an armistice, and on Oct. 3 the so-called Articles of Limerick, military and civil, were concluded. The capture of Limerick put an end to the civil war in Ireland.

Froude, *Eng. in Ireland*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; *Macariæ Excidium*; Story, *Continuation.*

Lincoln was a Celtic town before the coming of the Romans, and afterwards a Roman colony. The name (Lindum Colonia) is a compound of Celtic and Latin. The Roman colony was founded about A.D. 100. It was besieged by the Angles in 518, and became an English town. It was frequently ravaged by the Danes, and became one of the chief cities of the Danelagh. It was recaptured by Edmund in 1016. The castle was begun by William the Conqueror in 1068. The cathedral was commenced in 1086, and built chiefly in the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth centuries.

Lincoln, The Fair of (1217), was the name given to the battle which was fought in Lincoln during the reign of Henry III., between the Earl of Pembroke and the adherents of Louis of France. The battle was fought in the streets of Lincoln, the castle of which was being besieged by the French. Pembroke was completely victorious, and the leader of the French army, the Count of Perche, fell in the battle.

Lincoln, John de la Pole, Earl of (*d.* 1487), was the son of John de la Pole, Duke of Suffolk, by Elizabeth, eldest sister of Edward IV. On the strength of the attainder of the Duke of Clarence, and the stigma of illegitimacy cast upon Edward IV.'s children, the Earl of Lincoln had cherished hopes of an eventual succession to the crown of England, and was recognised by Richard III. as his lawful successor. The accession, therefore, of Henry VII. to the throne, after the victory of Bosworth, was especially distasteful to him, and he eagerly associated himself with the more active opponents of the new monarch. The imposture of Simnel appeared so peculiarly adapted to further his ambitious projects, that he lost no time in giving it a personal and most energetic support, crossing over himself to Flanders for the purpose of collecting troops and funds. In Ireland, whither he went from Flanders, the Earl of Lincoln met with so enthusiastic a reception that he was encouraged to transport his forces with all speed to England. But he was greeted with indifference when he appeared at Fouldsey, in Lancashire. He pushed rapidly southwards in the direction of Newark, with a mixed force of Irish and English, a regiment of "Almains," 2,000 strong, commanded by Martin Swartz, an officer of considerable reputation. The king's forces advanced against him, and a bloody and obstinate battle was fought at Stoke, near Newark (June 16, 1487), which resulted in the complete defeat of De la Pole's forces, and his own death.

Bacon, *Hist. of Henry VII.*; Gairdner, *Letters and Papers of Henry VII.* (Rolls Series).

Lincolnshire Insurrection, The (1536), commenced in the October of this year, was the first of the rebellious movements set on foot by the priesthood after the dissolution of the lesser monasteries. It differed strikingly from the rising, which immediately followed it, in Yorkshire, in the fact that it proceeded almost entirely from the lower orders. So much aloof, indeed, did the county gentry hold themselves from the Lincolnshire revolt, that the insurgents regarded them as opponents rather than as sympathisers, giving unmistakable evidence of their opinions on the subject by holding a large number of the gentry in a state of siege in the close at Lincoln. The town of Louth was the scene of the first distinct outbreak of local discontent, where the rumour industriously spread about that Heneage, one of the clerical commissioners, who, accompanied by the Bishop of Lincoln's chancellor, was then going his prescribed rounds, had instructions to carry off the more valuable contents of the church treasury, was quite sufficient, in the then state of public feeling, to excite the country people to deeds of violence. Led on by Dr. Mackerel, the Prior of Barlings, who styled himself for that occasion Captain Cobler, the people of Louth locked and guarded the menaced church; and then, carrying away with them its great cross by way of standard, set forth *en masse* to raise the neighbouring towns and villages. The

speedy arrival, however, of the king's troops under Sir John Russell and the Duke of Suffolk prevented any very violent display of hostility, and the rebels contented themselves with sending a humble petition to the king for the redress of their grievances, which they enumerated as coming under five heads, viz. (1) the demolition of the monasteries; (2) the employing persons of mean birth as ministers of the crown; (3) levying subsidies without any adequate occasion; (4) taking away four of the seven sacraments; (5) the subversion of the ancient faith through the instrumentality of several of the bishops. Suffolk, having conferred with some few gentlemen who had joined the insurgent ranks with a view to confusing and counteracting their plans, returned an absolute refusal to these requests, but promised a general pardon from the king in the event of an immediate submission and dispersal of the rebels. This had all the desired effect, and the movement, so far as Lincolnshire was concerned, came to an end on Oct. 19, 1536.

Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Burnet, *Hist. of the Reformation.*

Lindisfaras, The, were an Anglian tribe occupying the part of Lincolnshire, and having their centre about that portion of the county still known as Lindsey.

Lingard, John (*b.* 1771, *d.* 1851), was a native of Winchester. Educated at the English Catholic college at Douay, he was obliged to quit it in 1792, when the college was dispersed at the French Revolution. Some of the refugees founded an academy at Crook Hall, near Durham, and Lingard was appointed vice-president and professor of philosophy. In 1795 he received priest's orders. In 1811 he removed to Hornby in Lancashire, where he lived till his death at an advanced age. Besides numerous tracts and essays, chiefly controversial, Dr. Lingard published in 1806 the *Antiquities of the Anglo-Saxon Church*, and between 1819 and 1830 the eight volumes of his *History of England.* The last named work, which gained for its author great and well-deserved reputation, is one of our standard histories. It extends down to 1688. In reading the later portion, and that which covers the Reformation period, the author's standpoint as a Roman Catholic historian has to be carefully borne in mind. But the general accuracy and impartiality of Lingard have been acknowledged. His facts have been collected with great industry, and are stated with judgment and clearness; and his work is entitled to a high place among the few general histories of England which have been produced by English scholars.

Linlithgow, the chief town of the shire of that name, was occupied by Edward I. in 1298, and soon afterwards was taken by stratagem by Bruce. It contains a royal palace, the birthplace of Mary Queen of Scots (1542), and the scene of the assassination of the Regent Murray (1570).

Lisle, Lady Alicia (*d.* Sept. 2, 1685), was the wife of John Lisle, one of Cromwell's lords. After his death she lived a retired life near Winchester. She was accused before Jeffreys of harbouring fugitives from Sedgemoor. Being reluctantly found guilty by the jury, she was sentenced by Jeffreys to be burned, but her sentence was commuted, and she was beheaded at Winchester.

Litster, John (*d.* 1381), was a native of Norwich, and, as his name implies, a dyer by trade. He headed the insurgents in Norfolk during the peasants' rising of Richard II.'s reign, and assumed the title of King of the Commons. For a short while the whole country was at the mercy of the rebels; but Bishop Spence, of Norwich, having raised a force, defeated the insurgents at North Walsham, and caused Litster to be hanged.

Liverpool, Charles Jenkinson, Earl of (*b.* 1727, *d.* 1808), was educated at the Charterhouse, and at University College, Oxford, and first came into notice by the lampoons which he furnished to Sir Edward Turner in his contest for Oxfordshire. By him he was introduced to Lord Bute, whose private secretary he soon became. In 1761 he was returned to Parliament for Cockermouth, and was made one of the under-secretaries of state. In 1763 he became joint secretary of the Treasury. He was dismissed from all his appointments on the accession of the Rockingham government. Lord Chatham, however, recognising his talents for business, appointed him a lord of the Admiralty in 1766, and he was soon afterwards advanced to be a lord of the Treasury. In this capacity his particular form of ability had room for display, and he soon became an influential authority on all matters of finance. In 1778 he became secretary-at-war, and held that office until he was driven out with Lord North. He then travelled on the Continent, and only returned to England in 1784, joining Pitt's government as president of the Board of Trade, for which place he was admirably adapted by both nature and experience. In 1786 he was appointed chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, and was soon afterwards created Baron Hawkesbury. Ten years later, while still at the head of the Board of Trade, he was raised to the dignity of an earl. As an orator, Lord Liverpool never laid any claim to eminence, and he wisely refrained from speaking in either House except on his own special subject. For that particular department he showed marked ability.

Stanhope, *Life of Pitt*; Jesse, *Mem. of George III.*

Liverpool, Robert Banks Jenkinson, 2nd Earl of (*b.* 1770, *d.* 1828), son of the first earl, was educated at the Charterhouse and Christ Church, Oxford, where he was the contemporary and friend of Canning. He entered political life under Pitt's auspices, and was in Parliament before he had attained his majority. On his father being created Earl of Liverpool, he became, in 1796, Lord Hawkesbury. In the Addington ministry he was Foreign Secretary, and had charge of the negotiations which ended in the Treaty of Amiens; but when Pitt returned to office, in 1804, Lord Hawkesbury went to the Home Office. On Pitt's death, the king earnestly wished him to become Premier, but he very wisely declined the troublesome office, as he did also on the fall of Lord Grenville's ministry, in 1807, contenting himself with being Home Secretary. On Perceval's assassination, he imprudently yielded to the urgency of the Prince Regent, and became Premier. He at once became the object of popular hatred by his opposition to reform, especially in the shape of Catholic Emancipation, and the adoption of arbitrary coercion to suppress the violent discontent, which gathered head during the period of his ministry His unpopularity was still further increased by his introduction of a bill of pains and penalties against Queen Caroline, which he afterwards withdrew. He was struck down by paralysis in 1827, and died after lingering in a state of imbecility for nearly two years. It has been said of him that "in honesty, as a minister, he has never been surpassed; in prejudices, he has rarely been equalled."

Walpole, *England from 1815*; Duke of Buckingham, *Courts and Cabinets of the Regency*; Lord Holland, *Mem. of the Whigs.*

Llewelyn. [Wales.]

Lloyd George, The Right Hon. David (*b.* 1863), was admitted a solicitor in 1884, and later practised in London. He became Member of Parliament for Carnarvon in 1890, and was one of the most effective platform speakers of the Liberals in opposition. In 1905 he was made President of the Board of Trade, and in 1907 he settled an important railway dispute. Later he conciliated the masters and men in the cotton industry. He is responsibie for the Patents Act and a scheme to purchase the docks of London by the State. In 1908 he was made Chancellor of the Exchequer, and in 1909 submitted a much-discussed budget, which differed in many respects from its predecessors in that it aimed at producing an expanding revenue for future years in addition to meeting the requirements of the current year. This budget the House of Lords, in the December of that year, refused to pass before its approval by the country. In the election that took place in January, 1910, Mr. Lloyd George was returned to office.

Local Government Acts. Numerous statutes were passed during the reign of Queen Victoria, giving to certain districts the power of adopting and carrying into effect the provisions of the Public Health Act, without the necessity for a provisional order of the former Board of Health confirmed by Act of Parliament. The important Act of 1888 established county councils [County Court, p. 328].

The Act of 1894 completed that reconstruction of English local government outside the municipal boroughs which was begun in 1888. It made the civil parish the primary unit of local administration, providing that (1) in every parish there should be a parish meeting; (2) in every parish having a population of 300 and upwards there should be a parish council of from five to fifteen members, annually elected, which should appoint the overseers, take over all the secular duties of the vestry and churchwardens in regard to parish charities, etc., and those of the boards of guardians in regard to the sale of parish property and the working of the Allotments Act. It may also provide for water supply and acquire rights of way. It is limited in respect of its rating powers. The power of adopting the "Adoptive Acts" [Rates] rests with the parish meeting exclusively. Parishes with a population of less than 300 may be grouped together under one parish council, or given separate parish councils by an order of the county council. District councils are also established by the Act. They are popularly elected, and replace the rural sanitary authorities in rural districts, and the improvement commissioners or local boards in urban districts, and have also taken over the powers of the highway authorities. The Act also abolishes the plural or property vote in the election of boards of guardians, and *ex-officio* or nominated membership of them.

Local Government Board, The, established in 1871, is a committee of the Privy Council, and superseded the old Poor Law Board. It is concerned with sanitary arrangements, with the public health, with highways, municipal improvements, and the like. Its members are a President, appointed by the crown, the President of the Council, the principal Secretaries of State, the Lord Privy Seal, and the Chancellor of the Exchequer; but it is a Board only in name, and the work is done by the President and his staff. Everything that the Board does is done in his name, and he is responsible to Parliament for all its acts. The functions of the Board are to advise and investigate local questions, and to report on private bills; to control the poor law administration, and less completely that of the Sanitary and Improvement Acts, to sanction loans, and to audit accounts.

The Local Government Board for Scotland consists of the Secretary for Scotland, the Solicitor-General for Scotland, the Permanent Under-Secretary for Scotland, and several appointed members. The powers of the Board, though not so extensive, are somewhat similar to those of the English Local Government Board, and involve a complete control of poor law administration and the poor law authorities, and a supervision of the local government and public health authorities.

The Local Government Board for Ireland is composed of several members of the staff of the Lord-Lieutenant. The duties of the Board are in the main similiar to those of the English and Scottish Boards, but the Lord-Lieutenant exercises certain powers which in England belong to the Local Government Board.

34 & 35 Vict., c. 70; Chalmers, *Local Government* in the *English Citizen Series*.

Locke, John (1632–1704), though of primary importance as a psychologist and metaphysician, wrote political and economic treatises of great historical significance. A student on the foundation of Christ Church, Oxford, he became associated with the first Lord Shaftesbury (q.v.), and was one of his secretaries in 1672–73. For some years he resided on the continent for his health; but being suspected (without good reason) by his colleagues at Christ Church of treasonable designs, he was deprived of his studentship by a royal order in 1684. He retired to Holland soon afterwards, and was included among those English refugees whose surrender was asked for by the English Government from the States-General. He lived in retirement there till 1690, when the Revolution enabled him to return; and from 1695 to 1700 he was one of a commission charged with the function of inquiring into the best means of improving the state of trade and of the colonies, and setting the unemployed to remunerative work. His two *Treatises on Civil Government* (1609) are respectively a refutation of the *Patriarcha* of Sir Filmer (q.v.), and a statement of the theory on which the Revolution and the Act of Settlement were justified—viz. that civil society arises out of a contract between individuals to set up a government and transfer to it their own right of self-defence, on condition that its powers shall only be used for the general welfare, and that the transfer implies a contract, "the original contract between king and people," which the people can declare void if the head of the State violates it. His *Letters on Toleration* (1687 and 1690) urged that the civil authority should check the profession only of such creeds as were dangerous to the state. His *Considerations on Raising the Value of Money* had great influence in forwarding the reform of the currency on sound principles in 1695. Though he was a sincere Christian, his philosophical and religious teaching to some extent exhibits the Rationalistic tendencies which afterwards culminated in English Deism.

There are standard biographies of Locke by Lord King and Mr. Fox-Burne, and a sketch of his life and writings in Prof. Fowler's *Locke* ("English Men of Letters" Series).

Loidas was a small British kingdom, comprising Leeds and the district immediately round. It retained its independence till it was annexed to Northumbria by Edwin.

Lollards, The, is the name given to the followers of Wycliffe, though the derivation of it is somewhat doubtful. The generally received etymology is from a German word, *lollen*, to sing, from their habit of singing hymns, but it has also been derived from *lolia*, tares, and from the old English word, *loller*, an idler. Wycliffe himself organised no band of followers, but only sent out preachers known as "Poor Priests," who at first seem to have recognised him as their head, though before long all kinds of men joined the new movement, from the sincere honest reformer to the wild socialist visionary. That Lollardy was one of the chief causes of the Peasant Revolt of 1381 is certain, and it must always be remembered that the Lollards were quite as much a social as a religious party. The doctrines which Wycliffe had advanced as philosophical positions were put into practice, and in many instances pushed to an extreme which must have astonished their author himself. The rising of the villeins showed what Lollardy might become if left unchecked, and as usual, the more moderate men were made to suffer for the errors and crimes of the extreme section of their party. The first Act against the Lollards was passed in 1381, but was merely the work of the Lords and the king. By this statute all Lollards were to be arrested and held in strong prisons till they should justify themselves according to the law and reason of Holy Church. In 1382, and again in 1394, the Lollards addressed a remonstrance to Parliament, in which, among other points, they asserted that no civil lord or bishop had any power so long as he was in mortal sin, and that human laws not founded on the Scriptures ought not to be obeyed. Still there was very little persecution, and it was not till 1401 that the Act *De Hæretico Comburendo* was passed, and even after the passing of that statute, and notwithstanding the close alliance between the Lancastrian dynasty and the Church, only two persons were executed for heresy in Henry IV.'s reign, though the Lollards boasted that they numbered 100,000. It is probable that they intended a rising under the leadership of Sir John Oldcastle, at the beginning of Henry V.'s reign, but the vigilance of the government prevented it, and for complicity in the projected revolt some forty persons were put to death. In 1414 an Act was passed extending

the provisions of the *De Hæretico Comburendo* statute, and several Lollards were executed in the early years of Henry VI.'s reign. By the time of Jack Cade's rebellion (1450), the old Lollard idea seems to have died out, as in the complaints of the insurgents at that time we do not find any mention of religious grievances. The success of Lollardy as a popular movement was due to the general discontent which prevailed at the end of the fourteenth century, while the corruptions of the Church gave it a great stimulus. But the gradual emancipation of the villeins prevented its continuance, and the want of any great leader was sufficient to prevent the union of the various bodies of religious, social, and political malcontents.

Wright, *Political Songs* (Rolls Series); Pauli, *Englische Geschichte*; Wallon, *Richard II.*; Lewis, *Life of Wiclif*; Shirley, Pref. to *Fasciculi Zizaniorum* (Rolls Series); Brougham, *Eng. under the House of Lancaster.* [F. S. P.]

London. Most authorities think the name is Celtic, and points to the existence of an early Celtic city; though some modern inquirers think it may be Teutonic. For nearly four centuries (43—409) London was a Roman settlement, covering the mouth of the Thames, which was not then far off. The Roman city was not large, and lay probably between Cheapside, Ludgate, and the river. After the expulsion of the Romans, it may have remained desolate for a time. In 604, however, Bede tells us it was the capital of the East Saxons, and an important trading town; and in this year Ethelbert gave it as a see to the Bishop Mellitus, consecrated by Augustine. A church dedicated to St. Paul was also built at or near the present site. In 851 London was occupied and plundered by the Danes. In the various Danish invasions the citizens of London always held out stoutly. It was the Witan at London who, in 1016, elected Edmund Ironside king, though the Witan outside had chosen Canute. The abbey of Westminster was built by Edward the Confessor, and in the times of the last two or three Anglo-Saxon kings, London was recognised as the capital or, at least, the most important place in the kingdom. William the Conqueror began the building of the Tower, and granted a charter to the Londoners, confirming them in all the rights they had held in King Edward's days. Numerous churches and monasteries were built during the Early Norman period; and in 1083 the re-building of the cathedral of St. Paul's was begun. In 1100 Henry I. issued a charter to London, which marked an important step in the development of local self-government. In the war between Stephen and the Empress Maud the Londoners were strongly on the side of the former. In 1176 a stone bridge over the Thames was commenced. In 1191 London was recognised as a communa or fully organised corporation. In the reign of John the barons were much assisted by the Londoners in the contest with the king, and in the Magna Charta it was provided that London should have its ancient rights and customs. A charter of John had previously given them the right of electing their mayor. In the Barons' War of the thirteenth century London sided with the barons. An important feature in the fourteenth century history of London was the struggle for power of the craft guilds, and their ultimate victory over the merchant guild. In 1327 Edward III. granted it a new charter. In 1392 the Londoners refused a loan to Richard II., and were deprived of their charters, which, however, were restored soon after. During the Wars of the Roses the Londoners were generally Yorkist, and Edward IV. was always strongly supported in the capital. In the Civil War of the seventeenth century London was the centre of Presbyterianism and of opposition to the king at the beginning of the war, and to the army afterwards. It was occupied by the army in 1648, and by Monk in Feb., 1660. In 1665 London was ravaged by the Great Plague, and the following year (Sept. 2—6, 1666) a large part of the city was destroyed by the great fire. The rebuilding was begun immediately, and Sir Christopher Wren was employed to build a new St. Paul's, and many other churches, on the old sites. In James II's reign London violently opposed the Romanist tendencies of the king. Its charters had already been seized (Jan., 1683), and violent riots occurred towards the close of the king's reign (Oct., 1688). The charters were restored Oct. 8. In the eighteenth century London was the headquarters of advanced Whig principles. Serious riots occurred owing to the arrest of Wilkes (June, 1768). In 1780 London was distracted by the Lord George Gordon riots (q.v.). During the nineteenth century the most remarkable circumstance about London was its growth, which has caused it to extend far into the counties of Middlesex, Surrey, Kent, and Essex. The Municipal Reform Act of 1835 did not apply to London, which down to 1900 was governed by upwards of a hundred local bodies. In that year the administrative county of London (exclusive of the City) was divided into twenty-eight municipal boroughs, each with mayor, aldermen, and councillors. In 1855 a body called the Metropolitan Board of Works was created to supervise the general sanitary affairs of the metropolis, and this has has been superseded by the London County Council, which came into being in January, 1889, and, unlike the Board of Works, is elected directly by the ratepayers. In 1894 a Royal Commission reported in favour of the unification of London government.

Stowe, *Survey of London* (1598), continued by J. Strype (1754); Entick's ed. of Maitland, *Hist. of London* (2 vols., 1775); Pennant, *London* (1790); J. T. Smith, *Antiquities of London*, 1791;

T. Allen, *Hist. and Antiquities of London* (1827—29); P. Cunningham, *Handbook for London*; J. Timbs, *Curiosities of London*; D. Lysons, *Environs of London*; C. Roach Smith, *Roman London*; *Cassell's Old and New London*; Loftie, *A History of London* (1883).

London, The Convention of (Oct. 22, 1832), was concluded between England and France, for the purpose of coercing Holland. It declared that unless Holland withdrew all her troops from Belgian territory by Nov. 12, 1832, the two powers would place an embargo on all Dutch shipping in their ports, would station a squadron on its coasts, would move a French army into Belgium, and would drive the Dutch garrison from the citadel of Antwerp.

——, The Treaty of (July 6, 1827), was concluded between England, France, and Russia; and was signed by Lord Dudley, the Duke of Polignac, and Count Lieven. Its provisions were that self-government under Turkey, but saddled with a tribute, should be given to Greece; that none of the parties to the treaty desired territorial acquisitions or commercial advantages. There were also secret articles which stipulated that if the intervention were rejected, more stringent means must be adopted to oblige its acceptance both by one party and the other, and that it would be necessary to show countenance to Greece, by acknowledging her as a belligerent power, and establishing consuls at her ports; that a month was to be given to the Porte for consideration, and that if she refused the armistice, the allied fleets were to unite, and intercept all ships freighted with men or arms, destined to act against the Greeks, whether from Turkey or Egypt; that at the same time all hostilities were to be carefully avoided.

——, The Treaty of (Nov. 15, 1831), was concluded between the five powers for the settlement of the Belgian question. It prescribed that the western part of Luxemburg should be given to Belgium, the rest remaining part of the Germanic Empire, and that Holland should have as an indemnity the eastern part of Limburg; that each country should bear its own debt before the union, and share the liabilities contracted since; that Belgium should have a right of way through Maestricht, and the free navigation of the Scheldt and all waters between it and the Rhine. This treaty fell through at the conferences held in London, but was eventually carried out by force after the capitulation of Antwerp.

——, The Treaty of (1832), was a convention between France, England, and Russia on the one hand, and Bavaria on the other. The crown of Greece, now made a kingdom, was offered, with the authorisation of the Greek nation, to the King of Bavaria, to be worn by his second son, Frederick Otho, and was accepted. The limits of the kingdom were to be fixed by treaty with Turkey, according to a protocol of Sept. 26, 1831. A loan to the King of Greece was guaranteed by Russia, and if the consent of the Chambers and of the Parliament could be obtained, by France and England.

——, The Treaty of (1841), was concluded between England, France, Prussia, Russia, Austria, and Turkey, at the conclusion of the attempts of Mehemet Ali on Egypt. It provided that for the future the Sultan would not allow any foreign ships of war to enter the straits of the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles in times of peace, and that no navy might enter them, without his consent, in times of war. It also confirmed the Quadrilateral Treaty, 1840, which had limited Mehemet Ali of Egypt to Egypt and Acre.

——, The Treaty of (1847), was concluded between the representatives of England, France, Spain, and Portugal, for the purpose of averting the Portuguese insurrection.

——, The Treaty of (Mar. 13, 1871). By the Treaty of Paris, in 1856, at the close of the Crimean War, the Black Sea was neutralised, and Russia resigned the right of keeping armed vessels on its waters, with the exception of a few small ones for police purposes. In October, 1870, Russia suddenly "denounced" the neutralisation clauses of the treaty. France and Germany being at that time at war, the Western Powers thought it advisable to accede to the demand. A Conference assembled at London (January, 1871), attended by representatives of the signatory powers of 1856, and the Treaty of London (March 13) de-neutralised the Black Sea.

London Company, The, formed 1606, obtained a charter from James I. to colonise Virginia: they were to have the southern half of the territories between the thirty-fourth and forty-fifth degrees. The government of the new colony was to be vested in a council resident in England, appointed by the king, another council in the colony being charged with the duties of administration. In 1609 a new charter was obtained, vesting the appointment of the council in the shareholders, and of the governor in the council. In 1625, the company, which had been commercially a failure, was dissolved.

London, Richard of, was the author of a history of Richard I.'s Crusade. This *Chronicle* (which has been erroneously attributed to Geoffrey Vinsauf) is printed in the Rolls Series; there is also a translation of it in Bohn's *Antiquarian Library*.

Londonderry. The town of Derry, in Ulster, was the seat of a monastery founded in 546. It was made a bishopric in 1158. During Tyrone's rebellion of 1566 it was garrisoned by the English. It was surprised by Hugh O'Neil, and burnt to the ground during his rebellion (1608). The corporation of London rebuilt it, getting a grant of the town and 6,000 acres adjoining (1613—1630). In the rebellion of 1646 it held out against the insurgents, though, in 1649, it was only

owing to Owen Roe O'Neil's assistance that it was able to do so. In December, 1688, Lord Antrim, with a regiment of 1,200 men, was sent by James II. to garrison the town. Though the corporation and bishop were willing to admit them, thirteen young apprentices closed the gates before the eyes of the troops, and they had to retire. The citizens, however, were induced to admit a small Protestant garrison, under Lieut.-Colonel Lundy. That officer was, however, unable to prevent the proclamation of William and Mary in 1689. By this time some 30,000 Protestants of Ulster had fled there for refuge. Lundy also sent to James, who was now (April, 1689) approaching, and promised to surrender. But when James himself, on April 17th, had got to within a hundred yards of the gate, the inhabitants rose, and shouting "No surrender!" manned the walls, James and his escort fled for their lives. Lundy was now deposed, and in the night fled from the town. Major Henry Baker and Mr. George Walker, a Protestant clergyman, were appointed governors. Presbyterians and Anglicans uniting heartily against the common foe, 7,000 men were soon under arms. On the 19th all terms were finally refused, and the siege began. It was destined to last for 105 days—till July 30. In order to prevent any help reaching the town from the sea, a boom was placed by the besiegers at the mouth of the river leading into Lough Foyle, and batteries were erected to protect it. At last, on June 15, Kirke was sent by William to try and raise the siege. He, however, hesitated for some time to force his way through the works of the besiegers. Meanwhile the town was in a state of famine, and its surrender was a question of days. Baker, one of the governors, had died. Then at last Kirke, having received positive orders to force the boom on July 30, sent off the *Dartmouth* frigate, with two transports laden with provisions, with this purpose. They succeeded without much difficulty, and by ten in the evening the town was saved. On August 1 the besiegers withdrew after burning their camp. The garrison had been reduced by famine and by the sword to 3,000 men; the loss of the besiegers is said to have exceeded 5,000 men. Macaulay calls the siege "the most memorable in the annals of the British Isles."

Walker, *True Account of the Siege of Londonderry* (1689); *London Gazette*, 1689; *The Londoniad*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*

Londonderry, Robert Stewart, Viscount, Earl of (*b.* 1769, *d.* 1822), the son of the first Marquis of Londonderry, was born in Ireland, and received his education at Armagh and at St. John's College, Cambridge. On coming of age, he stood for the county of Down, and was returned at a cost of £30,000, and on the strength of a pledge to support the claims of the Catholics to be represented in Parliament. At first he showed himself a good friend to Ireland, and in fact made his maiden speech on behalf of Ireland's right to trade with India in spite of the Company's monopoly. The Whigs welcomed the new member as a valuable addition to their party; but he showed his true colours when, on the recall of Lord Fitz-William, he supported the coercive measures of the government. In 1798 he was rewarded by being appointed Chief Secretary for Ireland, and in that capacity he was a warm advocate of the Union. When that object was consummated, Lord Castlereagh sat in the united Parliament as M.P. for Down county, and was appointed by Pitt President of the Board of Control. He did not, however, follow his patron out of office, but continued to hold the same post under Addington. When Pitt again came in, he was further advanced to the position of Secretary at War, which he resigned on Pitt's death, and which he again obtained on the fall of Grenville's government in 1807. By the expedition to Walcheren, which was undertaken at his advice and under his management, he became most unpopular with the nation, nor had his own colleagues a much higher opinion of him. Canning especially conceived an utter contempt for the War Secretary, and insisted on his being dismissed to give way to the Marquis Wellesley. Lord Castlereagh took Canning's action in very bad part, said he had been deceived, and challenged his opponent to a duel, in which Canning was badly wounded. The result of this encounter was the resignation of both of them. Lord Castlereagh remained unemployed until in 1812 he was appointed Foreign Secretary, in which office he remained during the rest of his life, though virtually Prime Minister. In Dec., 1813, he went to the Continent as plenipotentiary to negotiate a general peace. The overtures, however, came to nothing. Castlereagh returned, to again act as English minister at the Congress of Vienna. His conduct there has been often condemned, by no one with greater severity than by Napoleon, who attributed all the miseries of England to his imbecility and ignorance, and to his general inattention to the real prosperity of his country. His unpopularity was increased by his behaviour on the Continent, and was not in any way softened down by the vote of thanks with which Parliament rewarded him for negotiating a peace which was made regardless of the interests of the nation. In 1816 the first murmurs were heard in Parliament against the Holy Alliance of Russia, Austria, and Prussia. This confederation received the support of Lord Castlereagh, who thereby brought upon himself the almost unanimous attacks of the whole House. In 1822 he was much worn out by the labours of a more than usually severe session; his mind gave way beneath

the strain, and on Aug. 9 he put an end to his existence.

Castlereagh Correspondence; Walpole, *Hist. of Eng. since 1815; Waterloo Despatches;* Cunningham, *Eminent Englishmen.*

[W. R. S.]

Long, Thomas, "a very indiscrete and unmete man," bribed the electors of the borough of Westbury with £4 to return him to the Parliament of 1571. A fine was inflicted by the House on the borough; but Long, who is described as "a very simple man and of small capacity to serve in that place," does not seem to have been punished.

Long Parliament, The. This name is that which has been commonly applied to the Parliament which met on Nov. 3, 1640. Out of a total of 493 members, 294 had sat in the "Short Parliament" of the previous April. They came together now with the determination to remove all grievances, and "pull up the causes of them by the roots." The first few months were occupied by the trial of Strafford and the impeachment of Laud and other delinquents. The attempt which was made to use the army to save Strafford caused an appeal to the people called the Protestation, and was followed by a bill preventing the king from dissolving the present Parliament. The meeting of future Parliaments had already been secured by the Triennial Bill (Feb. 10, 1641). The Star Chamber, and other special courts were abolished, and by the votes on ship-money, and the Tonnage and Poundage Bill, the levy of taxes without consent of Parliament was made impossible. On these purely political questions Parliament was united, and its work was permanent, and became part of the constitution. But on ecclesiastical questions a division arose which made the Civil War possible. One party wished to abolish the bishops, the other merely to limit their power, but Presbyterians and Episcopalians both strove to realise their ideal of a church, and neither were prepared to accept the solution of toleration. The Episcopalian party under the leadership of Hyde and Falkland rallied round the king, and formed a constitutional Royalist party. One bill for removing the bishops from the House of Lords had been rejected by the Lords in June. A second bill for the same purpose was sent up from the Commons at the end of October (1641), and a protest on the part of twelve bishops that Parliament was not free, directed against the mobs which flocked to Westminster, was used to suspend them from sitting, and commit them to custody. At the same time the Commons, by the Grand Remonstrance, passed a vote of no confidence in the king, and appealed to the people for support. The king replied by impeaching and attempting to arrest six of the Parliamentary leaders (Jan. 5, 1642), but this only brought about the closer union of the two Houses. The House of Lords passed the Bishops Exclusion Bill, and united with the Commons in the demand that the king should entrust the command of the militia and fortresses to persons in whom they could confide (Feb. 1, 1642). The king's attempt to get possession of Hull (April 23), the intolerant treatment of the Kentish petitioners by the House of Commons (March 28), embittered the quarrel. Parliament summed up the guarantees it demanded in the Nineteen Propositions (June 2), and after their refusal by the king prepared for war. The Parliament put in force its ordinance among the militia, and the king his commissions of array. So the Civil War began even before the king set up his standard at Nottingham. Some thirty or forty peers took part for the Parliament, and about sixty sided with the king. Of the House of Commons less than a hundred at first joined the king, and though their number increased in the next two years it never reached two hundred. Parliament entrusted the conduct of the war to a Committee of Safety of ten commoners and five lords sitting at Derby House. It also commenced the nomination of an assembly of divines to be consulted on the proposed ecclesiastical reforms. The ill-success of the first year's war led to the formation of a peace party, and negotiations were opened at Oxford in March, 1643; but an agreement proved impossible. Again in August the House of Lords brought forward a number of peace propositions, which passed the Commons by a small majority, but the tumults which the news of these terms caused in the city obliged Parliament to abandon them (Aug. 7). The Parliamentary leaders turned to Scotland for aid, and in September the Parliament signed the Solemn League and Covenant as the price of a Scotch army. Representatives of Scotland entered the Committee of Safety (which now took the name of the Committee of the Two Kingdoms), and joined the English divines in the Westminster Assembly. In spite of their reverses the Parliamentary leaders remained firm, and refused to treat as equals with the assembly of Royalist members which the king gathered round him at Oxford, and dignified with the name of a Parliament (Feb. to April, 1644). In the spring of 1645 the position of the Parliament was entirely altered by the Self-denying Ordinance, which obliged all members of either House holding military commands to resign them, whilst at the same time the reorganisation of the army produced what soon claimed to be a rival authority (April, 1645). During the autumn of 1645, and the course of 1646 the composition of the House of Commons was seriously changed by the election of 230 new members to supply the place of those who had deserted or been expelled. Thus a strong Independent party was formed in the

House sympathising with the army outside. The vain negotiations carried on with the king during the winter of 1645—46, and during his presence in the Scottish camp, ended in January, 1647, with his delivery to the commissioners of the Parliament. Whilst the king still delayed to come to terms with the Presbyterian majority in Parliament, the conflict between the army and that assembly broke out. The army demanded its arrears of pay before it disbanded, toleration for its religious views, and a voice in the settlement of the country. It required also the suspension of eleven leading Presbyterian members charged with causing the misunderstanding between the Parliament and the army. The eleven members withdrew voluntarily to save the dignity of the House (June 26), but a few weeks later a riot took place, and the Londoners restored the eleven members to their seats. Indignant at mob-dictation the Speaker, with 100 member of the Lower House, and fourteen of the Upper, took refuge with the army (Aug. 3). The soldiers occupied London, and the eleven members fled or were impeached. Seven of the Lords shared the same fate, and a large number of Presbyterians seceded from the House. Thus the army secured in Parliament a majority favourable to its own views, which, after the king had refused to accept the Four Bills in which the terms of peace were comprised, declared that no more addresses should be made to him (Jan. 3, 1648). Three months later the second Civil War began, the seceding members took advantage of it to return to their places, the eleven members were recalled, a persecuting ordinance was passed against Sectarians, and negotiations re-opened with the king. On Dec. 5 the House, by 129 to 83, voted that the king's answers were sufficient ground to proceed upon for the settlement of the kingdom. A second time the army interfered to put an end to Presbyterian rule, and prevent an unsatisfactory settlement. On Dec. 6 and 7 a couple of regiments, directed by Colonel Pride, surrounded the House, excluded ninety-six of the leading Presbyterians, and arrested forty-seven others. The attendance in the House of Lords dwindled to six or seven, that in the Commons to less than sixty members, but the remainder were all bound to work in accordance with the army. On Jan. 1, 1649, the Commons passed a resolution defining it as treason for the king to levy war against the Parliament and kingdom, and an ordinance appointing a High Court of Justice to try Charles. The king's trial lasted from Jan. 20 to 27, and his execution took place on the 29th. On Feb. 6 the Commons proceeded to vote that "the House of Peers in Parliament is useless, dangerous, and ought to be abolished." The next day they resolved "that it hath been found by experience, and that this House doth declare that the office of the king in this realm, and to have the power thereof in any single person is unnecessary, burdensome, and dangerous to the liberty, safety, and public interest of this nation, and therefore ought to be abolished." These resolutions were followed by Acts giving effect to them, and crowned on May 19 by an Act declaring and constituting the people of England to be a Commonwealth and free State. At the same time a resolution was passed to consider the constitution of future Parliaments, and this question occupied the House more or less for the next six years. The executive power was in the hands of the Council of State containing all the important members of Parliament, but the committees of the House, and the House itself, still retained great power. After the consolidation of the republic by Cromwell's victories, the members present in the House increased considerably, rising on some occasions in 1652—53 to as many as 120 members. After Worcester, Cromwell succeeded in persuading the House to fix Nov., 1654, as the period of their own dissolution, and urged on the question of the Reform Bill. But when he found that the bill they proposed would perpetuate the powers of the Rump, as it was called, by providing that they should keep their places without re-election, and be sole judges of the election of new members, he endeavoured to stop the progress of the measure by a private arrangement. When that failed, he expelled them from the House by force (April 20). They did not re-assemble till six years later, when the republicans, who had allied themselves with the army to overthrow Richard Cromwell, procured the Restoration of the Rump (May 8, 1659). The members expelled as Royalists, and those excluded by Pride's Purge were still, in spite of their protests, kept out of the House. This assembly consisted of sixty or seventy members, and continued to sit till Oct. 13, when it was expelled by Lambert in consequence of the attempt to exercise control over the army. On Dec. 26 it was restored again in consequence of the divisions in the army, and the advance of Monk. Monk entered London on Feb. 3, 1660, just as the Rump was preparing to carry out the scheme for enlarging its numbers, frustrated by Cromwell in 1653. After a moment's hesitation, the resistance of the city emboldened him to declare for a free Parliament (Feb. 10), and to reinstate the members excluded (Feb. 21). According to their agreement with Monk, these members resolved that a new Parliament should be summoned (Feb. 22), and proceeded to pass a bill summoning it for April 25, and dissolving themselves. The last sitting of the Long Parliament took place on March 16, 1660. The Restoration swept away most of its work, but the abolition of the Extraordinary Courts, and of the king's claim to levy taxes without Parliamentary consent, were

solid and lasting gains. Two of its later measures also, the institution of an excise (1643), and the abolition of feudal tenures (1646), were maintained and re-enacted.

Rushworth, *Historical Collections; Journals of the House of Lords and House of Commons;* Sir Ralph Verney, *Diary* (Camden Soc.); Sir John Northcote, *Diary;* May, *Hist. of the Long Parliament;* Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion;* Forster, *Five Members* and *Grand Remonstrance;* Carlyle, *Cromwell;* Sanford, *Studies of the Great Rebellion.* Gardiner, in various works, and Masson, *Life of Milton*, give the best accounts of the Long Parliament's existence. Lists of its members are given by Carlyle, Sanford, and Masson. Mr. Gardiner supplies an electoral map of England in 1642, showing the local distribution of parties.

[C. H. F.]

Longchamp, William de (*d.* 1197), was a Norman of low origin, who had managed to ingratiate himself with Richard I. before his father's death. On his patron's accession to the throne Longchamp was at once made Bishop of Ely, and on the death of Geoffrey de Mandeville he was, in 1190, appointed co-Justiciar of England with Hugh de Pudsey, while, to add to his greatness, he was in the next year, made papal legate. He very soon quarrelled with Hugh, and got the whole power into his own hands. His conduct to Geoffrey, Archbishop of York, and his oppressive taxation, combined with a haughty demeanour and unpopular manners, brought great odium upon him, and, despite his loyal support of Richard's interests against the treasonable pretensions of John, he was, in 1191, removed from his office, and compelled to return to Normandy, where he consoled himself by excommunicating his enemies. He was the first to find out where the king was imprisoned, and assisted in raising his ransom. On Richard's release Longchamp returned to England, and was made Chancellor, which office he seems to have held till his death. Longchamp's character was a curious mixture. "He was," says Dr. Stubbs, "very ambitious for himself and his relations, very arrogant, priding himself on his Norman blood, but laughed at as a *parvenu* by the Norman nobles, disliking and showing contempt in the coarsest way for the English, whose language he would not speak, and declared that he did not understand."

Hoveden, *Chronicle* (Rolls Series); Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*

Longsword (or, Longespée), William (*b.* 1196, *d.* 1226), was the natural son of Henry II., by Rosamond Clifford. He married Ella, heiress of the Earl of Salisbury, and received the title of Earl of Salisbury himself. He fought with Richard in the Crusades, assisted John against the barons and the French king, and was taken prisoner in the battle of Bouvines. On his release in 1219 he again went on Crusade.

Longsword (or, Longespée), William, was the son of the above, whom he succeeded in the earldom of Salisbury. For some unknown reason he did not receive his father's earldom, and joined Richard of Cornwall's Crusade in 1240. In 1247 he again took the cross, and went with St. Louis on his expedition to Egypt, where he was slain, in 1250, at the battle of Mansourah.

Loose-coat Field, The Battle of (1470), was the name given to a battle fought near Stamford between the royal forces and the Lincolnshire insurgents under Sir Richard Wells. The royal troops were victorious, and the rebels, in their anxiety to escape, threw off their coats, whence the battle got its name.

Lopes, Sir Manasseh, was a baronet of Jewish extraction, who was elected for Barnstaple (1820). The election, however, was petitioned against on the ground of gross bribery. The committee found that he had expended £3,000 on the election; that out of three hundred resident electors sixty-six had received £5 each; and that the out-voters had been given £20 a-piece. The House of Commons thereupon unseated Sir Manasseh. He was, however, indicted the same year for bribery at a previous election at Grampound. The case was tried at Exeter, and it was found that Sir Manasseh had regularly bargained with one of the electors to be returned for the borough for the sum of £2,000, which was, of course, distributed among the voters. He was sentenced to pay a fine of £10,000, and to be imprisoned for two years.

Lopez, Dr. Roderigo (*d.* 1594), a Jew in the service of Elizabeth, was charged by the Earl of Essex with being in the pay of Spain. He was acquitted once, but Essex pursued his investigations, and obtained his conviction on the evidence of two Portuguese, and he was executed. It must still remain a question whether Lopez was really guilty.

Lord Collingwood, The (1821—22). In 1821 a Spanish cruiser captured a British merchant vessel, the *Lord Collingwood*, and had her condemned in the Spanish courts on the ground that she was found trading with Buenos Ayres, one of their revolted colonies, which had already practically obtained independence. The owners complained to their government, and the latter remonstrated at Madrid. In October, 1822, Canning succeeded Lord Castlereagh at the Foreign Office, and immediately sent a firm note to the Spanish government. The latter was now informed that England would take steps to secure her commerce, and that for this purpose a squadron would be ordered to Cuba to destroy the strongholds of these pirates. The Spanish government, who depended on England at the Congress of Verona, at once gave way. A decree was issued recognising the right of other governments to trade with their

former colonies, and large compensation was awarded to the plundered British merchants.

Lords of the Isles. [ISLES, LORDS OF THE.]

Lords, HOUSE OF. The existing constitution of the Lords as an estate of the realm and of Parliament dates from the thirteenth century. At that time their status, their single essential qualification, and their office in the State were finally fixed, and their order received that impress which has ever since distinguished it from the rest of the community. But the Lords may be traced in an unbroken descent to the *Witenagemot*, which indeed in character and function they still resemble. They are in theory the noble and wise of the kingdom, are counsellors of the sovereign, are legislators in a personal or official capacity, and are an august court of justice. The Conquest converted the *Witenagemot* into a general gathering of feudatories holding their lands immediately from the king, and thus brought the institution a step nearer to its modern character. This, however, was a large and unwieldy body; a process of selection set in, and in time the tenants-in-chief of larger holdings were recognised as a special class more closely attached to the king, and entitled to certain peculiar marks of consideration, of which the personal summons addressed to them by the king when their services were required was the most significant. The final stage of their development was reached when this personal summons had given the person summoned and his heirs a distinctive title to an irrevocable place in the order, independent of any other qualification whatever. Neither tenure of land nor nobility of birth, however extensive the one or unblemished the other, now availed to bestow rank in the favoured class, though the vast majority were great feudal landowners and of noble birth; it was henceforward simply the will of the sovereign, expressed at first in a personal writ of summons, that alone had this virtue. And this writ afterwards was taken to have such efficacy as to extend the rights and functions that were its outcome to the representatives of the person to whom it had originally been sent, for ever. Later on, however, patent took its place as the regular manner of expressing the will of the sovereign in the creation of a peer. Thus the historic House of Lords was developed, consisting "of the hereditary counsellors of the crown, the right to give counsel being involved at one time in the tenure of land, at another in the fact of summons, at another in the terms of a patent. . . . . The nobleman is the person who, for his life, holds the hereditary office denoted or implied in the title." (Stubbs.) But the position had no legal value for any but the actual holder; all his children were commoners. These formed the lay element in the Lords when the Parliamentary system split into separately-acting Houses; and with them were associated as a spiritual element the archbishops, bishops, and summoned abbots and priors. These were included in the baronial body, either because they held their lands on the baronial tenure, or from the reverence naturally due to their offices and learning. Since the falling away of the clerical estate from Parliament, these spiritual peers have been its only representatives in the legislature. Among the members of this composite body there were several degrees of title and honorary rank, but equal rights and powers. The judges also were called to the assembly, but never became full peers; it was their part to guide it by their counsel, not to vote. The House has still a right to their advice.

During mediæval times the Lords were the more powerful division of Parliament, and generally took the lead in, and directed all constitutional struggles. They were the one effective check on the will of the king, and could carry most points that they deemed vital. Yet their numbers dwindled. The decrease was entirely among the abbots and friars; these soon sank from eighty to twenty-seven, while the bishops were constant at twenty, and the temporal lords never varied much from fifty. It was in Henry VI.'s reign that the practice of making peers of any dignity by patent, hitherto occasionally used, became general. The Wars of the Roses, by thinning the ranks, greatly diminished the political weight of the Lords; and their order was of comparatively small account in Tudor times. And the fall of the monasteries struck nearly thirty peers off their roll at a time when it contained barely ninety names in all. But fifty temporal peers were summoned to the last Parliament of Elizabeth. The rule of the Stuarts added to both their numbers and consideration, though the advancing pretensions of the Commons checked the growth of the latter. More than 120 temporal lords sat in the Long Parliament, of whom a third took the Roundhead side in the great conflict. Between the Restoration and the union with Scotland, their history is marked by many disputes with the Commons, and a small increase in numbers and importance. In Charles II.'s reign they established their right to act as a supreme court of appeal in all civil causes, though they had to abandon their claim to any kind of original jurisdiction. Their judicial function, which they inherit from the old *concilium regis*, involved them in an embittered quarrel with the Commons in Anne's reign, when a disputed question regarding the rights of electors at Aylesbury, came before them for a final decision. In 1707 the union with Scotland added sixteen representative temporal peers to their numbers, in 1801 that with Ireland twenty-four temporal and four spiritual, which last, however, have since been taken away by the Irish

Church Act. They escaped a great danger by the failure of the Peerage Bill in 1719, which would have limited their numbers to about 200, and thus kindled against them vehement envy and jealousy. Their political importance reached its highest point in the 18th century, in the last years of which they began to increase rapidly by new creations. This expansion has gone on steadily since; they are now ten times as numerous as they were under the Tudors. The Lords cannot originate money bills; but the members of their House can record their protest and its grounds against any measure they dislike, and in 1909 they refused to pass the budget before it had been submitted for approval to the country. Lately the crown was given power to create a few life-peerages to strengthen the legal element in the House. Lord Rosebery has prominently identified himself with the movement for reforming the Upper House.

The Lords' Report on the Dignity of a Peer; Courthope, *Historic Peerage*; May, *Practical Treatise*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*

[J. R.]

Lovat, Simon Fraser, Lord (*b. circa* 1676, *d.* 1747), was the second son of Thos. Fraser, fourth son of Hugh, ninth Lord Lovat. Invested with the family estates for supporting the Government in the rebellion of 1717, he in 1745 sent forth his clan to fight for the Pretender, while himself posing as a loyal subject. For this treachery he was beheaded.

Lovel, Francis, Viscount (*d.* 1487 ?), was one of Richard III.'s chief favourites and advisers, and was made Constable of the Household. He fought in the battle of Bosworth, supported the claims of Lambert Simnel, and fought also in the battle of Stoke in 1487, where he was supposed to have been slain. But the discovery of a skeleton in a secret chamber at Minster Lovel makes it probable that he escaped to his house, where he died, perhaps of starvation.

Bacon, *Hist. of Henry VII.*; Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.*

Lowe, Robert, Viscount Sherbrooke (1811–92), was educated at Winchester, and University College, Oxford. He became M.P. for Kidderminster in 1852, and vice-president of the Board of Trade in 1855, and was vice-president of the Committee of Council on Education from 1859 to 1864. In this capacity he was instrumental in establishing the Revised Code [Education, p. 407]. In 1866 he headed the "Adullamite" schism in the Liberal party. Later he was elected Member for the University of London, and became chancellor of the exchequer in the Liberal Ministry of 1868. Here he made considerable reforms of and reductions in taxation; but his proposal for a match-tax (1871) excited violent hostility, and was abandoned. He was home secretary 1873–74; but after 1876, partly through failure of his sight, he practically retired into private life. After the general election of 1880 he was created Viscount Sherbrooke.

Lucius (or Lud), King (*d. circa* 180 ?), is said to have sent an embassy to Rome during the papacy of Eleutherius, entreating that he might be made a Christian. He is described as King of the Britons, and it is said that through him Britain received the faith. The earliest mention of Lucius is in the second *Catalogue of Roman Bishops*, which was probably compiled about A.D. 420.

Bede, *Ecclesiastical Hist.*; Bright, *Early Eng. Church Hist.*

Lucknow, The Defence of (1857), was one of the most remarkable episodes in the Indian Mutiny. Owing to the foresight of Sir Henry Lawrence, the Residency at Lucknow was armed and provisioned to stand a siege. On July 1 the enemy appeared before Lucknow, and the English withdrew to the Residency. On July 2 they lost their gallant leader. For three months, however, they held out. At the end of July they hoped to be relieved by Havelock, but this proved false. But on Sept. 19 and 20, 2,500 English soldiers under Sir James Outram, Havelock, and Neill, crossed the Ganges. On the 25th, Neill leading, the defences of Lucknow were attacked. The fire poured upon the assailants was tremendous, but they succeeded in making their way into the Residency. Outram now assumed the command of the garrison. The rebel forces, so far from retiring from the city, now pressed the siege more closely with augmented numbers. On Nov. 9 Sir Colin Campbell advanced to the relief of Lucknow, and on the 19th the position defended so nobly for six months was evacuated.

——, Siege of (Jan. 1—March 21, 1858). The operations for the recovery of Lucknow from the rebels commenced at the beginning of the year. On Jan. 1 Brigadier Hope was sent forward by Sir Colin Campbell to prevent the destruction of the iron suspension bridge over the Kallee Middee. This was done successfully, and the bridge repaired. Sir Colin entrenched himself strongly in the Dilkoosha Palace, March 2. Heavy guns were brought up and General Outram attacked the rebels in their strong position in the Kaiser Bagh on the 9th, and drove them before him till he could plant his batteries so as to enfilade the works on the canal and the iron and stone bridges. On the 11th Sir Edward Lingard inflicted heavy loss on the enemy. Brigadier-General Franks on the 14th successfully stormed the Imambarrah. The enemy now began to evacuate the city. On the 19th a combined movement inflicted great loss on the enemy. On the 21st Sir Edward Lingard successfully stormed the last rebel stronghold in the heart of the city;

Brigadier Campbell drove the retreating rebels six miles from the city with heavy loss, and Lucknow was won.

Annual Register, 1857—58; Kaye, *Sepoy War*; Malleson, *Indian Mutiny*; Innes, *Sepoy Revolt*.

Lucy, Richard de (*d.* 1179), one of Henry II.'s great ministers, was a supporter of Stephen against Maud, but directly Henry came to the throne he was appointed Justiciar conjointly with Robert de Beaumont, and after the death of the latter, De Lucy continued to hold the office alone. He helped to draw up the Constitutions of Clarendon, for which he was excommunicated by Becket. In 1173 he defeated the rebel sons of Henry II. at Farnham, and was most energetic in suppressing the revolt. He appears to have been a remarkably able and upright minister, and unswervingly faithful to Henry.

Foss, *Judges of England*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*

Luddite Riots, The (1811—1816), were the expression of an ignorant notion among the workpeople, especially of Yorkshire, Lancashire, and Nottinghamshire, that the distress, which was terrible and almost universal among the poor, was caused by the introduction of machinery. A quarter of a century before, one Ned Ludd, a half-witted boy in a Leicestershire village, made himself notorious by destroying stocking-frames. The Yorkshire rioters chose to take a name from this poor creature. The distress was widespread; there was little work to be done; prices were very high; the Continental war was still draining the resources of the country. The causes of the trouble were not far to seek; yet the use of machinery, which alone kept some few people in work, was set down as the cause of all the mischief: and the poor, ignorant, half-starved crowds set to work busily to destroy all the machinery they could reach. During 1811—12, the northern counties were in a perpetual state of disturbance; the army was busily employed in the Peninsula; and except where here and there a resolute mill-owner overawed the rioters, no machinery was safe from the marauding bands. In 1816 the riots broke out again. The conclusion of peace was expected to bring back prosperity immediately. The expectation was not fulfilled; and disappointment developed quickly into exasperation, producing constant disturbances. The government of Lord Liverpool was not of a kind to deal with this state of things; they made no attempt to go to the root of the evil—which was the utter misery of the poor—but on the contrary, thought only of coercion. If the riots were quelled in one place, they broke out in another; and the repressive policy of the government only had the effect of manifesting to the people the necessity of union among themselves by means of secret societies. With the return of prosperity, however, the riots gradually died out.

State Trials, vol. xxxi.; *Life of Lord Sidmouth*; *Liverpool Memoirs*; Mrs. Gaskell, *Life of Charlotte Brontë*.

Ludlow, in Shropshire, was the most important stronghold of the Middle March of Wales. The castle, built in the twelfth century, was besieged by Stephen in 1138. It was taken by De Montfort in 1264. In 1459 it was occupied by Henry VI., and subsequently became the residence of Prince Edward, son of Edward IV., and of Arthur, son of Henry VII., who died here in 1634. In 1646 it was captured by the Parliamentarians. From the reign of Edward IV. to 1685 the Lord President of the Marches officially occupied Ludlow, when the office was abolished, and the castle allowed to decay. The holding of the Council of the Marches there made it in a sense the capital of nearly all South Wales.

Ludlow, Edmund (*b.* ? 1617, *d.* 1692), member of a good family in Wiltshire, was, at the outbreak of the Civil War, a student in the Temple, entered Essex's Guards, and served under Waller and Fairfax. At the end of 1645 he was elected member for Wiltshire, and took his seat amongst the Republicans. He sat in the High Court which judged the king, and became a member of the Council of State of the Commonwealth. In 1651 he was sent to Ireland as Lieutenant-General of the Horse, and, after Ireton's death, held for six months the supreme command until superseded by Fleetwood (Nov., 1651—July, 1652). He remained at his post in spite of Cromwell's expulsion of the Long Parliament, but opposed the proclamation of the Protectorate, and resigned his share in the civil government of the country in order not to recognise the new authority. In Richard Cromwell's Parliament he vigorously opposed the government, and urged on the army leaders the restoration of the Rump. In July, 1659, he was sent again to Ireland to succeed Henry Cromwell as head of the government, with the title of Lieutenant-General of the Horse. In October, having returned to England, he was nominated by Lambert one of the Committee of Safety established by the army, but steered a middle course between army and Parliament, and wished for the restoration of the Rump. After Monk restored the secluded members, Ludlow ceased to attend the House, but still continued his vain attempts to unite the remains of the Republican party. He was a member of the Convention Parliament, took his seat, and surrendered under the proclamation ordering the regicides to deliver themselves up as prisoners, but remained at large on security. Thus, when he found his life in danger, he was able to fly to France (Sept., 1660). He fixed his residence first at Geneva, then at Vevey, where he remained till the Revolution.

Then he ventured to return to England, but the House of Commons presented an address to the king requesting his arrest, and he was obliged again to fly. He died at Vevey in 1693.

Ludlow's *Memoirs* describe his experiences from 1640 to 1668, and are particularly valuable for the history of the Civil War in Wiltshire, his personal relations with Cromwell, and the events of the year 1659. They were first published in 1698—99 (3 vols. 8vo), and reprinted in 1751 (1 vol. folio). [C. H. F.]

Luluch was the son of Gilcomgain, Mormaer of Moray. On the death of Macbeth (1057), he was declared King of Scotland by the supporters of Macbeth. After a reign of a few months he was slain at Essil, in Strathbogie (March 17, 1058).

Lumley, John, Lord (*d.* 1609), the brother-in-law of the Duke of Norfolk (q.v.), was restored in blood by an Act of Parliament, 1547, his father, George, Lord Lumley, having been implicated in the treason of Sir Thomas Percy and Lord Darcy. In 1569 he was arrested and placed in confinement at Windsor on suspicion of being favourable to the Catholic lords in the north. After the collapse of the rebellion Lumley resumed his treasonable correspondence with Spain, and speedily became involved in the Ridolfi conspiracy, on the discovery of which he was sent to the Marshalsea. He was subsequently pardoned, and acted as a commissioner at the trials of Mary Queen of Scots and the Earl of Essex.

Lundy's Lane, The Battle of (July, 1814), during the American War of 1812 was fought near Fort George, on Lake Ontario, between the British troops, under Sir G. Drummond and General Riall, and a superior American force under General Brown. The British gained a complete victory, killing 4,000 of the enemy.

Luxemburg Question. In 1830, at the Conference of London, the Belgian question was complicated by the Luxemburg question. Luxemburg was really part of the Germanic empire, and though it had been ceded to the King of Holland (1814) it formed no part of Holland. Palmerston wished it to be united with Belgium; Talleyrand wished it to be handed over to France. The Conference decided that it should remain part of the Germanic empire; but that its western part should be ceded to Belgium [Treaty of London, 1831]. The Conference eventually separated without having effected anything, but the provisions of the Treaty of London (November, 1831) were enforced by England and France (1832).

Ann. Reg.; Walpole, *Hist. of Eng. from 1815.*

Lyndhurst, Lord (*b.* 1772, *d.* 1863). John Singleton Copley was the son of the eminent painter, John Singleton Copley; was born at Boston in America, then an English town; was educated in England, at first by a private tutor, and afterwards at Trinity College, Cambridge. He was called to the bar at Lincoln's Inn, 1804; was made serjeant-at-law, 1813, and first became prominently known from the ability he displayed as one of the counsel who defended Watson and Thistlewood on the charge of high treason, 1817. He entered Parliament as member for Yarmouth, Isle of Wight, 1818, having in the same year become king's serjeant and Chief Justice of Chester. He afterwards sat for Ashburton and the University of Cambridge. He was soon looked on as the most rising lawyer of the Tory party, and a convenient opportunity presenting itself by the removal of Sir Samuel Shepherd to the Scotch Bench, Copley was appointed Solicitor-General (1819) and knighted. While holding this office he was engaged, in 1820, for the crown in two memorable cases; the trial at the Old Bailey of the Cato Street conspirators and their ringleader, his former client Thistlewood, and the proceedings against Queen Caroline in the House of Lords. In both affairs Sir John Copley displayed remarkable eloquence, judgment, and forbearance. He became Attorney-General in 1824, and Master of the Rolls in 1826. He at first energetically opposed the Catholic claims, but afterwards sided with those who felt the absolute necessity of Catholic Emancipation being carried. He took office in the cabinet formed by Mr. Canning in 1827. He was appointed Lord Chancellor for the first time (April 20, 1827), and created Lord Lyndhurst on the 25th of the same month. When his party went out of office in 1830 he retired with them, but was appointed Lord Chief Baron of the Exchequer early in 1831. In the House of Lords he opposed the Reform Bill with all his energies and eloquence, and was the virtual leader of the Tory opposition. He declared the measure to be detrimental to the rights of the people, and inconsistent with the prerogatives of the crown. He again took office as Lord Chancellor, under Sir Robert Peel, in 1834, and retired in 1835. In 1841 Sir Robert Peel again returned to power, and Lord Lyndhurst to the Chancellorship for the third time. He finally resigned in 1846. He, nevertheless, continued to take an active part in the debates of the House of Lords.

Sir Theodore Martin, *Life of Lord Lyndhurst*; Campbell, *Lives of the Chancellors.*

Lynedoch, Thomas Graham, Lord (*b.* 1748, *d.* 1843), a gentleman of fortune in Perthshire, served as a volunteer, under Lord Mulgrave, at the siege of Toulon, in 1794, and showed such military genius and courage that he was publicly thanked by the commander. Returning to England he raised the 90th Regiment in Perthshire, and was appointed colonel of it. For the next few years he served with the Austrian army, and then returned to his regiment at Gibraltar. In

1808 he accompanied Sir John Moore to Sweden as his aide-de-camp, and afterwards followed him to Spain. On the return to England after that battle, he was appointed to command a division at the siege of Flushing; but he was soon afterwards ordered to the Peninsula, where he was nominated second in command. During the winter of 1810 he held Cadiz; but in the spring of the following year, by a series of masterly tactics, he brought on a battle with Victor, whom he defeated in a hard-fought battle at Barosa. He then joined Wellington, and was present with him at the siege of Ciudad Rodrigo, after which he went to England to recruit his health. He returned to Spain in time to take part in the campaign of 1813. He commanded the left wing of the army at Vittoria, and to him was confided the whole charge of the siege of San Sebastian, which, after two partial failures, his firm resolution and skilful management at length reduced. After crossing the Bidassoa he was compelled again to seek rest; but in the following year was appointed to command the disastrous expedition to the Low Countries (1814). The expedition was a failure, not, however, in any way through the fault of the commander-in-chief. In May, 1814, he was raised to the peerage.

Lynedoch, *Memoirs;* Napier, *Peninsular War.*

Lyons, Edmund, Lord (*b.* 1790, *d.* 1858), was the son of Mr. John Lyons, of St. Austin's, Hants. He went to sea in 1803. In 1828 he became captain of the *Blonde*, in which he co-operated with the French in expelling the Turks from the Morea. In 1835 he was appointed minister at the new court at Athens. From 1849 to 1851 he presided over the mission at Berne; from 1851 to 1853 he resided as minister at Stockholm. In 1853, however, he was appointed second in command of the Mediterranean fleet. In the *Agamemnon* he arranged, superintended, and made possible the embarkation of the allied forces at Varna and the Isle of Serpents, and their landing near Eupatoria. He served all through the Crimean War, materially assisting the generals by his ready co-operation, and inflicting severe damage on the Russian fleet. In June, 1855, he became commander-in-chief. In 1856 he was created Baron Lyons.

Lyttelton, Edward, Lord (*b.* 1589, *d.* 1645), was a member of a distinguished legal family and the son of the Chief Justice of North Wales. He entered Parliament in 1626, and at once joined the popular side, taking a leading part against Buckingham. In the Parliament of 1628 he was one of the chief advocates of redress of grievances, but by 1631 he had made his peace with the king, and in 1634 he was appointed Solicitor-General, in which capacity he conducted with great ability the case against Hampden. In 1641 he was made Lord Keeper and received a peerage. During the debates with the Long Parliament, Lyttelton had a difficult part to play, and at length finding that moderate counsels were unavailing, he fled to the king at York, taking the Great Seal with him. On the outbreak of the war he raised a regiment consisting of gentlemen of the inns of court and others, and acted himself as colonel. But being unused to military service, his exertions were too much for his strength, and he died before very long. "He was a man of great reputation in the profession of the law," says Clarendon, "for learning and all other advantages which attend the most eminent men . . . . and was not only very ready and expert in books, but exceedingly versed in records."

Lyttelton, George, Lord (*b.* 1709, *d.* 1773), entered the House of Commons in 1735, when he joined the opposition against Walpole. He was made secretary to Frederick, Prince of Wales, in 1737, and, on the downfall of Carteret, a Lord of the Treasury (1744). In 1755 he was made Chancellor of the Exchequer, and in 1756 raised to the peerage. Besides writing numerous miscellaneous and poetical works, he was the author of a *History of Henry II.* (1764), which, though now somewhat out of date, is valuable from the materials which the author has accumulated and the industry with which he worked at the original and later authorities.

Lyttelton (or, Littleton), Thomas (*d.* 1481), was a distinguished lawyer, appointed one of the judges of the Common Pleas from 1466 to 1481. He is famous chiefly for his *Treatise on Tenures.*

The *Treatise on Tenures* was printed (in Norman-French) at Rouen about 1481, and translated into English in 1539. It has been edited by Mr. H. Roscoe, in 1825. Coke's *Commentary*, called *Coke upon Littelton, or the First Institute*, appeared in 1626.

Lytton, Edward George Earle Bulwer, 1st Lord (*b.* 1803, *d.* 1873), first entered Parliament as Member for St. Ives in 1831. He attached himself to the Whigs, and in 1835 wrote a widely read pamphlet on "the crisis." In 1832 he was returned for Lincoln, and represented that borough till 1841. In 1843 he changed his name to Bulwer-Lytton. In 1852 he re-entered the House of Commons as a Conservative, and on the accession of Lord Derby to power (1858) he became Secretary of State for the Colonies. During his short period of office, lasting only a year, he called into existence two new colonies, those of British Columbia and Queensland. In 1866 he was raised to the peerage. Lord Lytton was one of the most versatile and accomplished writers of his time, and was the author of a large number of fictions, poems, dramas, and miscellaneous works.

Lord Lytton's *Memoirs* have been compiled by his son, the Earl of Lytton. The first two vols. appeared in 1883.

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Macartney, GEORGE, 1ST EARL (*b.* 1737, *d.* 1806), after a distinguished diplomatic and political career, was in 1775 sent out as Governor of Grenada. In 1779 he was taken prisoner by Count d'Estaing, and sent to France. From 1780 to 1786 he was Governor of Madras, and in 1792 was sent to Pekin as ambassador. In 1796 he was made Governor of the Cape Colony, where his first act was to attempt to check the aggression of the colonists by the proclamation of exact boundaries; during his tenure of this office (1796—98) he managed to restrain in a great degree the turbulence of the Boers.

Macaulay, THOMAS BABINGTON, LORD (*b.* 1800, *d.* 1859), was the son of Zachary Macaulay, an African merchant, and a leading mover in the agitation against the Slave Trade. He was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, where, in 1822, he obtained a fellowship. He was called to the bar in 1826, and in 1830 entered Parliament for Calne. He joined the Whigs and took a prominent part in the debates on the Reform Bill, making some brilliant speeches. Lord Grey appointed him Secretary to the Board of Control. In 1834 he went to India as legal member of Council, and assisted to draw up the Indian penal code. In 1838 he returned. In 1839 he was appointed Secretary for War, which office he held till 1841, and was Paymaster of the Forces from 1846 to 1848. In 1857 he was raised to the peerage, but his health would not allow him to take any further part in public affairs. He died Dec. 28, 1859, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. In 1843, Macaulay's *Essays*, contributed to the *Edinburgh Review*, were published in a collected form. These essays, which are for the most part on subjects connected with English literature and history, such as Lord Chatham, Warren Hastings, Bacon, and Addison, are remarkable for their brilliancy and vigour of style, and the skill with which the results of wide reading are presented in an easy and interesting form. They have been extraordinarily popular. In 1848 appeared the first two volumes of Macaulay's *History of England;* the third and fourth being published in 1855; and a fifth compiled from the historian's papers appeared in 1861. Macaulay's *History* was left unfinished. The author designed to bring it down to a period within the memory of his own generation. As it stands it is only complete to the Peace of Ryswick in 1697, though the final volume, which was in part compiled from the author's papers, takes us to the death of William III. After a general sketch of the earlier history, the historian narrates in detail the reigns of Charles II., James II., and William III. Macaulay's *History of England* has been more popular and more widely read than probably any other historical work ever written. It is acknowledged by scholars to have grave defects. The author's love of paradox has frequently led him to mis-statements and exaggeration; he is a pronounced partisan, and over-praises some of his characters as greatly as he depreciates others; and he is constantly unable to resist the temptation to sacrifice impartiality for the purpose of making a point, or heightening an effect. His acquaintance with the literature of the period was extensive; but he does not always use his materials with critical judgment, and the statements of worthless authorities sometimes receive an undue prominence. His want of wide sympathy, too, and of real insight into human nature, has prevented his appreciating great men with whom his views were not in accord; so that his pictures of some of them are inadequate and even distorted. But with these defects the merits of the history are conspicuous. It remains the chief modern authority in English for the period of which it treats. Its pictures of men and manners have hardly been excelled in graphic power, and bring home the subject to the reader in a manner attained by few historians. The vigorous movement of the narrative, the brilliancy of the style, the wit and point with which the book sparkles all through, and the frequent passages of extraordinarily vivid descriptive writing, suffice to give it a permanent place in English literature.

Macaulay's *Life and Letters* have been published by his nephew, Mr. G. O. Trevelyan. The work gives a pleasing account of his amiable private character.

Macbeth, son of Finlay or Finel, Thane of Glamis, was Mormaer of Ross and Moray, and the general of King Duncan against the Norwegians Thorfinn and Thorkell. In 1040 he went over to the enemy, slew Duncan by treachery in a smith's hut near Elgin, and divided the kingdom with Thorfinn, taking to himself the districts south and west of the Tay, with the central district in which Scone is situated. Although it is somewhat difficult to separate the Macbeth of history from the Macbeth of Shakespeare and tradition, he appears to have ruled Scotland well, and to have benefited the Church in no small degree. Although he had married Guroch, the granddaughter of Kenneth IV., Macbeth was always regarded as a usurper, and in 1045 we find Crinan, Abbot of Dunkeld, making an unsuccessful effort to reinstate his grandchildren on the throne. In 1050 Macbeth made a journey to Rome, being the first King of Scotland who entered into communication with the Papal see, and on his return was attacked by Siward, Earl of Northumbria, and defeated (July 27, 1054). Siward succeeded in establishing Malcolm, son of Duncan, as King of Cumbria. In 1057, on the death of his

powerful ally Thorfinn, Macbeth was again attacked by Malcolm, and slain at Lumphanan. From this time hereditary, instead of collateral, succession became the rule in Scotland. The reign of Macbeth is shrouded in the mysteries of legend and romance. It must be remembered that the well-known stories of Banquo, the march of Birnam Wood, and the like, are mere inventions of the chroniclers.

Skene, *Celtic Scotland;* Holinshed for the legendary history.

McCarthy, JUSTIN (*b.* 1830), is a native of Cork. He entered Parliament as a Nationalist member for Longford in 1879, was chosen vice-chairman of the Irish Parliamentary party in 1880, and ten years later was elected chairman of that section of the party which repudiated Mr. Parnell, a position he resigned in 1896. Mr. McCarthy is also a journalist, novelist, and historian.

Macdonald, FLORA (*d.* 1790), was a lady of South Uist, who is famous for the help she gave the Young Pretender, Charles Edward Stuart, in escaping after the battle of Culloden. She caused the prince to be dressed in woman's clothes, and to pass as her maidservant, and by her courage and resource succeeded in bringing him safely to the Isle of Skye, where he escaped to France. Flora Macdonald was arrested and imprisoned in the Tower till July, 1747. She married a relation, also named Macdonald, and went with him to America, but subsequently returned to Scotland.

Macdonald of the Isles, ALEXANDER, was one of the Highland chieftains summoned by James I. to appear at Inverness in 1427. He was there thrown into prison, but, having made his submission, was released. His first act was to burn Inverness, and to invade Lochaber, where, however, he was compelled to surrender, and was imprisoned at Tantallon Castle.

Mackay, GENERAL HUGH (*d.* 1692), of Sconry, in Sutherlandshire, having served abroad for thirty years, was sent by William III. to Scotland in 1689, where he endeavoured to bring Claverhouse to bay, fixing his headquarters at Inverness. For some time he was unsuccessful, but at length forced an engagement at Killiecrankie (June 17, 1689), where, although he suffered defeat, he had a more than counterbalancing gain in the death of his great opponent. The following year Mackay built Fort William. He then went to Ireland, where he served under Ginkell, and was present at Aghrim. He was killed at the battle of Steinkirk, in 1692.

Mackintosh, SIR JAMES (*b.* 1765, *d.* 1832), was born at Aldourie, Inverness-shire, educated at King's College, Aberdeen. From thence he went to Edinburgh to study medicine, and became a member of the Royal Medical Society and also of the Speculative Society. In 1789 he published a pamphlet on the Regency Question, in which he supported the views of the Whigs. In 1791 he became known to the world as the antagonist of Mr. Burke in his *Vindiciæ Gallicæ.* The talent he displayed made him many illustrious friends in the Opposition, but he was soon converted by Burke himself. In 1795 he was called to the bar. In 1803 he defended the French journalist Peltier. He held for some time the appointment of Professor of General Polity and of Law in the East India College at Haileybury; from that situation he was removed to the office of Recorder of Bombay, on which occasion he received the honour of knighthood (Dec. 21, 1803). He returned in 1811, and was elected member for Nairn (1813). In 1818 he was elected for Knaresborough under the influence of the Duke of Devonshire. He devoted himself during his Parliamentary career to the improvement of the Penal Code. Among other works Mackintosh wrote a *History of England,* extending down to 1572, and a *History of the Revolution of 1688.*

Macnaghten, SIR WILLIAM (*d.* 1841). Mr. Macnaghten was for several years a member of the Madras army before he entered the Bengal Civil Service. He gained great distinction at the College of Fort William, and in the judicial branch of the service. He entered the political department during the administration of Lord W. Bentinck. In 1837 he was Lord Auckland's secretary. In 1838 he was sent to Lahore to negotiate the triple alliance with Runjeet Singh. He accompanied the Afghan expedition as political envoy. In 1840 he was made a baronet. On Dec. 23 he was assassinated at Cabul by Akbar Khan.

Macquarie, COLONEL LACHLAN, was, in 1810, sent out as Governor of New South Wales. By his amelioration of the condition of the discharged convicts he did much to develop the colony, whilst his employment of convict labour in the construction of roads had the effect of opening out the country to an extent hitherto unknown. On his return to England in 1822, he left New South Wales "four times as populous and twenty times as large as when he went out."

Mad Parliament. [HENRY III.]

Mahdi. [*See* SOUDAN.]

Madras was granted to the English as a site for a trading factory, with a small adjacent factory, by the Rajah of Bijnagur, in 1639. A fort, called Fort St. George, was erected here. In 1654 it was created a Presidency. It speedily grew in importance, and became almost the largest trading station of the English in India. In 1702 the fort was strong enough to hold out successfully against

the besieging army of the Emperor Aurungzebe. In 1746, however, it was captured by the French general, Labourdonnais (Sept. 1), and remained in the hands of the French till restored to the English by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748). In the Seven Years' War it was besieged (Dec., 1758) by Lally, till relieved by Admiral Pococke (Feb., 1759). In 1769 it was threatened, though not actually attacked, by Hyder Ali. In 1809 a mutiny of the officers took place. In 1817 the town was besieged by the Pindarries. In 1833 a bishopric was established there.

Madras Mutiny, The (1809), was a serious disturbance among the European officers of the East India Company's army. The retrenching theories of the Directors induced them to reduce some of the perquisites of the officers. The whole army broke out into mutiny. A hundred and fifty-eight officers signed an address to government demanding the repeal of the obnoxious order and the restoration of the officers. Supported by the new commander-in-chief and the king's regiments, Sir George Barlow appealed to the sepoys against their officers. This was done so successfully that only in Seringapatam was there any disturbance, where the native regiments commanded by disaffected officers refused to submit, and were fired upon by the king's troops, with the result that 150 were killed and wounded. The officers, alarmed at the energetic measures of Sir George and the intention of Lord Minto to repair at once to Madras, paused at open rebellion. By August 16th all had returned to their duty. On reaching Madras, Lord Minto issued a general order of such considerate and anxious reprobation that all were conciliated, and the exception of twenty-one ringleaders from the general amnesty was received with equanimity. Of these twenty-one, four were cashiered, one acquitted, and the rest dismissed; but all were subsequently restored to the service.

Magdalen College, Oxford, Case of (1687—88), was one of the causes which led to the downfall of James II. In 1687 the presidency of Magdalen College fell vacant, when James II. issued a letter ordering the election of one Anthony Farmer, a Roman Catholic, as president. Farmer was not only disqualified technically from holding the appointment, but was a man of notoriously immoral life and bad reputation. In spite of the royal injunction, the fellows elected one of their number, Dr. Hough, to the presidency, whereupon they were cited before the Commission. The proofs of Farmer's disgraceful conduct were indisputable, and the Commission cancelled his nomination, but insisted on the election of Parker, Bishop of Oxford, another Catholic, to the presidency. Again the fellows refused, and for this all the fellows except two, who yielded to the king's wishes, were suspended, and eventually deprived of their fellowships, and in a few months the whole revenues of the college were enjoyed by Catholics. But in 1688 James, being anxious to conciliate his subjects, restored the ejected fellows, and accepted Hough as president.

Magedauc, The Battle of (750), was a victory for the Britons of Strathclyde over the Picts. Magedauc is Mugdoch, in Dumbartonshire.

Magersfontein, The Battle of. [*See* Boer War.]

Magna Carta. The Charter that is called Great, to mark its prominent value among the charters granted by the Norman and Angevin kings, is properly a treaty made between John and his subjects, and was "given under our hand," that is, sealed with the royal seal, on June 15, 1215. But it had still to undergo several changes. As originally granted, it contained sixty-three clauses, which, among other provisions, set limits to the usuries of the Jews, pledged the king to raise no scutage or aid "save through the common council of the realm, or on the three ordinary feudal occasions," prescribed the forms of summoning this council, forbade any increase of the customary forms, empowered every one to go away from and come back to the realm unhindered, mitigated the oppressiveness of the Forest Laws, and banished the royal mercenaries. When first confirmed, in 1216, by the Earl of Pembroke, for the boy-king, Henry III., it had lost all these and other concessions; and thus its clauses were abridged to forty-two. At its second confirmation, made in 1217, these forty-two had grown to forty-seven, one of which settled the times of holding the county court and view of frank-pledge, while another restricted grants in mortmain. The fifth confirmation, made in 1225, reduced the clauses once more, to thirty-seven this time, and these proved the final and accepted legal version. Even in this form it is a most comprehensive document; hardly an interest is overlooked. To the Church it guaranteed the freedom that mainly meant full liberty to choose its prelates; to tenants-in-chief relief from the oppressive enforcement of feudal obligations; from disparagement of heirs and spoliation of widows; to mesne tenants similar securities against mesne lords; to London and other cities and towns all their ancient franchises; to merchants full licence to go about buying and selling from, to, or through England unfleeced; to villeins that their wainage should not be distrained to pay fines; to the collective community that Common Pleas should be held in a fixed place; that fines should be assessed on oath, by upright men of the venue, and be proportioned to the offence; that weights and measures

should be uniform, and that the sheriffs should be curbed in the exercise of their manifold authority. But the highest pitch of the Charter is reached in the clauses that assure every freeman that his person and property are absolutely secure from every kind of damaging process, "save through the lawful judgment of his peers or the law of the land," and pledge the king not to sell, refuse, or postpone the doing of justice to any one. The later confirmations are almost beyond reckoning; fifteen are found in Edward III.'s reign alone. Never has law been held in higher esteem; the very day that Charles II. entered London as a restored king, the Commons asked him to confirm *Magna Carta*.

Matthew Paris, p. 252, &c.; Ralph of Coggeshall; Blackstone, *Preface to Magna Carta*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, ch. xii., and *Select Charters*.

[J. R.]

Maharajpore, The Battle of (Dec. 29, 1843), took place during the Gwalior War. The impossibility of restoring order to the Gwalior State belonging to Scindia, except by an appeal to arms, determined Lord Ellenborough to despatch an army to effect this. On Dec. 20 the army advanced on Gwalior. Scindia's troops had taken up a strong position, and during the night seven battalions of infantry entrenched themselves with twenty guns of heavy calibre in the village of Maharajpore. Sir Hugh Gough, despising his enemy, made no reconnaissance, and therefore knew nothing of this change of position. The discharge of the masked batteries gave the first notice of the proximity of Scindia's army. The heavy guns had been left behind, and so Sir Hugh Gough at once launched his troops on the Mahratta batteries, which were served with frantic desperation till all the gunners were shot down at their posts. After the guns were captured, the infantry maintained their ground with great determination, and the victory was not gained till 1,000 of the British army fell, killed and wounded.

Mahidpore, The Battle of (Dec. 21, 1817), was fought during the war against Holkar. Sir Thomas Hislop moved up to Mahidpore to bring on the issue of a battle. Holkar's army was protected by a river in front, its left flank resting on a deep morass and its front lined with a formidable battery of seventy guns. Sir Thomas launched his men across the difficult river by a single ferry, in the face of a terrific fire, to seize the guns which had silenced his own light infantry. Holkar's artillerymen fought with great gallantry, but were struck down at their guns. A general rout took place and the victory was complete though won at the expense of 778 killed and wounded.

Mahomet Ali (*d.* 1795) was the son of Anwar-ud-deen, Nabob of the Carnatic. In 1749 he was placed on the throne after the recapture of Arcot from the French and Chunda Sahib. He was shortly, however, attacked in his camp, and with difficulty escaped to Nazir Jung. He now made overtures to the French, but Clive's success at Arcot (1751) confirmed him to the English. He now entered into an alliance with Mysore and Tanjore, and raised an army of Mahrattas under Morari Rao. The Carnatic was gradually reduced by the English and native armies. In 1756 a suspension of arms was agreed to, and Mahomet Ali was acknowledged Nabob of the Carnatic. He was beset with difficulties, and in 1757 required the aid of a British detachment to put down the rebellion of his brothers and collect his revenue. During the war he was compelled to pay tribute to the Mahratta Bajee Rao. His rebellious subjects gave him considerable trouble. In 1769 he quarrelled with Tanjore. The result of the war which followed was the conquest of Tanjore, which was given to Mahomet Ali by the English. In 1776 he was compelled to disgorge it again. He was an object of peculiar aversion to Hyder Ali, owing to the malign influence he was supposed to exercise on the English counsels. The Carnatic became the scene of the war again on the outbreak of hostilities in 1778. During the reign of Mahomet Ali the Carnatic gradually assumed a position of complete dependence on England. Its defence was guaranteed in return for tribute. All its foreign relations were conducted through the English. Its contribution was liable to be raised in war time. Its government was assumed by the English in war time.

Mill, *Hist. of India.*

Mahon, Lord. [Stanhope, Henry.]

Mahrattas, The, consisted of several tribes of Hindoo mountaineers whose origin and early history is obscure. They were brought into prominence towards the end of the seventeenth century by the chief Sivaji. Beginning with a small estate and a small army, he took advantage of the weakness of the Moguls, and the wars of Aurungzebe, to enlarge his army, and extend his dominions at the expense of his neighbours. His headquarters were fixed at Satara, from which plundering hordes sallied in every direction, until the whole surface of India was studded with their possessions. The break up of the Mogul empire, which followed the invasion of Nadir Shah, enabled them to extend their dominions from Delhi in the north to the Toombuddra, a southern tributary of the Kistna on the south, and from the Bay of Bengal to Gujerat on the west. During the reigns of Sivaji's weak successors all authority was usurped by the principal officers of State. Two powerful kingdoms were formed, the one under the Peishwa, or prime minister, whose capital was at Poonah, and the other under the commander-in-chief, who fixed his capital at Nagpore, and is known as the

Rajah of Berar. The authority of the Rajah of Satara became merely nominal, and all power resided in the Peishwa, who became head of the Mahratta Confederacy. A herdsman founded a sovereignty in Gujerat, fixing his court at Baroda, and was known by the title of the Guicowar. Another band sallying south founded the state of Tanjore; all these chieftains, including the Rajah of Berar, or the Bhonslah, acknowledged the supremacy of the Peishwa, and marched to battle under his standard. This ill-cemented confederacy tended to split up owing to the weakness of successive Peishwas and the rise of other chieftains, such as Scindia and Holkar, who waged almost independent wars in Rajpootana and Malwa. This disintegrating tendency was shown at the Peace of Salbhye, when Mahdajee Scindia assumed an almost independent position as mediator between the Poonah State and the English government. The confederacy, however, still held together, and in 1795, for the last time, the whole Mahratta army assembled under the banner of the Peishwa, to crush the Nizam. The civil wars and disturbances which attended the accession of Bajee Rao II., and the rivalry between the various chiefs, especially Dowlut Rao Scindia, and Jeswunt Rao Holkar, caused the total break-up of the confederacy by the Treaty of Bassein. The result of the wars which followed was to reduce the Peishwa to the position of a dependent on the English government, and to establish Scindia, Holkar, and the Rajah of Berar, as independent sovereigns. Tanjore had already fallen to the English, and the Guicowar was bound by a defensive alliance to the conquerors of India. The dissatisfaction of the Peishwa at his dependent state, and his attempts to recover independence, in which he was aided by the Rajah of Berar, Appa Sahib, caused the deposition of the former, the annexation of his territories, and the final dissolution of the Mahratta Confederacy (1818).

The chief members of the Mahratta Confederacy were:—

The *Rajah of Satara*, the descendant of Sivaji. The authority of this prince, long obsolete, was revived in 1819, on the downfall of the Poonah State. A portion of territory was restored to him with limited political power. This re-organisation was dangerous as supplying a fresh nucleus for Mahratta intrigue, and like all ill-judged measures was productive of disastrous results. In 1839 it was discovered that the Rajah was in correspondence with the Portuguese of Goa, with Appa Sahib, the dethroned Rajah of Nagpore, and with other enemies of the English government with the object of exciting a confederacy against his benefactors. Lord Auckland, finding the Rajah refused to conform to the treaty of 1819, which had restored him to power, deposed him and elevated his brother to the throne on the same conditions of dependence. The latter governed the country with great vigour and beneficence for ten years. As he left no legitimate heirs and had not obtained the consent of the English to adopt a son, Lord Dalhousie held that as the Satara State existed only by treaty with England, it had now fairly lapsed to the Company, and it was inexpedient to reconstitute it. It was therefore annexed (1848).

The *Peishwa*, resident at Poonah; ruling in Poonah, Khandeish, the Konkan, and Gujerat, with a nominal supremacy over the whole confederation. His territory and power was greatly diminished by the Treaties of Bassein, and the rise of the other chieftains. His dominions were finally annexed by the treaties of 1817 and 1818.

The *Rajah of Berar*, resident at Nagpore; ruling what now constitutes the Central Provinces. The Berar State was annexed in 1853, on the death of the last Rajah, leaving no children, on the same principle as the annexation of Satara.

The *Rajah of Tanjore*, ruling at Tanjore. [Tanjore.]

The *Guicowar*, ruling at Baroda. [Guicowar.]

Scindia, ruling at Gwalior. [Scindia.]

Holkar, ruling at Indore. [Holkar.]

The *Rajah of Bundelkhund*. In 1786 two Mahratta chiefs during the Mogul and Mahratta wars in Rajpootana, had established an insecure throne in Bundelkhund. In 1803 the Peishwa Bajee Rao, as head of the Mahratta State, ceded his claims on Bundelkhund to England. The province was definitely annexed, and in 1817 the Peishwa formally gave up all claims on it.

The *Rajah of Kolapore* was the possessor of a jaghire in the Poonah State. This small territory, originally in conjunction with its neighbour, Sawuntivaree, a piratical State, has survived the empire of the Peishwas, and exists as a dependent state no longer piratical.

Of these chiefs, Scindia, Holkar, the Guicowar, and the Rajah of Kolapore, still exist dependent protected princes.

Grant Duff, *Mahrattas*; Elphinstone, *India*; Mill, *Hist. of India*.

Mahratta Ditch. In 1742 the Mahrattas invaded Bengal. The inhabitants crowded into the foreign factories, and especially Calcutta, for protection. The President sought permission of the Nabob to surround the Company's territory with an entrenchment. It was readily conceded, and the work was commenced, and prosecuted with vigour, but suspended on the withdrawal of the enemy. This entrenchment was called the Mahratta Ditch.

Maintenance is defined in the law books as "the act of assisting the plaintiff in any legal proceeding in which the person giving the assistance has no valuable interest,

or in which he acts from an improper motive;" or, less technically, it is simply "interference with the due course of justice." It was often found easier in the England of the Middle Ages for a man to have recourse to some powerful neighbour who would "maintain" his cause, than to seek, on his own motion, for the expensive, uncertain, and cumbrous remedies of the law courts. In return for help, which might be warrantable, but which was more commonly a gross perversion of the course of justice, the person assisted became the dependent or client of the baron who supported him. In other cases, lawyers were guilty of similar acts of "maintenance." Allied with maintenance was the custom of giving livery, which, besides its more direct political result in exciting and stimulating dynastic factions, was commonly resorted to as giving a colourable excuse for maintenance. In conjunction the customs of livery and maintenance produced a "chronic organised anarchy, striking at all law and government whatsoever." Associations were formed to maintain the suits of their members. Great lords conferred with lavish profusion their liveries on all who would wear them, and regarded it as a point of honour to "maintain" the causes of their clients. A long series of statutes and proclamations were directed against these evils, but to very little purpose. By the Statute of Westminster the First it was ordered that no sheriff or officer of justice should maintain parties in quarrels. Two other enactments of Edward I.'s reign, in 1285 and 1305, were to the same effect. In 1327 and 1346 stronger measures, which in themselves were evidences of the development of the custom, were passed. By forbidding the return to Parliament of maintainers of false suits, an indirect but effectual blow was aimed against the practice. But maintenance was never more flagrant than when Alice Perrers, the mistress of Edward III.'s dotage, took her seat in the courts of law to maintain the causes of her friends, or when John of Gaunt and Percy "maintained" Wycliffe when attacked for heresy by the Bishop of London. A series of statutes in the reign of Richard II. had little effect, and maintenance flourished during the weak government of the fifteenth century. Meanwhile the practice of livery had increased also, and the importance laid on heraldry during the later Middle Ages largely brought this about. During the period 1377—1468 a long series of Acts of Parliament limited the right of nobles to confer liveries as well as strengthened the laws against maintenance. But their weakness for good lay in the fact that there was no efficient court to carry them out, since the law courts were themselves brought into contempt by the custom of maintenance. A famous Act of Henry VII. (the Statute of Livery and Maintenance, 3 Hen. VII., cap. i.) remedied this defect of previous legislation by constituting a court of royal officials, who were by their position free from the fear of violence and corruption that beset the assizes. This measure, in conjunction with the stricter government of the Tudors, soon brought an end to maintenance. An Act of Henry VIII. passed in 1540 was indeed directed against maintenance, but its provisions show that fraud, not force, was the means then sought to pervert the course of justice; and the offence of maintenance in subsequent periods has consisted of fraudulent rather than forcible attempts to interfere with the due course of justice.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, vol. iii.; Stephen, *History of the Criminal Law*, vol. iii. [T. F. T.]

Maitland, Sir John (*b.* 1545, *d.* 1595), brother of Maitland of Lethington, was made Lord Privy Seal (1567), though in 1571 he was deprived of his office by Act of Parliament. In 1584 James VI. made him Secretary of State, and a few years afterwards Chancellor. He was a great enemy of the second Earl of Bothwell, who attacked Holyrood House with a view to seizing him. In 1589 he accompanied James to Norway to fetch his bride, Anne of Denmark, and in 1590 was created Lord Maitland of Thirlestan.

Major-Generals. In 1655, after the disagreement with his first Parliament, and the rising under Penruddock, Cromwell devised the plan of dividing England into military districts, to be governed each by a major-general, responsible only to the Protector and Council. The major-generals were entrusted with the command of the militia, with the duties of putting down all attempted insurrections, carrying out the Protector's police regulations, and raising the ten per cent. income tax imposed on Royalists. The first appointed was Desborough, in May, 1655, for the six south-western counties; but the whole organisation was officially announced in October. Including Wales, there were, in all, twelve districts. When Cromwell's second Parliament met, after a vigorous defence of his "poor little invention," he was obliged to abandon it. The House of Commons, on Jan. 29, 1657, rejected by 121 to 78, the second reading of a "Bill for the continuing and assessing of a tax for the paying and maintaining of the Militia forces in England and Wales," and thus deprived the Protector of the machinery by which the system of major-generals was maintained.

Cromwell's Letters and Speeches; Masson, *Life of Milton*, gives a list of districts and their commanders, from the Order Books of the Council, vol. v., p. 49.

Malabar Coast is the coast of India west of the Western Ghauts, south of Canara, and north of Travancore.

Malacca, on the west coast of the Malay Peninsula, was held by the Portuguese until 1640; it then fell into the hands of the Dutch,

who kept it until it was taken by the English in 1795. In 1801 it was restored to the Dutch by the Peace of Amiens, and did not finally come into the possession of the British until 1825, when it was obtained in exchange for the island of Sumatra. In 1867 Malacca was separated from the Indian government, and together with the other Straits Settlements, came under the Colonial Office. Its local affairs are now administered by a Resident, who is under the Governor of Singapore.

Malcolm I., King of Scotland (943—954), son of Donald, succeeded to the throne of Alban on the resignation of Constantine II. (943). One of his first acts was to attack and slay Cellach, the provincial King of Moray. In 945 Edmund of England made over to him the province of Cumberland, on condition that he should give him aid both by land and sea, a compact which was renewed by Edmund's successor, Eadred. In 949, however, Malcolm, having broken the condition, ravaged Northumbria as far as the Tees; he was slain (954), either at Alwin, near Forres, by the men of Moray, in revenge for the death of their king, Cellach, or at Fetteresso.

Malcolm II., King of Scotland (1005—1034), son of Kenneth II., came to the throne of Scotland as the successor of Kenneth III. (1005), and at once attacked Northumbria, besieging Durham with a large army. He was, however, defeated by Uchtred, son-in-law of Aldun, Bishop of Durham. Unsuccessful in his attempts to wrest Caithness from the Norwegian earls, he concluded an alliance with Sigurd, giving him his daughter in marriage, whose son, Thorfinn, he made Earl of Sutherland and Caithness. In 1018, Malcolm retrieved his former defeat by a brilliant victory at Carham over Eadulf, who was forced to cede Lothian to the Scottish king as the price of peace. In 1031, Malcolm submitted to Canute and became "his man." In 1034 he was assassinated at Glamis. In him the direct male line of Kenneth MacAlpin came to an end. During his reign Strathclyde finally became part of the Scotch kingdom. Malcolm was the first king who was called King of Scotia; his successful policy of consolidation obtained for him the title of "the Lord and Father of the West."

Robertson, *Early Kings of Scotland*; Skene, *Celtic Scotland*.

Malcolm III., King of Scotland (1058—1093), surnamed Canmore (Great Head), was the eldest son of King Duncan, some say by a miller's daughter, but more probably by the daughter of the Earl of Northumbria. On his father's death, Malcolm and his brother Donaldbane, who were mere infants, were protected for a time by their grandfather, Cunan. Malcolm afterwards sought aid from his uncle, Siward of Northumbria, who defeated Macbeth near Dunsinane (1054), and on his death, from Tostig, son of Earl Godwine. The cause of the young prince was also espoused by Edward the Confessor, with the result that Macbeth was slain at Lumphanan (1057), and that Malcolm obtained undisputed possession of the throne a few months later, being crowned at Scone (April 25, 1058). In 1061 the king broke his alliance with Tostig, and ravaged Northumbria, but became reconciled to him, and gave him shelter on his defeat by Morcar (1065). In 1068, Edgar Atheling, his mother and two sisters, with a number of Saxon exiles, took refuge at the Scottish court, and were well received by Malcolm, out of gratitude for the aid formerly received from the Confessor. In 1070 the Scottish king married Margaret, Edgar's sister, as his second wife (his first having been Ingebiorga, widow of Thorfinn of Caithness), a marriage which, in conjunction with the asylum granted to Saxon refugees, had a most important effect in improving the condition of the country, both by promoting civilisation and education. Malcolm, in 1070, bound by his alliance with Edgar, harried the northern districts of England, upon which William retaliated by penetrating as far as Fife, in 1072, where, at Abernethy, the Scottish king swore fealty to him, and surrendered his son Duncan as a hostage, receiving in return the grant of certain lands in England. In 1075, Malcolm succeeded in persuading Edgar to renounce his claim to the English throne. In 1079, on William's absence in Normandy, Malcolm ravaged England as far as the Tyne, drawing down by this act an invasion of Scotland by Prince Robert in the following year. In 1091, Malcolm again espoused the cause of Edgar Atheling, and invaded England, meeting William Rufus near Leeds; here, however, a peace was concluded by the exertions of Robert and Edgar, Malcolm swearing fealty to the King of England. In August, 1093, the Scottish king was summoned to Gloucester for the completion of the treaty, but was there threatened with so much arrogance by William that he asserted his independence and hurried back to Scotland, where he collected an army with which he invaded England. He was slain in battle on the banks of the Alne, by the hand of Morel of Bamborough (November 13th, 1093), and buried at Tynemouth. His son Edward perished at the same time. "An able king, and a bold and fearless warrior," says Mr. Robertson, "the traits that have been preserved of his private character evince the kindliness of disposition and frank generosity which not unfrequently adorn so gracefully the character of a brave man." Malcolm had six sons and two daughters, the eldest of whom, Maud, married Henry I. of England; the younger, Mary, Eustace, Count of Boulogne. The reign of Malcolm, from its effects in civilising and consolidating Scotland, is a

most important epoch in the history of that country.

Robertson, *Early Kings of Scotland*; Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*.

Malcolm IV. (the Maiden), King of Scotland (1153—1165), son of Prince Henry and Ada de Warenne, succeeded his grandfather, David I. (1153). A few months after his succession, an attempt was made to wrest the kingdom from him by Somerled of Argyle and the sons of Wymund. In 1157 he surrendered to his cousin, Henry II. of England, the counties of Northumberland and Cumberland, an act which excited much opposition in Scotland, and led, in 1160, to a rebellion headed by six Scottish earls. Malcolm, who was with Henry in France, on the Toulouse expedition, hurried back to Scotland, and succeeded in quieting the rebels. He also subjected Galloway and Moray in the same year. In 1164 Malcolm again defeated Somerled, who was invading his territory. He died at Jedburgh, at the early age of twenty-four (December, 1165).

Malcolm, natural son of Alexander I., conceived the idea of making himself king of the country north of the Forth and Clyde, in place of David I. In this project he was aided by Angus of Moray. He was, however, defeated in 1130, and finally reduced to subjection (1134).

Malcolm, Sir John (*b.* 1769, *d.* 1833), was born at Langholm, in Dumfriesshire. In 1783 he went to India as a cadet. He was present during the second Mysore War (q.v.), and was appointed Persian interpreter in the camp of the Nizam. In 1798 he was assistant to the Resident at Hyderabad. He was present at the third Mysore War (q.v.), and at its termination was appointed secretary to the commission which was to arrange the settlement of Mysore. When the commission had done its work, Malcolm was sent to the Persian court (1799), where he successfully concluded a treaty of alliance against the French. He acted as private secretary to Lord Wellesley in 1801—2. He acted as political agent in Lord Lake's camp during the Holkar War, and negotiated the Treaty of Raipoor Ghaut (1806). In 1806—7 he returned to Mysore, to act as Resident. In 1808 he was despatched on a second mission to Persia, in which he was totally unsuccessful. In 1810 he was again sent to Persia, and was well received. In 1814 his *History of Persia* was published. He was present as Madras political agent and general during the Mahratta War (1817—18). He fought with great courage at Mahidpore, and negotiated the treaties with Holkar and Bajee Rao. He was prominent in the settlement of Central India (1818—19), and was appointed political agent. In 1821 he returned to England. He was created G.C.B. In 1827 he returned to India as Governor of Bombay. In 1830 he returned to England; and in 1833 he died. Malcolm's *Political History of India from 1784 to 1823* is a very valuable work. He also wrote a *Sketch of the Sikhs*, a *Memoir of Central India*, and a *Life of Lord Clive*.

Kaye, *Indian Officers*.

Maldon, The Battle of (991), was fought between the English, under Brihtnoth, and the Danes, led by Guthmund, and Olaf Tryggvesson. The invaders were boldly resisted, but proved victorious, and Brithnoth and a large number of the English fell. This battle owes its chief importance to the grand song which was written in commemoration of it.

The story of Maldon may be read in Sweet's *Anglo-Saxon Reader*. A fine translation is given by Mr. Freeman in his *Old English History*.

Malignants, The. A phrase used by the Parliament to describe the king's evil advisers. It occurs frequently in the Grand Remonstrance. "All the fault is laid upon ill ministers, who are there called a malignant party" (May). The Commons began by saying that for the last twelve months they have laboured to reform the evils which afflict the kingdom, and "do yet find an abounding malignity and opposition in those parties and factions, who have been the cause of those evils." They go on to say that "the root of all this mischief" is "a malignant and pernicious design of subverting the fundamental laws and principles of government, upon which the religion and justice of this kingdom are firmly established." Strafford and Laud were the heads of this "malignant party," who were "the actors and promoters of all our misery." This party, they conclude, still exists, hinders the work of reformation, and sows discord between king and Parliament, and between Parliament and people. The name came to be applied afterwards to all who supported the king against the Parliament. The Lord Mayor of London, Sir Richard Gourney, says Clarendon, "grew to be reckoned in the first form of the malignants, which was the term they imposed upon all those they meant to render odious to the people."

May, *Long Parliament*; Clarendon, *Rebellion*.

Malmesbury, William of (*b. circa* 1195), is one of the greatest of our mediæval chroniclers. His uneventful life was spent in the abbey of Malmesbury, of which he was librarian and precentor. His most important historical works are, *The Gesta Regum*, *The Gesta Pontificum*, *The Life of St. Dunstan*, *The History of Glastonbury*, and the *Historia Novella*. The *Gesta Regum* extends from the year 449 to 1128. "Considering the age in which he lived," says Sir T. Hardy, "the sources whence he has drawn his materials are surprisingly numerous. . . . Little

seems to have escaped him, and his skill and judgment in arranging them have so kept pace with his industry, that more information relating to manners and customs is, perhaps, to be gathered from him than from all those who preceded him." The *Historia Novella* extends from the year 1126 to 1142, where it ends abruptly.

An edition of the *Hist. Novella* and *Gesta Regum* was published by the Eng. Hist. Soc., and there is a translation in Bohn's *Antiquarian Library*. The *Gesta Pontificum* has been published in the Rolls Series.

Malown, The Siege of (April 15, 1815), occurred during the Goorkha War. After an extremely arduous service amid the hills of the Upper Sutlej, General Ochterlony succeeded in confining Umur Singh, the Goorkha general, to the fort of Malown, which was situated on a mountain ridge, with a steep declivity of 2,000 feet on two sides. On April 16 a sally was made upon the British works by the whole Goorkha force, which, however, was obliged to retire, with the loss of 500 men. The occupation of Almorah (April 27) isolated the Goorkha force in Malown, and, as Umur Singh refused to come to terms, the greater part of his force deserted to the English. He himself retired into the fort, with about 200 men, who still clung to him. But when the English batteries were about to open, he felt unwilling to sacrifice in a forlorn conflict the lives of the brave men who had generously adhered to him to the last, and accepted the terms offered to him, thus ceding the whole of the conquests which the Nepaulese had made west of the Kalee. General Ochterlony allowed him to march out with his arms and accoutrements, his colours, two guns, and all his personal property, "in consideration of the skill, bravery, and fidelity with which he had defended the country committed to his charge." [Goorkha War.]

Malplaquet, The Battle of (Sept. 11, 1709), was fought during the War of the Spanish Succession, between the English and the troops of the Empire, under the Duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugene, and the French, under Marshal Villars. The battle was the most bloody and obstinately contested of the whole war. The French fought with a determination such as they had not shown in the earlier battles of the war, and their desperate resistance made the battle a slaughter. Twelve thousand of the French were slain, but the loss of the allies was even greater, and has been put at double the number. The object of Marlborough and Eugene was gained, however, and the strong town of Mons was forced to surrender.

Martin, *Histoire de France*; Coxe, *Marlborough*; *Marlborough Despatches*; Stanhope, *Reign of Queen Anne*.

Malsnechtan, "King of Moray," was the son of Lulach. In 1077 he rebelled against, and was defeated by, Malcolm Canmore. He died in 1085, having obtained a partial independence.

Malta, an island in the Mediterranean Sea, has been well known in history ever since the fifth century before Christ. In 1070 the Arabs, who had held the island since 870, were driven out by the Norman lords of Sicily, 1090. Henceforth it followed the fortunes of the Sicilian kingdom until 1530, when it was made over to the Knights of St. John by Charles V., who had inherited it in 1516 together with the crown of Aragon; in 1565 the island was attacked by the Turks, but was successfully defended, and in spite of subsequent attacks by various nations, remained in possession of the Hospitallers until 1798, when it capitulated to the French. The Maltese, however, speedily revolted against their new masters, and endeavoured to drive the French out while the island was blockaded from 1798 to 1800 by a combined fleet of Portuguese, Sicilian, and English vessels. The Maltese were also assisted on land by English troops, and in September, 1800, the French, who were commanded by General Vaubois, were compelled to surrender to General Pigot. By the Peace of Amiens (1802) it was proposed that Malta should be restored to the Knights of St. John, but this was never done, and in 1814 the island was finally annexed to England by the Treaty of Paris, to the great joy of the Maltese. The island is now most important as an arsenal and dockyard, and is the headquarters of the Mediterranean fleet, whilst its value as a military station is great. The capital of Malta is La Valetta, founded (1566) by La Valette, the Grand Master of the Knights of St. John. The government of the island is vested in a governor (military), the vice-president, the lieutenant-governor and chief secretary, with other official and elected members. The government of Malta also includes the neighbouring islands of Gozo and Comino.

Martin, *Colonies*.

Malthus, Thomas (*b.* 1766, *d.* 1834), studied at Jesus College, Cambridge, where he obtained a fellowship and took orders. In 1805 he was appointed professor of history at Haileybury College. He wrote several works on political economy, including the famous *Treatise on Population* (1798), an *Inquiry into the Nature and Progress of Rent* (1815), and *Principles of Political Economy* (1820). The leading principle which Malthus lays down in his economical writings is that of the misery caused by over-population, and of the tendency of the population everywhere to increase faster than the means of subsistence. Hence he argues that unless the population is kept down, the time must at length come when it will be no longer possible to find food for it. His theories are not accepted com-

pletely by modern economists; but their effects on the economical speculation and the political thought of the nineteenth century have been unequalled.

Maltote, or **Malatolta,** meaning literally "an evil tax," was the term generally applied to the unjust tax upon wool levied by Edward I., and other kings. It was abolished by art. vii. of the *Confirmatio Cartarum* of Edward I.

Man, The Isle of, was in early times inhabited by a Celtic population belonging to the Goidelic stock. According to Bede, it was included in the Empire of Edwin of Northumbria. Subsequently, it was settled by Norse pirates, and its political institutions have since been mainly of the Norse type, the bulk of the population and the language remaining Celtic. On its conversion to Christianity it became the seat of a bishopric called the Bishopric of Sodor (*i.e.*, the Southern Isles, *Sudreyjar*) and Man, which first depended on Trondhjem, but ultimately on York. In 1264 Alexander III. of Scotland acquired the Southern Isles by purchase from Magnus of Norway, and in 1275 finally subdued the Manx men. Shortly afterwards the island came into the hands of the English, and in 1290 was granted by Edward I. to John Baliol. In 1307 Piers Gaveston was made lord of the island by Edward II., though he did not retain his territory for long. Man now passed successively through the hands of the Montagues, Scropes, and Percys until it was given in 1406 to Sir John Stanley, who became Lord or King of Man; the island remained in the possession of the Stanley family (Earls of Derby) until 1735, when it became the property of the Dukes of Athole; it was partly sold to the crown in 1765, and entirely given up by its owner in 1829. In 1651 Castle Rushen, at Castletown the capital, was bravely defended by Charlotte de la Tremouille, Countess of Derby, against the Parliamentary forces, and was only surrendered at last owing to the treachery of the governor, Christian. The island was given back to the Stanleys at the Restoration. During the 18th century it was notorious as the resort of smugglers. The government of the island is independent, and is administered by a governor and the Tynwald, which is composed of two houses — namely, the Upper House, or Council, consisting of certain officials (usually ten in number), and the House of Keys, which consists of twenty-four of the principal islanders. There are two deemsters, or judges, who try civil and criminal cases; there are courts of exchequer and chancery besides common law courts.

Munch, *Chronicon Regum Manniæ;* Sacheverel, *Hist. of Man.*

Manchester was a small Roman settlement, first occupied in A.D. 79. It was reduced by Edwin of Northumbria in 620, and seems to have been occasionally one of the residences of the Northumbrian princes. One of Edward the Elder's fortresses was built here in 923. It was made a market town in 1301, and was an important seat of the woollen manufacture early in the fourteenth century. In the Civil War of the seventeenth century Manchester declared for the Parliament. It was unsuccessfully besieged by Lord Strange, September, 1642, and occupied by Fairfax, January, 1643. In the rebellion of 1745 it was occupied for a few days by Prince Charles Edward. During the American War the citizens of Manchester (where by this time a cotton manufacture was flourishing) were very hostile to the colonists, and equipped a regiment to serve against them. Serious riots against the introduction of machinery took place October 9, 1779. In March, 1817, a meeting of the "Blanketeer" rioters took place, and preparations were made for a march on London. In 1819 (August 16) occurred the so-called "Peterloo" Massacre, when a large meeting of reformers was dispersed by the yeomanry. Manchester was made a Parliamentary borough by the Reform Bill of 1832, with two members, received a third in 1869, and now returns six. In 1847 Manchester was made the seat of a bishopric, the collegiate church built in 1422 being constituted the cathedral.

Manchester, Edward Montagu, 2nd Earl of (*b.* 1602, *d.* 1671), eldest son of Henry, first earl, educated at Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge, accompanied Prince Charles to Spain, represented Huntingdonshire in the first two Parliaments of Charles II., and was summoned to the Upper House in May, 1626, as Baron Montagu, of Kimbolton. He succeeded his father as Earl of Manchester, Nov. 7, 1642. In 1640 Lord Kimbolton was one of the peers who urged Charles to call a Parliament; he also acted as one of the commissioners to treat with the Scots, and his name was amongst those used by Lord Saville in the forged invitation to the Scots. In the Long Parliament he was one of the leaders of the Puritans in the House of Lords, and his importance was shown by his being the only peer joined with the five members impeached by the king. He raised a regiment and fought under Essex at Edgehill. In Aug., 1643, Manchester was appointed Serjeant-major-general of the six associated counties, in which capacity he reconquered Lincolnshire, and took part in the battle of Marston Moor. His subordinate, Cromwell, to whom most of these successes were due, blamed him for the slowness of his movements after that battle, and the little use he made of the victory. Manchester, with the army of the Association, was summoned south to oppose the king after his victory over Essex, in Cornwall. But he showed at the second battle of Newbury, and

after it, the same hesitation to make use of a success, or an opportunity. Cromwell accused him to the House of Commons, and a lively quarrel took place. A committee of the Commons was appointed which heard witnesses, and collected evidence against the earl; but the charge was dropped when Manchester had been removed from command by the Self-denying Ordinance. The earl remained, however, one of the Derby House Committee, and became Speaker of the House of Lords, and one of the Keepers of the Great Seal. He also became Chancellor of the University of Cambridge, and conducted the visitation and reform of that university. Manchester resisted the trial of the king and the foundation of the Commonwealth, refused to sit in Cromwell's House of Lords, and helped to bring about the Restoration. Charles II. appointed him Lord Chamberlain in order to prove his reconciliation with the Presbyterians.

Manchester's Quarrels with Cromwell (Camden Society); *Camden Miscellany*, vol. viii.; Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion* and *Life*.

[C. H. F.]

Manchester, Charles Montagu, Earl and Duke of (*d.* 1722), succeeded to his father's earldom in 1682. At the Revolution he joined the northern rising in favour of the Prince of Orange. He accompanied William III. to Ireland. In 1696 he was sent as ambassador to Venice. In the following year Manchester went as envoy to Paris, where he shortly was informed that Louis had accepted the Spanish crown for his grandson. He sent news to William of the proclamation of James III. as King of England, and was at once recalled. His correspondence at the time reveals feelings of despondency. He became Secretary of State, but on the accession of Anne was dismissed from office. In 1707 he was sent as ambassador to Venice, but was instructed to stop at Vienna, in order to try and dissuade the Emperor from sending troops to Naples. On the death of Anne, Manchester declared for the house of Hanover. He was created Duke of Manchester in 1719.

Mandeville, William de (*d.* 1189), Earl of Essex and Albemarle, was one of the commanders in Henry II.'s French wars, and was frequently employed by that king on diplomatic business. On Richard's accession Mandeville was appointed Justiciar and regent of the kingdom in the king's absence on the Crusade conjointly with Hugh de Pudsey, but he held this office only two months, when he suddenly died.

Mangalore, Treaty of (May 11, 1784), was concluded between the English and Tippoo. It was based on a mutual restitution of conquests; Tippoo was recognised sovereign of the Carnatic Balaghaut, which he had conquered from the Nizam. The kingdom of Travancore was declared to be under English protection.

Manitoba, a province of Canada (q.v.), formerly known as the Red River Settlement, with an area of 73,956 square miles, and a population of 255,211. The lieutenant-governor, appointed by the governor-general of the Dominion, has an executive council of five members, and there is a legislative assembly of forty members, who are elected for a period of four years. Manitoba has four representatives in the Senate, and ten in the House of Commons of the Dominion. [Red River Expedition.]

Manners, Lord John. [Rutland, John James Robert Manners.]

Manny (or De Mannay), Sir Walter (*d.* 1372), was a native of Hainault, and came over to England in the train of Queen Philippa. He took a very prominent part in the French wars of Edward III.'s reign. Shortly before his death he founded the Charterhouse in London.

Mannyng, Robert, or Robert de Brunne (now Bourn) in Lincolnshire, was a canon of the Gilbertine order. About 1303 he translated a French *Manuel des Péchés* under the title *Handlying Synne;* and between 1327 and 1338 the French *Chronicle of Longtoft* (down to the death of Edward I.) into English rhyme with additions.

The *Chronicle* was published by Hearne, Oxford, 1725; and again in 1810.

Manor. "Manor" was the Norman name for the Saxon township: "Villas quas a manendo manerios vulgo vocamus," Ordericus Vitalis quaintly says. But it differed from the township, as ordinarily regarded, in that, to use the phrase of Sir H. Maine, it was not a group of households democratically organised and governed, but a group of *tenants*, autocratically organised and governed. Whether the "mark system" (q.v.) or the manor came first is disputed. Some writers (*e.g.* Seebohm) regard the manor as a continuance of the Roman *villa*, or estate worked by slaves or semi-servile tenants bound to the soil (the Roman *coloni*), and the township as a later stage. Others, like Von Maurer, regard the "mark system" as the earliest, and the manor as a side-growth which displaced it. This view is taken in the present article; but it is clear that the Norman Conquest did little more than organise and extend an existing system, and give it a new name. Many causes, as yet but imperfectly understood, may have brought originally free townships into a condition of dependence. Every freeman had to find someone who would act as a permanent surety for him, or *borh*, and be answerable for his appearance in courts of law; and such a borh would naturally be found in the most important men of the

village. The burden of military service, also, caused men to *commend* themselves to others. As this protection would only be given in return for services of some kind, there was "a constant assimilation going on between the poor landowner and the mere cultivator of his lord's land" (Stubbs). The state of things at the beginning of the eleventh century is illustrated by the *Rectitudines Singularum Personarum*. This begins with two general sections as to the duties of thegns and *geneats*. While the thegn is subject to the *trinoda necessitas*, the geneat is not only to pay *gafol* or rent, but to "ride and carry and lead loads, work and support his lord, reap and mow, cut the hedge and keep it up . . . . and go errands far and near wherever he is directed." A distinction is drawn between two classes of geneats, the cottiers and the *geburs*. The service of the latter is fixed at two days a week, with some slight additions, and he holds a *yardland* (*virgate* in the twelfth century Latin translation). His position seems, indeed, to have been the same as that of the ordinary villein of the twelfth or thirteenth century. Soon after the Conquest the whole country is found to be divided into "manors," which are regarded as the units of the feudal organisation of society. For the first two centuries the evidence as to village life is scanty and of doubtful import, but for the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries there are abundant sources of information. Of these the chief are the Hundred Rolls of Edward I.—a survey of five midland counties in 1279, Fleta (*circa* Ed. I.), and the Rolls of the Manor of Winslow for the reign of Edward III. The conclusions drawn from these may be thus summarised:—A manor was divided into *demesne land* and land in *villenage*. The former included the home-farm of the lord, and portions held by "free tenants" either by socage or by military service. The land in villenage was occupied by persons of two classes (as in the *Rectitudines*). Two-thirds or more of the soil were usually held in *virgates* or half-virgates, by a virgate (=Northumbrian *husband-land*) being understood a house and messuage in the village and some thirty acres of arable land, held in acre or half-acre pieces scattered over the three common fields and cultivated according to a common plan; to these must, of course, be added a share in the pasture. Inferior to these *virgarii* or *yardlings* were the cottiers who tilled only some five to ten acres. The services rendered by both classes may be divided into *week work* (ploughing, reaping, &c., usually for two or three days a week, or at fixed times), *precariae* or *boon days* (special services), and fixed payments in money or kind. Oxen and ploughs for labour on the lord's demesne were provided sometimes by the villeins alone, sometimes by villeins and lords jointly; the cottiers, however, having neither, took no part in the work of ploughing. These services were often commuted for money payments, though local usage varied considerably. For instance, in Bedfordshire and Buckinghamshire, under Edward I., commutation was general, while in Huntingdonshire and Oxfordshire it seems to have been the exception. It must be remembered that the villeins were also subject to such servile "incidents" of their tenure as the marriage-fine and the like. The chief officials of the manor were the seneschal or steward who represented the lord, sometimes over several manors, held the courts and arranged the ploughing; the præpositus or reeve, representing and elected by the villeins, and responsible for the performance of the due services; and the bailiff or farm manager. In all manors were two courts, confused somewhat in practice though separate in legal theory: the *court baron*, representing the old mark moot or assembly of the villagers, to make by-laws for the cultivation of the common fields; and the *court customary*, for business arising out of the villein tenure. Many manors had also a *court leet* or criminal jurisdiction, *i.e.*, an exemption from the hundred courts by grants of *sac and soc*, and to this was often added *view of frankpledge*, which freed the tenants from the necessity of attending at the Greater Court of the Hundred, or Sheriff's Tourn. Such was the mediæval constitution of the Manor, and such through the changes of English political history is what it has since remained to a large extent in theory; though the functions of the manorial courts and officers have altogether lost their importance.

The chief original authorities besides those mentioned above are *Domesday*, the *Liber Niger* of Peterborough, *The Bolden Book*, the Newminster, Kelso, Worcester and Gloucester *Cartularies*, the *Domesday of S. Paul's*, and Fitz-Herbert, *Boke of Surveying* (1539); Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, ch. vii.; Seebohm, *Engl. Village Community*; Maine, *Village Communities*, lect. v.; Maitland, *Domesday Book and Beyond*; Vinogradoff, *Villenage in England*; and Cunningham, *Growth of English Industry*.

Mansfield, William Murray, Earl of (*b.* 1705, *d.* 1793), was the fourth son of David, Earl of Stormont, and was born at Scone, near Perth. He was educated at Westminster and Oxford, and was called to the bar in 1730. In 1740 he was made a king's counsel, and two years later Solicitor-General, with a seat in Parliament for Boroughbridge. In the following year he increased his reputation by his defence of the city of Edinburgh against the proceedings taken in Parliament with reference to the Porteous mob. In 1754 he succeeded to the place of Attorney-General, and two years later he became Lord Chief Justice of England, with the title of Baron Mansfield. In his new position he at once proceeded to reform the slow and tedious practice of the court. In 1757 he was induced to accept the office of Chancellor of the Exchequer, which he held for only

three months, and in the same year he was for the second time offered the Great Seal and again refused to take it. Unfortunately, Lord Mansfield accepted a seat in the cabinet, and so assumed the character of a political judge, nor was the popular suspicion reassured by his growing coldness to Chatham on the death of George II. and the rise of Lord Bute. On the question of general warrants, though still a member of the cabinet, he supported Pratt's judgment and affirmed their illegality. On the fall of the Grenville ministry, Lord Mansfield retired from the cabinet, and now for the first time encountered Lord Camden in the House of Lords. On the subject of America the two great judges were opposed, Lord Mansfield holding the absolute dominion of England over the colonies. When Chatham resigned in 1768, the Duke of Grafton called in the advice of Lord Mansfield; but when it became necessary to appoint a successor to Camden, he again refused the Great Seal. On Yorke's death the seal was put into commission, and Lord Mansfield virtually acted as Lord Chancellor. On Lord North's accession to power began a series of encounters between Mansfield and Chatham on the subject of Wilkes's election for Middlesex; the cause of the former was thoroughly bad, and he came but feebly out of the fray. Nor did the Chief Justice add to his reputation by his charges to the jury on the law of libel, which so often occupied the courts in consequence of the prosecution of Woodfall and other printers; charges which exposed him to the attacks of Junius. In October, 1776, he was raised to the dignity of an earl. During the later years of his career he confined himself almost entirely to the exercise of his judicial functions, and took but little part in politics. In 1788 "the increasing infirmities of Lord Mansfield induced him to retire from his office, after having presided with distinguished lustre as head of the common law for upwards of thirty-two years." After this he lived almost entirely in retirement, taking little or no part in politics, until his death, in March, 1793, at the venerable age of eighty-nine. His reputation has been established beyond all dispute; and he lives for posterity as the greatest common law judge of modern times, and as the founder of our commercial law.

Campbell, *Lives of the Chief Justices*; Macaulay, *Essays on Chatham*; Stanhope, *Hist. of England*; *Chatham Correspondence*; Massey, *Hist. of Eng.*; Trevelyan, *Early Years of Fox*; Lord Waldegrave, *Memoirs*.

[W. R. S.]

Manufactures. The rise and progress of manufacture in England may be said to be, after the political development of English institutions, the most striking fact in the history of modern civilisation. It will be quite obvious that no community can spare labour for any other process than that of supplying food, and other bare necessaries of life, as long as all the labour of those who constitute the community is needed for the acquisition of such necessaries. In utterly inhospitable climates, and among peoples who have emerged from barbarism, there is no room for that division of employments which enables persons to devote themselves to callings destined to supply the products which can be exchanged regularly for food and similar necessaries. Even after agriculture is practised, and the labour of the husbandman can supply him with more food than is needful for his own wants and the wants of his family, manufactures proper, as opposed to domestic industry, grow very slowly. The husbandman's labour is fruitful, but is exposed to risks, and it is found that in the early history of communities the reality or pretence of defending him in his calling is the first division of employments which is developed, and forms the excuse for the first charge which is put on his resources. The history of modern Europe, as illustrated by its most ancient documents, is quite conclusive on this subject. The change of government, the establishment of a reciprocal obligation between superior and inferior, which is the essence of that which we know as the feudal system, was affirmed and justified on the plea that the king's peace and the lord's protection were a real boon to the husbandman, and, therefore, should be paid for.

In the earlier Middle Ages, and long before the English manufactures had developed, Venice, the Hanseatic towns, and those of the Low Countries had become important seats of industry. In the history of manufactures, it is found to be almost invariably the case that the supply of a surplus of agricultural products, other than food, precedes the local development of manufacture from other products. The English people supplied wool for the Flemish manufacturers long before they became the rivals of the Flemings in woollen goods, just as the Australian English do now.

Manufacturing countries have always developed at a very early stage of their existence free institutions, and impatience at despotism, whether it was over action or over thought. This has been seen in all European experience. Resistance to arbitrary authority was developed with more or less energy in the manufacturing towns of southern France, of Italy, of the Low Countries, and in those parts of England which were especially the cradle of manufacturing industry. These districts also are characterised by opposition to Papal authority, and by the dissemination of opinions which the hierarchy of the age called heretical. The struggle of the Flemish Netherlands with the dukes of the house of Burgundy, and their descendants, the princes of the house of Austria, was continued for centuries. The States were at last subdued, and their manufactures were ruined when

they became obedient. The same facts apply to the free cities of the German Empire, to those of Italy, northern Spain, and other regions. Political freedom and religious liberty are conditions almost absolute of manufacturing energy and success.

The opportunity for early manufacture is aided or even caused by advantages of situation, climate, and natural products. In past times the first two were all-important. Manufacture implies trade, and neither could be conveniently carried on in countries where harbours are periodically blocked with ice, or were remote from other centres of commerce. Hence the great marts of early Europe, and by implication the chief manufacturing centres, were situated on the routes of ancient commerce. The cities of Italy received the eastern produce of the world, and conveyed them across the Alps and down the Rhine, all the localities on the route becoming rich by trade, and the exchange of their own products. When the roads through Central Asia were blocked by Turkish hordes, and when, finally, the last remaining route was blocked by the conquest of Egypt in the beginning of the sixteenth century, Italy was impoverished, and the German cities with them. Amsterdam and the cities of the Netherlands became opulent partly because they were on the highway of the Rhine, partly because they absorbed and distributed the produce of Scandinavia and the Baltic. But some of the advantages of climate were not yet discovered, or had not yet become important. In the manufacture of textile fabrics, a moist and equable climate has been found to be of the highest value; but in those days it was of little importance, for the texture of the product was coarse, and its quality was low. Similarly, as all weaving was done by hand, and in rude looms, the presence of such materials as would save human labour by mechanical appliances was undiscovered, and its absence was therefore not appreciated.

Five centuries ago England was, in contrast with other European nations, opulent, on the way to free institutions, and on the whole possessed of an effective and vigorous police over offenders against the king's peace. It had a considerable export trade in wool, by which the Flemish weavers, as yet under the mild rule of their native counts, grew rich. Inferior to this trade, but still important, was that in hides, which were also exported to the Flemish tanneries. But domestic manufactures were few, and these were nearly all centred in the eastern counties, particularly in Norfolk. For fine linens and the better kinds of cloth, England depended on the Low Countries. Notwithstanding her enormous deposits of iron, she relied for the better kinds on the Baltic trade, especially on that from Scandinavia. She manufactured a little glass, but most of what was needed for churches and castles came from Normandy. The use of coal for smelting purposes was unknown. It was merely employed for domestic use in London and a few ports on the eastern and southern coasts. For salt, a most important article in mediæval economy, England relied almost entirely on the south-west of France, where indeed the English king had long ruled over a wide and opulent district. The few articles of luxury which were purchased by the king, his nobles, and the great ecclesiastics came from Italy, such as silk goods and the best kinds of armour. Even the better breeds of horses were imported into England, and all these articles were paid for, in the main, by wool, in which England had a monopoly of the most characteristic kind.

Gradually, and particularly during the prosperous period of the first half of the fifteenth century, the cloth manufacture which had been greatly improved by the frequent immigration of Flemings into eastern England, spread southwards and westwards. The reason for this migration was undoubtedly the discovery that a finer and stronger yarn can be twisted in a damp climate. Now, Norfolk, the original home of the woollen manufacture, is the driest county in England, and Devonshire, to which the manufacture gradually spread, is one of the wettest. Here it remained till the discovery of steam power, when it naturally went to the district where coal is cheap and the climate is moist. This is especially the characteristic of Lancashire and Yorkshire, where the industry finally settled. The same causes led to the development of the linen and, lastly, the cotton industry in England. But the climate is not equally favourable to silk weaving and dyeing, for which a clear sky and bright sun are special requisites. The growth of these manufactures was materially aided by the wars of religion, as a consequence of which numerous exiles, from the Reformation to the Revolution, migrated to England, bringing with them the appliances and the skill with which they had so long been familiar, of which persecution could not deprive them. But for a very long period, English manufactures could ill bear the competition of foreign manufacture, and while the Parliament and government exercised a very vigorous police over the quality of the articles produced, they were importuned constantly for protection to English industry, a claim to which they gave little heed, till after the Revolution the administration of affairs passed from the king and his agents to a Parliament of landowners and traders, and an administration dependent on their good-will.

The manufacture of iron was chiefly carried on in Derbyshire, Sussex, Surrey, and the Sheffield district, the produce of the former being far inferior to that of the latter, and both being greatly so to that of Spain and Sweden. The art of producing cast-iron from pit-coal is commonly said to have been a

discovery of the middle of the seventeenth century. This is an error, for it was known a century before; many of Elizabeth's pieces of ordnance having been made from cast-iron. But smelting with pit coal was not extensively practised till the middle of the eighteenth century. It is probable that Dudley, who is credited with the invention, did no more than make considerable improvements in the process. It is certain that great progress was made in manufactures during the seventeenth century, and as usual a great development of trade took place, for whatever may be the course of trade in a country where commerce is firmly developed, it is exceedingly difficult to establish trade except domestic manufacture is first fairly started. At the latter end of the seventeenth century the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes was followed by a considerable immigration of silk weavers into England, especially into London, and the establishment of a silk industry in this country, after many attempts had been made to introduce this manufacture, the earliest being in the fifteenth century.

But the beginning of England's real pre-eminence in manufacture dates from the discovery of steam, and of the simultaneous invention of those mechanical processes by which the labour of man is saved and force is regulated and multiplied. The former was the work of Watt and others, the latter of Arkwright and his rivals. England possesses the largest deposits of coal and iron in proximity to each other and to the market. The coal and iron fields of the United States are infinitely more extensive, but they are distant from the seaboard. There are deposits of coal and iron in Belgium, but the field is small, and the produce may soon be exhausted. Hence England, were trade free with other parts of Europe and the world, could for a long period, the length of which is rather guessed at than measured, supply the wants of the civilised world, at least in the most important particulars. She has also the enormous advantage of a moist and equable climate, a condition which is likely to endure, even if the other advantages are lessened, and to make this country the permanent home of the higher and finer textile fabrics.

English industry has not only had to overcome the ordinary difficulties which beset all industries, and the rivalry of other communities, natural obstacles to all industry, but the jealous and watchful energy of foreign protection. Undoubtedly English goods are excluded from, or only grudgingly admitted into countries where they might advantageously compete on fair grounds. But it will be noticed that even when thus weighted they do overleap these barriers; and it may be safely concluded that invention and intelligence being invariably developed under difficulties, the training which both factors in the result, employers and workmen, have had, has rendered them peculiarly ready for the adoption of more generous tariffs by foreign countries, and for the occurrence of those emergencies which arise in the political history of all countries, when an exceptional demand levels, for a time at least, the barriers which a protective policy has raised.

See for the Middle Ages and contemporary history, Rogers's *History of Agriculture and Prices; The Century of Inventions*; Porter, *Progress of the Nation*; McCulloch, *Dictionary of Commerce*; Cunningham, *History of Commerce*. (The monographs on particular trades are too numerous for insertion.) [J. E. T. R.]

Maori Wars. After the transfer of the sovereignty of New Zealand to the crown by the Treaty of Waitangi, 1840, the settlers were engaged in constant disputes with the natives respecting land. The first Maori War took place 1843—47, and resulted in the definition of boundaries. In 1863, in consequence of the encroachments of the whites, war broke out again, and was ended by the submission of the natives, Aug., 1864. In 1868 there were renewed disturbances, and a massacre of the settlers at Poverty Bay and Mohaka. The third war broke out in consequence in July, 1869, and lasted till January, 1870, when the natives submitted [Australia.]

Mar, Donald, Earl of, the son of Christian, sister of Robert Bruce, had passed most of his youth in captivity at the English court, and was therefore singularly ignorant of his native country, when in 1332 he was elected regent in the place of Randolph. Soon after his election to this responsible office, he was completely beaten at Duplin by Edward Baliol, and slain.

Mar, Alexander, Earl of, the natural son of Alexander of Ross, surnamed the Wolf of Badenoch, was in his youth a sort of Highland robber; in 1392 he defeated the Lowlanders, whose lands he was about to ravage at Gasklune, and in 1404, carried off the Countess of Mar from her castle of Kildrummy; having married her, he became Earl of Mar, and in that capacity led the royal troops at Harlaw (q.v.). In 1431 he was defeated at Lochaber by a Highland force under Donald Baloch.

Mar, John, Earl of, was a brother of Alexander, Duke of Albany, and James III. He is described as "comelie in all his behavioures," and as a bold warrior and skilful politician. His popularity aroused the jealousy of Cochrane, the favourite of James III., who persuaded the king to give orders for his murder.

Mar, John Erskine, Earl of (*d.* 1572), the uncle of Murray, Regent of Scotland, was Governor of Stirling Castle, where he had the charge of the infant James VI. In

1571, he repulsed an attack upon Stirling by the queen's party, and in the same year, on the death of Lennox, he was elected regent, an office which he filled with moderation and ability until his death (Oct. 28, 1572). "He was perhaps the only person in the kingdom," says Mr. Robertson, "who could have enjoyed the office of regent without envy, and have kept it without loss of reputation."

Mar, JOHN, EARL OF (*d.* 1634), son of the regent, made an unsuccessful attempt (1578) to obtain possession of the young king James VI. In 1582, he was one of the leaders of the Ruthven Raid (q.v.), and had in consequence to take refuge in England, where he resided for some time at Newcastle, in company with other "banished lords." He was one of those who attempted to go to the rescue of the king at the Gowrie tragedy (q.v.). In 1601 he was sent as ambassador to Elizabeth; he accompanied James VI. to England, and became one of his Privy Councillors and Lord High Treasurer of Scotland (1615).

Mar, JOHN ERSKINE, 11TH EARL OF (*d.* 1732), entered public life early in Queen Anne's reign as a Whig, but soon joined the Tory party. His trimming policy obtained for him the nickname of "Bobbing John." He joined the Whigs in advocating the Scotch Union, and in 1706 was Secretary of State to the Duke of Queensberry at the last session of the Scotch Parliament. In 1710, he became Secretary of State and Manager for Scotland under the Tory administration. On the accession of George I. he was deprived of office, and at once plunged into Jacobite intrigues. The Pretender's standard was raised by him at Braemar on September 6th. He was at once joined by Tullibardine, heir of the Duke of Athole, the Gordons and other clans, and was at the head of 12,000 badly-armed men. A detachment under Brigadier Macintosh was sent to surprise Edinburgh, and was ultimately defeated at Preston. At Sheriffmuir he encountered the royal troops under Argyle, and after an undecided battle Argyle withdrew from the field. In January, the Pretender, after long delay, appeared in Scotland. But his presence infused no energy in the army. They withdrew from Perth to Montrose, and from thence Mar and James Edward stole off to France, deserting their followers. He continued in favour with the Pretender, and succeeded in inducing him to dismiss Bolingbroke from his councils [ST. JOHN]. In 1719, Mar was arrested, by orders of the English government, at Geneva.

March, THE PEERAGE OF. (1) English: The earldom of March was granted (1328) to Roger Mortimer, who, however, was attainted in 1330. His grandson, Roger, was restored to the earldom, and transmitted it through three generations. Edmund, the last of this line, died childless in 1424. His sister Ann was the mother of Richard, Duke of York, whose son Edward, afterwards King Edward IV., bore the title of Earl of March in his father's lifetime. In 1478 the king conferred the earldom on his son, the future King Edward V., on whose accession it became merged in the crown. (2) Scottish: In 1619 James I. created Esmé Stuart, afterwards Duke of Lennox, Earl of March; but this creation became extinct at the death of his grandson Charles, third Duke of Richmond, in 1672. Three years afterwards the Lennox titles were granted to Charles Lennox, natural son of Charles II., by whose descendants they have been since held.

March, AGNES, COUNTESS OF, was a daughter of Randolph, Earl of Murray, and from her dark complexion was known as Black Agnes of Dunbar. In 1338, in the absence of her husband the Earl of March, she gallantly and successfully defended the castle of Dunbar against an English force under the Earl of Salisbury.

March, EDMUND MORTIMER, EARL OF (*d.* 1381), son of Roger, second Earl of March, married Philippa, daughter and heiress of Lionel, Duke of Clarence. In 1380, he was made Lieutenant of Ireland, and large possessions in that country given to him.

March, EDMUND MORTIMER, EARL OF (*d.* 1424), was the heir to the throne on the abdication of Richard II., and his claims were unsuccessfully advanced by Archbishop Scrope and others in 1405, and again by Cambridge in 1415. He, however, submitted to Henry and fought in the French wars. He was subsequently appointed Lieutenant of Ireland, and died of the plague in the castle of Trim. He married Anne, daughter of the Earl of Stafford, but left no issue.

March, ROGER MORTIMER, EARL OF (*d.* 1398), was the son of Edmund, third Earl of March. He married Eleanor, daughter of Thomas Holand, Earl of Kent, and was declared heir to the throne by Richard II. in 1386. He was appointed Lieutenant of Ireland, where he was killed in a skirmish at Kenlys, in Ossory.

Marches of Wales, THE. [WALES; BORDERS.]

Margaret, QUEEN (*b.* 1281, *d.* 1318), second wife of Edward I., was the daughter of Philip III. of France, and was married to Edward I. in 1298. Her character is highly praised by contemporary writers: "she was good without outen lack," says Peter Langtoft; and she seems to have been a worthy successor to Eleanor of Castile. After her husband's death she lived in retirement, and devoted her time and her wealth to acts of charity.

Margaret of Anjou, Queen (*b.* Mar. 24, 1429, *d.* Aug. 25, 1482), wife of Henry VI., was the daughter of Réné, Count of Guise, afterwards Duke of Lorraine and Anjou, and titular King of Naples, Sicily, and Jerusalem. It was her relationship to the French king, whom her father's sister, Mary of Anjou, had married, that caused her to be selected by Suffolk and Beaufort as the wife of Henry VI. Her marriage, which took place on April 22, 1445, was to be accompanied by the cession of Anjou and Maine to King Réné, and it was hoped to found on it a permanent peace. The queen became a violent political partisan, and strong supporter of Suffolk and Somerset, and a bitter enemy to Gloucester (whose death has been with very little evidence attributed to her) and to the Duke of York. Margaret's first child, Edward, was born on Oct. 13, 1453, during the king's insanity, and this event placed her in immediate competition with the Duke of York for the regency. The death of the Duke of Somerset, at the first battle of St. Albans, deprived her of her most trusted counsellor, and forced her still more into the foreground. Her preponderance helped to ruin the cause of her son and her husband. From the beginning she represented an unpopular policy, and her strong partisanship in domestic affairs and her foreign connection, increased that unpopularity. She had no scruples about intriguing with the native Irish, the Scots, or the French to damage the Duke of York, nor did she shrink from making Calais the price of French aid. When the three earls landed in Kent in 1460 she was in the north of England, and their victory at Northampton (June, 1460) obliged her to take refuge in Scotland. She raised in the north a new army, defeated and slew the Duke of York at Wakefield (Dec., 1460), and marched south to beat Warwick at St. Albans. But the battle of Towton (March 28—29, 1461) forced her to fly again to Scotland. She contrived by French and Scotch help to maintain war on the Border until in 1464 the battles of Hedgeley and Hexham put an end to the struggle. For the next six years she lived in exile, mainly at Bar, in Lorraine. In 1470 Warwick was forced to fly from England, and Louis XI. brought about a reconciliation between the earl and Margaret, and an interview took place at Angers, in which it was agreed that Prince Edward should be restored by Warwick's arms and marry his daughter. But the queen and the prince did not land at Weymouth till the day on which the battle of Barnet had destroyed all hopes of their restoration (April 13, 1471). The prince was taken and killed at the battle of Tewkesbury (May 4, 1471), and the queen herself remained in prison till 1476. Louis XI. ransomed her by the payment of 50,000 crowns of gold, but she was obliged to renounce in favour of Edward IV. all her claims to the English throne, and to cede to Louis her rights in the inheritance of her father and mother (Bar, Lorraine, Anjou, and Provence). She was handed over to the officers of Louis on Jan. 29, 1476, and spent the remainder of her life in poverty and retirement.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Gairdner, *Paston Letters*; L. de la Marche, *Le Roi Réné*; Freer, *Life of Margaret of Anjou.*

[C. H. F.]

Mark System is the name applied by modern German historians to a social system based on the tenure and cultivation of the land in common by groups of individuals or families, organised into small self-governing communities. The *Mark*, strictly speaking, is the land held in common by the community in question. The primitive Aryan community, which either was, or supposed itself to be, constituted by the descendants of a common ancestor, is regarded as having cleared for itself a settlement in the dense primæval forest, separated from all other similar settlements by a thick border of woodland, to which properly the word mark (*i.e.*, boundary, march) belongs. Within the limits of the mark was raised the primitive village, where each of the members of the community had his homestead and farm buildings in severalty. Every owner of such a homestead had a right to the usufruct of a portion of the land, which was the general property of the whole community. This land was roughly divided into three portions. Firstly, there was the mark itself, the forest or waste, including the rough natural pastures, which were never enclosed, and into which each of the markmen could turn a fixed number of cattle. Secondly, there was the meadow land, which was sometimes enclosed, but sometimes open. During the open period it was treated like the waste, but when the grass began to grow in the spring it was divided into the same number of allotments as there were households in the village. Each markman looked after his own hay, and gathered and housed his crop of it for winter use. When this was done the fences were thrown down again, and the pasture remained in common until the following spring, when a fresh apportionment occurred. Thirdly, the arable land was divided in much the same way as the pasture. A system of rotation of crops gradually sprang up, and from three to six groups of fields were required to allow of this. In each of these the markman would have his share. All the shares may originally have been equal, but constantly tended to become unequal. [Manor.]

The mark, besides its social and economical importance, was also the political unit of the early state. Every markman was a member of the markmoot, which regulated the partition of land, the rotation of crops, the admission of new members, and the transferrence of property among the old members. In early times it is possible that the marks were judicial

assemblies as well, but in historical times these functions belonged to the larger organisations into which the marks were combined. The extent to which the mark system actually existed is difficult to define. It is safest to regard it as a stage in the development of the German peoples, and not as the one principle to which their whole primitive policy may be referred. In England, as in Germany, the traces of its existence are still abundant. The commons, still so numerous, despite a multitude of Enclosure Acts; the common fields, which until very recently were allotted from year to year to the commoners of the parish; the "three-fold system of tillage;" the place-names ending in "ing," suggesting, as it does, the primitive family settlement which the mark system involved, and the importance of the kindred in Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence, are among its many survivals. But Dr. Stubbs has pointed out that the mark system by itself will not account for all the complex phenomena of primitive English society. Perhaps this is true of Germany as well. Neither the vicus, nor the township, nor the village community, can be directly affiliated to it; but as involving the "two radical principles of German antiquity, the kindred and the community of land," the investigation of the mark system has thrown new light on the study of early institutions.

The greatest authority on the mark system is G. L. von Maurer, esp. in his *Geschichte der Markenverfassung in Deutschland*. See also Nasse, *On the Agricultural Community of the Middle Ages* (Cobden Club), Laveleye, *Primitive Property*; Maine, *Village Communities*, and Seebohm, *The English Village Community*. Dr. Stubbs in his *Const. Hist.* gives a succinct summary of the system, with valuable observations on its relation to English history. [T. F. T.]

Marlborough, The Parliament of (1267), was held for the purpose of restoring order and good government after the Barons' War. It re-enacted as a statute of the realm the Provisions of 1259 with very few alterations, the most important being that the appointment of the royal ministers, and the sheriffs, was now left in the hands of the king.

Marlborough, Sarah, Duchess of (*b.* 1660, *d.* 1744), at an early age entered the household of the Duchess of York. There she became the companion and friend of the Princess Anne, who became passionately attached to her. So intimate were they that they afterwards, as is well known, corresponded under the names of Mrs. Morley and Mrs. Freeman. In 1678 Sarah Jennings married Colonel John Churchill, afterwards Duke of Marlborough. Owing to the influence of the Churchills, Anne deserted her father, and joined the party of the Prince of Orange. In 1692, on her husband's disgrace, Anne refused to dismiss Lady Marlborough from her employment. The result was a quarrel between the queen and the princess, and the latter set up an opposition court at Berkeley House. On the accession of Queen Anne, she received the rangership of Windsor Park and the offices of Groom of the Stole and Mistress of the Robes. The duchess soon proved herself a violent Whig, having been converted to these principles by the Dowager Lady Sunderland. Hence she often had disputes with her mistress, in which Marlborough was not unfrequently involved. In 1703 she lost her only son. Her violent temper had already caused the friendship of the queen to cool towards her. She gradually found herself supplanted in the royal favour by Mrs. Abigail Hill, a poor relation of her own, whom she had introduced into the household. She found that Harley was employing this lady as an instrument whereby to undermine the administration of her husband and Godolphin. In 1708 Marlborough threatened to resign, and the duchess implored Anne to confer her places on her daughters. A temporary reconciliation took place on the death of the queen's husband; but on the departure of the duke for the Continent the friendship cooled again. It was in this year that she is said to have spilled the mythical glass of water on Mrs. Masham's gown, which, according to Voltaire, "changed the face of all Europe." She several times forced herself into the queen's presence. In April, 1710, she saw Anne for the last time. Early in 1711 Anne demanded her key of office, nor were the personal entreaties of the duke of any avail. The duchess promptly began to lampoon the queen and the Tory ministry. She also sent in a claim for the payment of sums she would have received had she accepted the queen's offer of an additional pension as Keeper of the Privy Purse. In 1712 she joined the duke on the Continent. She prayed him not to accept employment under the Hanoverian *régime*. In 1720 she was accused by Sunderland of having furnished money to the Pretender, but she disproved the charge in a series of letters to the king. On the death of Marlborough (1722), the Duke of Somerset and Lord Coningsby were smitten by her mature charms, but both were rejected. Her last years were occupied in drawing up the celebrated *Vindication* of her husband's character and her own. Of the numerous sketches of her character the most famous is Pope's, in his moral essay, *On the Characters of Women*, where she is satirised under the name of "Atossa." [Marlborough; Anne.]

Burnet, *Hist. of His Own Time*; *Vindication of the Duchess of Marlborough*; Mrs. Thomson, *Memoirs of the Duchess of Marlborough*; *Private Correspondence of the Duchess of Marlborough* (1838); Coxe, *Marlborough*; Wyon, *Reign of Queen Anne*; Stanhope, *Reign of Queen Anne*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*

Marlborough, John Churchill, Duke of (*b.* 1650, *d.* 1722), was the eldest son of Sir Winston Churchill. He became a page of the Duke of York. In the year 1672 he fought under the Duke of Monmouth, and with the French against Holland. He greatly

distinguished himself at the siege of Maestricht, and subsequently went through several campaigns under Turenne. In 1678 he married Sarah Jennings, and shortly afterwards became colonel in the Life Guards. On the accession of James he was raised to the peerage. In 1685 his skill repaired the mistakes of the commander-in-chief, Lord Feversham, and crushed Monmouth's rebellion at Sedgemoor. He opened communications with William of Orange in 1687. On the arrival of William in England, Churchill deserted James at Warminster, leaving behind him a polite letter of regret. In the discussion on the disposal of the crown, Churchill voted for a regency; but, finding that his friends were in a minority, he absented himself from the House. On the accession of William and Mary, he was sworn of the Privy Council, made Lord of the Bedchamber, and created Earl of Marlborough. In 1689, on the outbreak of war with France, he commanded the English brigade under the Prince of Waldeck, and defeated the French at Walcourt. On the departure of William for Ireland, he was appointed one of Queen Mary's Council of Nine. When William returned to England, he landed in the south of Ireland, and in five weeks took Cork and Kinsale (1690). He began in this year to correspond with James. His professions of repentance were rewarded by a written pardon. On William's departure for the Continent, Marlborough accompanied him. The Jacobites expected him to desert at the head of his troops. It appears that his plot was to work on the dislike entertained by the English towards the Dutch, in order to induce Parliament to petition the king to discharge all foreign forces. He then hoped to get the English army to further his views. The Princess Anne was persuaded to write repentant letters to her father. But Marlborough was hated and mistrusted by the Jacobites, who thought that he would declare, not for James, but for the Princess Anne. They disclosed the scheme to Portland. William deprived Marlborough of all his offices (1692). As the real state of the case was unknown, his fate excited general sympathy. In this year he was sent to the Tower on account of false accusation given to government against him by an informer called Young; but was soon released. He passed into opposition, exciting the aristocracy against the Dutch; and vigorously supported the Place Bill. In 1694 he betrayed to the Jacobites an intended expedition against Brest commanded by Talmash. So thoroughly was he now mistrusted, that William refused to entrust the regency to Anne on his departure for the Continent. The death of Mary (1694) was followed by a recrimination between William and Princess Anne. Marlborough's designs were now changed, and he was content to wait till the death of William for his own aggrandisement. He became governor to the Duke of Gloucester. In 1696 he was implicated in Sir John Fenwick's confession, but William ignored the accusation. He took a neutral part in the debates on the Resumption Bill, and declared against the reduction of the army. In 1701, when the War of the Spanish Succession was imminent, he was sent to Holland as commander-in-chief; and negotiations for the grand alliance were entrusted to him. William, on his deathbed, recommended him to Anne as the fittest general to carry on his projects. On the accession of Anne, he assumed a position quite unique. "He was at once general, diplomatist, and minister." He occupied the same position which William III. had held as the leader of the European opposition to Louis XIV. His voice was for war, and it was chiefly by his influence that the wish of the Tory party, that England should merely act as an auxiliary, was overcome. War was declared in March, 1702, and Marlborough was made commander-in-chief of the English and Dutch forces. A sketch of Marlborough's military operations is given elsewhere [SPANISH SUCCESSION, WAR OF]. On his return from his first campaign he became Marquis of Blandford and Duke of Marlborough. At home his design to rely on a mixed government had not been carried out, but an almost entirely Tory ministry was formed, of which his friend Godolphin was chief. But the dismissal of Rochester (1703) was followed by that of the extreme Tories in 1704, and a moderate section of that party were placed in office. After the campaign of 1705, Marlborough visited Vienna, Berlin, and Hanover, where he reconciled the differences between the English and Hanoverian courts. In 1706 he with difficulty persuaded his friend Heinsius, Pensionary of Holland, to reject the French terms of peace. In 1707 he visited the camp of Charles XII. of Sweden, and dissuaded that monarch from joining the French alliance, whereby the cause of the allies would probably have been ruined. Meanwhile, at home Marlborough's affairs were not progressing favourably. The nation was getting weary of the war, and the duke's Tory followers would not support his policy. He determined to complete his idea of a composite ministry by admitting a section of the Whigs to office. But the plan was doomed to failure. Harley, seeing the weakness of the coalition, began to intrigue against it, through the queen's new favourite, Mrs. Masham, by arousing in Anne a dread of the subversion of Church interests. The Whig party determined to make their power felt, and joined the High Tories in an attack on the duke's foreign policy. Marlborough and Godolphin were, therefore, obliged to dismiss Harley and his followers, and admit the Whigs to office (1708). Marlborough has been accused of wishing to continue the war from purely selfish

motives. He was sent as plenipotentiary to the Hague, and seemed to have strongly but ineffectually urged upon his colleagues to accept the terms offered by the French in 1709. He made two desperate attempts to obtain a position independent of home politics. He demanded from the Archduke Charles the office of Governor of the Low Countries, worth about £60,000 a year, and he demanded from Anne the post of Captain-General for life. Both requests were refused. In England the violent temper of the duchess had alienated the good-will of Queen Anne. On the fall of the Whigs (1710), Marlborough at once made overtures to the Tories. He seems to have done his best to further the negotiations of Gertruydenberg. But the fall of the duchess already foreshadowed his own. Harley secretly pushed on negotiations for peace. When the duke returned from the campaign of 1710, he entered into communication with his old friends the Whigs, who had joined a section of the Tories under Nottingham. Harley and St. John determined to ruin Marlborough. He was accused of having received large sums of money, amounting to £63,000, on the contracts for supplying the army with bread, and also of having received 2½ per cent. on all subsidies for foreign troops, amounting to £177,000. Marlborough's defence was that the bread money had been habitually received by every commander-in-chief and was employed as secret-service money; and that the percentage on the subsidies was a free gift from the allies. He was, however, deprived of all his offices on Dec. 31. On the death of his friend Godolphin (1711), Marlborough returned to the Continent, and resided first at Frankfort, then at Antwerp. He corresponded frequently with the Hanoverian court, for which he displayed great zeal, advising the Elector to go over to England with a body of troops. At the same time he continued the intrigues with the Jacobite court that he had begun before his fall. On the dismissal of Oxford [Harley], he resolved to return to England, perhaps at the instigation of that politician, perhaps hoping to play a part in the crisis that was at hand. He arrived in England on the day of Anne's death. Much to his disgust, he was omitted from the list of lords justices who were to act until the accession of George. Later on in the year, he was reappointed commander-in-chief; but his power was gone, and he was distrusted by the king. We find him sending money to the Pretender just before the invasion of 1715. Next year an attack of paralysis greatly impaired his faculties. He lived in retirement and partial insanity at Blenheim until his death. "He was," says Ranke, "a true child of the years of the Restoration, of their social training and lax morality, their restless activity in Church and State, in which each individual hoped to turn his natural gifts to account free from the trammels of any thought of consequences, and to attain everything which in the eyes of men seems desirable. . . His father's motto had been 'faithful, but unfortunate.' He, on the contrary, had the favour of fortune in all he undertook: he belonged to those men whose special property it is, men suppose, to be fortunate; but of his fidelity to his sovereign he himself could not have boasted. . . The organisation of the English army after the Revolution was in the main his work . . . . In conducting public affairs, Marlborough by no means lost sight of his own interests. . . His cupidity may have had in it an element of ambition that the family which he was to found might take an equal place with all that was wealthy and aristocratic in England; but over the brilliancy of his success and fame it cast a shade which made the contrast all the more painful."

Coxe, *Marlborough; Marlborough Despatches;* Burnet, *Hist. of His Own Time;* Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.;* Stanhope, Wyon, and Burton's Histories of Queen Anne's reign; Arneth, *Prinz Eugen von Savoyen;* Martin, *Hist. de France;* Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.;* Wolseley, *Life.* [S. J. L.]

Marquis was in early times used to denote the Marchers or lords of the borders. It was first used in its later sense as a title of nobility in England by Richard II., who created De Vere, Marquis of Dublin. The etymology of the word was entirely forgotten, and it was simply used as a title of honour, superior to that of earl, and inferior to that of duke. It has always been sparingly given in England.

Marriage Laws. In the Middle Ages the marriage fines exacted by the king and other lords from wards, and the widows of their tenants, formed one of the most oppressive of feudal incidents. This is shown from the fact that though a lord could bestow his female—and, by the time of Henry III., his male—ward in marriage, yet the king's licence was necessary; and that the abuse of giving widows in marriage against their will had to be guarded against in Henry I.'s Charter of Liberties and in Magna Charta. The civil disabilities of marriage were for the most part incorporated into the common law from the canonical law, the prohibited degrees being regulated by 32 Hen. VIII., c. 88; and 2 & 3 Ed. VI., c. 23. Gradually the law drifted into an uncertain state. The number of forms which constituted a pre-contract multiplied, so that subsequent marriages were liable to be suddenly dissolved; and the consent of parents and guardians was evaded by the aid of Fleet parsons. The Act commonly called Lord Hardwicke's Act (1753) provided therefore that marriages must be performed in the parish church (those of Jews and Quakers alone being excepted) after the publication of banns, or by special licence granted by the archbishop. Any clergyman breaking these restrictions was liable to transportation

for seven years. Further regulations for marriages within the Church of England were provided by the Act of 4 Geo. IV., c. 76. The hardships inflicted upon Dissenters under these Acts occupied for some time the attention both of Lord John Russell and of Sir Robert Peel. In 1836 the latter carried the Dissenters' Marriage Bill, by which marriage by notice to the Registrar of a district was legalised, as well as the publication of banns or licence, and marriages of Dissenters might be solemnised in their own chapels; or, if they preferred it, they might enter into a civil contract before the Superintendent-Registrar. In the previous year all marriages thereafter celebrated between persons within the prohibited degrees were made absolutely void instead of being valid until annulled by sentence of the ecclesiastical court. The marriages of members of the royal family are regulated by the Royal Marriage Act of 1772 (amended by the Act 3 & 4 Vict., c. 32), by which the consent of the sovereign is required for the marriage of the heir to the throne. In Scotland the law is considerably more lax with regard to the recognition of irregular marriages, and in other respects the law remains in the state in which it was in England before Lord Hardwicke's Act. In Ireland cruel and unnecessary restrictions were imposed under the penal laws on the marriages between Protestants and Catholics. These, however, have since been repealed, and in 1844 the law relating to marriages in Ireland was practically assimilated to that existing in England and Wales.

Phillimore, *Ecclesiastical Law*, vol. i.; May, *Hist. of Eng.*, vol. ii., ch. xiv.; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*, vol. iv., ch. xxxi.; 26 Geo. II., c. 23; 4 Geo. IV., c. 76; 5 & 6 Will. IV., c. 54; 6 & 7 Will. IV., c. 85; 7 & 8 Vict., c. 81. [L. C. S.]

Marshal, The, was one of the great offices of the household of the Norman and Plantagenet kings, holding equal or slightly inferior rank to the Constable and the Chancellor. His special function was that of Master of the Horse; but he came to be also charged with a superintendence over the practice of chivalry and the laws of honour. The Marshal, together with the Constable, was the judge of the court of honour. The office of Earl Marshal was made hereditary in the family of the Earls of Pembroke at the close of the twelfth century. It passed by female descent to the Bigods, Earls of Norfolk, and was held by the Mowbrays, the Howards, and the Arundels. It was made perpetual in the descendants of Henry Howard, Earl of Norwich, and has since continued in his descendants, the Dukes of Norfolk. The Earl Marshal is still head of the Heralds' College and appoints officers of arms. In Scotland the office of Marischal became hereditary in the fourteenth century, in the family of the Earls of Keith. The Marischal was made an earl in 1458. The dignity came to an end in 1716, when George, the tenth earl, was attainted for his share in the Jacobite rising.

Marshal, Richard (*d.* 1234), was the son of the great William Marshal, Earl of Pembroke. He succeeded to the earldom on his brother's death in 1231, and soon came forward as the champion of the English against Peter des Roches and the foreign courtiers. For this he was declared a traitor, and the king marched against him. The earl allied himself with the Welsh, and defeated the royal troops. Des Roches now had recourse to treachery, and having induced him to go over to Ireland to defend his possessions, took care that he should be betrayed. He fell mortally wounded at Kildare, having been drawn into a battle by the agents of Des Roches. Mr. Pearson calls him "the first gentleman of his day, with as much learning as a knight needed, and with all his father's loyalty of nature."

Marshal, or **Mareschal,** William, Earl of Pembroke (*d.* 1219), first appears as one of the judges in Richard I.'s time, and one of the council appointed to advise the justiciars during the king's absence from England. He upheld John's claim to the throne, and during that king's struggle with the barons was one of his chief supporters. By his marriage with the daughter of Strongbow he became Earl of Pembroke, and received besides many valuable grants from the king. On the death of John, he was at once appointed regent, and by his wisdom and ability secured the throne to the young king, Henry III. He defeated Louis, of France, and compelled him to quit England, and confirmed the Great Charter.

Marston Moor, The Battle of (July 2, 1644), was fought during the Great Rebellion. York was laid siege to on May 20, 1644, by the Scotch army under the Earl of Leven, and the Yorkshire army under the command of the Fairfaxes. They were joined on June 2 by the army of the Eastern Association under the Earl of Manchester. On July 1 the combined armies raised the siege at the news of the approach of Prince Rupert, who by skilful manœuvring contrived to enter the city without a battle. Against the advice of the Marquis of Newcastle he determined to offer battle, and pursued the Parliamentary army for that purpose. The allied army, numbering in all about 15,000 foot and 9,000 horse, was posted between the villages of Long Marston and Tockwith. The Royalists, about 22,000 strong, were ranged on Marston Moor itself. The battle began about seven in the evening with a general attack on the part of the allies. On the left Cromwell and David Leslie routed Prince Rupert's horse, and, aided by the Earl

of Manchester's foot, put to flight a portion of the Royalist infantry. Meanwhile the whole right wing was utterly defeated, with the exception of Fairfax's own regiment, which succeeded in joining Manchester's horse on the left. A desperate struggle now took place in the centre. The Scotch infantry were attacked in front by Newcastle's foot, in the flank by Goring's victorious cavalry, and at the third charge the regiments of the reserve broke and fled. But the greater part maintained their ground, and their resistance gave time for Manchester's foot, and the cavalry of the left wing under Cromwell and David Leslie, to come to their help. This decided the day. Goring's horse were driven from the field, the Royalist foot scattered, and Newcastle's own regiment of white-coats, which made the most desperate resistance, cut to pieces. The pursuit was continued by moonlight to within three miles of York. The losses on both sides were heavy. The killed alone numbered 4,150 of whom 3,000 were Royalists. The whole of the artillery and baggage of the conquered army was captured, with 100 colours and 10,000 arms.

Sanford, *Studies and Illustrations of the Great Rebellion*; Markham, *Life of Fairfax*; *Baillie's Letters*; *Holles' Memoirs*; *Cromwell's Letters*; Sir Thomas Fairfax's *Short Memorial*; Rushworth's *Collections*; Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion*; Sir Henry Slingsby's *Diary*. [C. H. F.]

Martin Mar-Prelate, Works of, were certain publications by various authors containing attacks on the bishops and Queen Elizabeth. They were supposed to be the composition of John Penry, who was executed in 1593, but were in reality the work of more hands than one, and consisted of "the most coarse, scurrilous, and indecent pasquinades" against the episcopal system. They had a very injurious effect, and were the means of bringing on the controversy between Thomas Cartwright and Archbishop Whitgift.

Burnet, *Hist. of the Reformation.*

Mary, Queen (*b.* Feb. 18, 1516, *s.* July 19, 1553; *d.* Nov. 17, 1558), was the daughter of Henry VIII. and Catherine of Aragon. Several marriage alliances were arranged for her in childhood. In 1518 a treaty was concluded for her marriage with the Dauphin Francis, and when this was broken off it was arranged that she should marry Charles V. (1522), and the project of marrying her to Francis I. of France was also discussed (1527). She was carefully educated, and was an accomplished and precocious child. On the rise of Anne Boleyn the young princess was treated with great harshness. By an Act of 1534 she was declared illegitimate, and she was refused permission to see her mother. She was compelled to subscribe a document in which she declared her own illegitimacy, and the invalidity of her mother's marriage. She was again declared illegitimate in 1536, but by an Act of 1544 (35 Hen. VIII., c. i.) the succession was secured on her. In the reign of Edward VI. she refused to obey the Act of Uniformity; but the Council, though they threatened her, were afraid to proceed to violent measures with her because of her popularity with the people; and though she felt in such danger that she attempted to escape to the Continent, she was nevertheless able to resist all the attempts of the Council to compel her to accept the New Service Book (1551). On the death of Edward she laid claim to the crown (July 9, 1553). Lady Jane Grey was proclaimed queen in London on the following day. But she was absolutely destitute of support; and Mary, advancing from the eastern counties, was joined by considerable numbers of the gentry and nobles, and found herself at the head of a large body of followers. The Duke of Northumberland's forces melted away, and he proclaimed Mary at Cambridge (July 20). On August 3 she entered London, and her reign began. She was a firm and sincere Roman Catholic, and to her uncle, Charles V. of Spain, she looked for assistance and support. Her first act was to liberate the Catholic bishops imprisoned during her brother's reign, and to prohibit preaching without a licence; while some of the prominent Reformers, Hooper, Cranmer, and Latimer were imprisoned. She was declared legitimate by Act of Parliament, and crowned by Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester (Oct., 1553). In Jan., 1554, much to the disappointment of her subjects, she concluded a marriage treaty with Philip of Spain, son of Charles V. Henceforward her reign, which had opened well, was unhappy and disastrous. The insurrection of Wyatt in Kent followed, and though this was put down without much difficulty, it led to the execution of Lady Jane Grey (Feb. 12, 1554), who had been tried and found guilty in the previous November, together with her husband and father. In July the marriage took place. Cardinal Pole came to England, and the Catholic reaction was pushed on. All statutes against the Pope since the twentieth year of Henry VIII. were repealed, though the monastic lands were not resumed. The following year the persecuting statutes of Henry IV. and V. were revived, and under them Hooper, and many other eminent Reformers, were burnt. Under the investigation of Pole and the Spanish court the persecution continued during 1556, and Cranmer, with Latimer, Ridley, and a large number of clergymen and others were put to death as heretics. In the midst of the gloom and distress caused by this persecution, Philip persuaded Mary to declare war against the French. The Spaniards and English won a brilliant victory at St. Quentin (1557); but the campaign was disastrous to England, since it resulted in the capture of Calais by

the Duke of Guise (Jan., 1558). The queen, who had long been sinking under the perplexity and strain of public affairs, and the failure of her measures, never recovered from this last blow. She died a few months after it (Nov., 1558). Mary's character has been indelibly stained in popular opinion by the sanguinary persecution of her reign. Yet it is probable that the full extent of the martyrdom was hardly known to her, for during a great part of the time she was in a state of depression and inaction owing to mental and bodily ill-health. She seems to have been by no means harsh or cruel in her disposition, and conscientiously anxious for the welfare of her country, as well as for the good of the Church to which she was devotedly attached. The unfortunate Spanish marriage was responsible for the worst evils of her reign.

Foxe, *Act and Monuments;* Burnet, *Hist. of the Reformation;* Froude, *Hist. of Eng.;* Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.;* Tytler, *Edward VI. and Mary;* *Calendars of State Papers;* Noailles, *Ambassades en Angleterre;* *Chronicle of Queen Jane and Queen Mary* (Camden Soc.). [S. J. L.]

Mary II., Queen (*b.* 1662, *s.* 1688, *d.* 1694), wife of William III., was the daughter of the Duke of York, afterwards James II., and Anne Hyde. By the command of Charles II., she was educated in the Protestant religion. At the age of fifteen she was betrothed to William of Orange, and married to him 1677. In 1687 they sent a joint expression of their opinion to James, condemnatory of the Declaration of Indulgence. Mary approved of William's expedition to England. She probably never cared for her father, who had established a system of espionage at the Hague, and had refused her pecuniary assistance. In company with the rest of the world, she believed the Prince of Wales to be supposititious. A large section of English statesmen determined, on the flight of James II., to proclaim her as queen. She might, they thought, make her husband Prime Minister, or even give him the title of king. The leader of the party was Danby, while Halifax was the chief supporter of William's interests. At length, in February, 1689, Burnet (q.v.) thought it right to declare her views, that she would surrender her power, with the consent of Parliament, into the hands of her husband. At the same time she wrote an earnest letter to the same effect to Danby. She arrived that month in London. Before her arrival the dispute had been settled. The crown was tendered to William and Mary jointly, and accepted by them. They were proclaimed in London on Feb. 14, 1689. Mary immediately, from her amiable qualities, gained deserved popularity. The court, owing to William's infirmities, was removed from Whitehall to Hampton Court, and from thence to Kensington House. On April 11, 1689, she was crowned with her husband. In the same month they received the crown of Scotland. During William's campaign in Ireland, Mary, aided by the steady friendship of Burnet, acted with admirable decision. Clarendon, her uncle, and several other suspected Jacobites, were lodged in the Tower. On receiving the news of the battle of the Boyne, she wrote to William, imploring that no harm should happen to her father. In 1692 the treachery of Marlborough was discovered, and he was dismissed from his employments, much to the anger of the Princess Anne. The quarrel between the two sisters was final. The guard of honour previously allotted to the princess was taken away; the king and queen went to unjustifiable lengths in their resentment. But Mary soon regained her lost popularity. Once more William left England, and the French fleet was known to be about to escort a French invading army across the Channel. The English navy was understood to be disaffected. The queen sent a despatch, written by Nottingham, in which she refused to believe the reports in circulation, and placed her entire confidence in her naval officers. All disaffection was checked at once, and the battle of La Hogue (1692) resulted in a glorious victory over the enemy. By the queen's order, those wounded in the engagement were relieved at the public charge. In 1694 she sickened of the smallpox, and it was evident that her end was near. William remained day and night at her bedside. Before she died she received a letter of reconciliation from the Princess Anne. Her death, to which she submitted with noble resignation, took place on Dec. 28.

Burnet, *Hist. of his Own Time;* Echard, *Hist. of the Revolution;* Coxe, *Marlborough;* *Marlborough Despatches;* Luttrell, *Relation of State Affairs;* Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.;* Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*

Mary, Queen of Scots (*b.* Dec. 7, 1542; *s.* Dec. 14, 1542; *d.* Feb. 8, 1587), was the daughter of James V. and Mary of Guise, and was born at Linlithgow, a week only before her father's death. In 1543 a treaty with England arranged for a marriage between the young princess and Prince Edward of England. In Aug., 1548, Mary was taken to France for greater security, a marriage being arranged between her and the Dauphin. This marriage took place on April 24, 1558, the Dauphin receiving the title of King of Scots from the Scottish Commissioners. The following year, on the death of Henry II., Mary became Queen of France (as the granddaughter of Margaret, sister of Henry VIII.), being also declared Queen of England by the French and Spanish courts. In Dec., 1560, her husband, Francis II., died, an event which seems to have caused the young queen deep grief, and the following year (Aug., 1561) she returned to Scotland. Here her devotion to the Romish Church at once brought her into collision with Knox and the Reformers. But the lavish splendour of Mary's court, her beauty, and her accomplished wit, soon rendered her exceedingly

popular amongst her people. The first years of her rule in Scotland were taken up with overcoming the disaffection of the Catholic lords of the north, finding a *modus vivendi* with the Reformers, and discussing various projects for the queen's marriage, in all which transactions Mary's adroitness and courage were conspicuous. In 1563 a marriage with Don Carlos, son of Philip II., was proposed by the Guises, and in 1564 fruitless negotiations took place for her marriage with Elizabeth's favourite, Robert Dûdley. In July, 1565, however, she married Henry Darnley (q.v.), to the great disgust of most of her friends. A force quickly collected by the discontented lords was scattered at the approach of Mary and her husband at the head of the loyal army, the confederates taking refuge at the court of Elizabeth, who, in consideration of their efforts to restore Protestantism in Scotland, aided them with money. Meanwhile the vice and folly of her husband rendered it impossible for Mary's domestic life to be a happy one. The murder of her favourite, Rizzio (Mar. 9, 1566), in her presence at Darnley's instigation, is only one of the many insults she endured at his hands. This murder was, however, followed by a feigned reconciliation, the queen escaping from the Confederate Lords in her husband's company to Dunbar Castle. Here a force raised for her protection by Bothwell caused her enemies to fall back. After the birth of her son (afterwards James VI.) on July 19, 1566, Mary became reconciled to many of the rebellious lords, reserving all her resentment for her husband, to whose murder at Kirk of Field she was almost certainly privy. After the acquittal of Bothwell for the murder, Mary was carried off by him to Dunbar Castle, and on his obtaining a divorce from his wife, Lady Jane Gordon, married him (May 15, 1567). She was not, however, destined to remain undisturbed for long. A month later a combination of discontented lords against Bothwell and the queen led to his flight and to her surrender to Kirkcaldy of Grange at Carberry Hill (June, 1567). Insulted at Edinburgh by the people, she was removed to Lochleven Castle, where, on July 23, 1567, she was forced to sign a deed of abdication and to appoint Murray regent of the kingdom during the minority of her son. Queen Elizabeth's interference on her behalf was of no avail, but by degrees the remnants of her party collected, and on her escape in May, 1568, she found herself under the protection of the Hamiltons and other nobles, and at the head of 6,000 men. Her abdication was at once revoked, and aid sought from England and France; but on the defeat of her army at Langside (May 13, 1568), she was compelled to take refuge in England. Having landed at Workington, in Cumberland, she was escorted to Carlisle, and thence to Bolton Castle. Elizabeth, however, refused to grant her a personal interview, and also refused to allow her to return to Scotland, alleging the danger to which she would be exposed as the excuse for detaining her. In Oct., 1568, a commission sat at York to settle the differences between Mary and her subjects; to consider the charges brought against her; to pronounce on the authenticity of the Casket Letters (q.v.), and to provide for the abandonment on the part of the Scottish Queen of all claim to the English crown "during the life of Queen Elizabeth or her descendants." This commission was afterwards removed to London, where, on Nov. 26, the charge of murder was sprung upon the Queen of Scots. Thereupon, her commissioners, acting under Mary's instructions, demanded instant admittance to Elizabeth's presence, and on this being refused, withdrew from the proceedings. On Jan. 10, 1569, judgment was given to the effect that Murray had not been proved guilty of disloyalty, neither had there been anything produced or shown against Mary, "whereby the Queen of England should conceive or take any evil opinion of the queen, her good sister, for anything yet seen." Elizabeth still kept possession of her rival. Plots against the English queen, proposed rebellions, and the papal bull which excommunicated Elizabeth followed, and it is certain that England was in considerable danger from France, Spain, and Rome. In 1570 Mary, having been removed to Tutbury and Chatsworth, was imprisoned in Sheffield Castle, till 1585, when she was taken back to Tutbury, and thence to Chartley. For participation in Babington's plot against the Queen's life (Sept., 1566) she was tried and sentenced to death (Oct. 25, 1586), and beheaded at Fotheringay (Feb. 8, 1587).

Anderson, *Collect. relating to Mary, Queen of Scotland* (1717); *Burleigh State Papers*; Keith, *Hist. of Affairs in Scotland from Reformation to 1568* (Spottiswoode Soc.); Hosack, *Life of Mary Queen of Scots*; Labanoff, *Mém. de Marie Stuart*; Gauthier, *Marie Stuart*; Migrat, *Marie Stuart*; Strickland, *Queens of Scotland*; Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Schiern, *Bothwell*; Mr. Swinburne's article in *Encyclopædia Britannica* (9th ed.).

Mary, Queen of England (*b.* May 26, 1867), Victoria Mary, daughter of Duke and Duchess of Teck, great granddaughter of George III. Married George Frederick Ernest Albert, then Duke of York, on July 6, 1893; became Princess of Wales 1902, and Queen Consort 1910.

Mary of Modena, Queen, wife of James II. (*b.* 1658, *d.* 1718), was the daughter of Alfonso, Duke of Modena, and was married to James in 1673. She was unpopular in England owing to her religion. By James she had six sons, of whom James Edward, the "Old Pretender," was one. After her husband's death she retired to the nunnery of Chaillot.

Maserfield, Battle of (642), was fought between Oswald of Northumbria and Penda of Mercia, and resulted in the defeat and death of the former. Mr. Ingram identifies Maserfield with Mirfield in Yorkshire. It is more likely to have been near Oswestry, a town taking its name from Oswald.

Masham, Abigail (*d.* 1734), afterwards Lady Masham, was a favourite of Queen Anne. Her father was a London merchant who became a bankrupt, her mother was the aunt of Sarah Jennings, Duchess of Marlborough. Mrs. Hill entered the house of Lady Rivers, and afterwards that of Lady Marlborough, who obtained for her the post of bedchamber woman to the queen. In 1707 she was privately married, in the queen's presence, to Mr. Samuel Masham, one of Prince George's gentlemen. This roused the suspicions of the duchess, who soon discovered that Mrs. Masham's cousin Harley, afterwards Lord Oxford, was using her as a means of furthering his interests with the queen. It was thought to be owing to the influence of Harley and Mrs. Masham that Anne created two new bishops without consulting the minister Godolphin. In spite of her violence the duchess found herself gradually supplanted by her former dependent. On the downfall of Godolphin's ministry (1710), Mrs. Masham introduced Harley, now virtually Prime Minister, to the queen. She received the Privy Purse after her rival the duchess had been dismissed, and her husband was raised to the peerage, apparently against the wish of Anne. Harley quarrelled with her, probably about some money he had promised her out of the Asiento Contract, and now relied on the rival favourite, the Duchess of Somerset. Lady Masham joined the Bolingbroke faction, although Swift attempted a reconciliation between the two ministers at her house. In fact, there is some reason to believe that it was through her and Ormonde that the Jacobites at St. Germains induced the queen to dismiss Harley, and she had certainly reproached him for his uselessness shortly before that event took place (July, 1714). Of the remainder of her life nothing is known. From this time Lady Masham's name disappears from history. Her influence over Queen Anne is to be ascribed, first, to her political and Church principles, which were in almost exact accord with those of her mistress, and, secondly, to that "suppleness of temper" which formed so great a contrast to the violent character of the Duchess of Marlborough.

Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; J. H. Burton, *Hist. of Queen Anne.*

Mason, Sir John (*d.* 1566), was distinguished during the reigns of Henry VIII., Edward VI., Mary, and Elizabeth, as a statesman and as a diplomatist. He was sent in 1550 to France to discuss the possession of Boulogne with the French commissioners. He subsequently sided with Northumberland, but was employed on various missions under Mary. After the accession of Elizabeth he, in conjunction with Lord Paget, opposed Cecil, and warmly advocated a Spanish policy. Mason was said to have brought back from his various embassies "the Italian's quickness, the Spaniard's staidness, the Frenchman's air, the German's resolution, and the Dutchman's industry." Mason himself accounts for his success in gaining the favour of four sovereigns by his "speaking little, and writing less," and by "attaining to something which each party esteemed serviceable to them, and being so moderate that all thought him their own."

Tytler, *Edward VI. and Mary.*

Matilda (*d.* 1083), wife of William the Conqueror, was the daughter of Baldwin V., Count of Flanders. She was married to William in 1053, but, being near relations, and not having obtained the papal dispensation, they were placed under excommunication. By Lanfranc's intercession this ban was removed subsequently. Her fame chiefly rests on the Bayeux tapestry (q.v.), which there is great reason for believing to be her own handiwork. Of her personal character little is known, but the story of her having vindictively deprived Brihtric—a Saxon noble who rejected her advances in the days when she was at her father's court—of all his lands, if true, is unfavourable to her character.

Matilda, or **Maud** (*d.* 1118), the first wife of Henry I., daughter of Malcolm III. of Scotland and Margaret, sister of Edgar Atheling. Her original name was Edith, but on her marriage the Saxon appellation was discarded for the Norman one of Matilda or Maud. She had been brought up in the convent of Romsey by her aunt Christine, but never took the veil. Her title, "Good Queen Maud," seems to have been well deserved. She ministered to the poor with her own hands, and was a great supporter of Anselm, and the Church. Her later years were passed in pious seclusion.

Matilda, or **Maud** (*b.* 1103, *d.* 1167), was the only daughter of Henry I. In 1114 she was married to the Emperor Henry V., by whom she had no issue. Henry died in 1125, and her brother William having been drowned, Maud was summoned to England, and homage was done to her as the future queen (1126). In 1128, contrary to the wishes of many of the barons, she was married to Geoffrey of Anjou. The unpopularity of this match gave an opportunity to Stephen to seize the crown on the death of Henry I., but his misgovernment quickly alienated a large number of his subjects, and in 1139 Maud (or the Empress, as she was usually styled) landed in England, and the country was practically divided.

Stephen being in possession of the eastern part, Maud of the western. A period of civil war ensued with varying success till 1147, when the death of Robert of Gloucester, her great partisan, induced Maud to quit the country, and content herself with attempting to establish her authority in Normandy. Her want of success is to be attributed partly to her own overbearing and tyrannical conduct, and partly to the inveterate dislike of the Normans for the Angevins. She lived, however, to see her son Henry crowned King of England.

Matilda, or **Maud** (*d.* 1151), wife of King Stephen, was the daughter and heiress of the Count of Boulogne, and the niece of Henry I.'s queen. She was extremely popular, and deservedly so, as she followed in the footsteps of her aunt, the "Good Queen Maud." She seems to have energetically supported her husband in his wars with the Empress.

Mauritius (or the Isle of France), an island in the Indian Ocean, lying to the east of Madagascar, was discovered in 1507, by a Portuguese navigator named Pedro Mascarenhas, who named his discovery Cerné. In 1598 the island was occupied by a Dutch expedition under Van Neck, and called Mauritius in honour of Maurice, Prince of Orange; but no settlement was made until 1644. In 1712 the island was abandoned by the Dutch only to be occupied three years later by the French, by whom it was held until 1810, when it was taken by an English expedition under Sir Ralph Abercromby. Mauritius has ever since remained under British rule, having been finally ceded to England by the Treaty of Paris (1814). In 1825 a reduction of ten shillings per cwt. on Mauritian sugar caused the island to make rapid progress in civilisation; and at the present day the exports of sugar, rum, and vanilla, are very considerable. The government is vested in a governor, assisted by an executive council of seven members, including the Colonial Secretary, the Procureur-general, and the Receiver-general. There is also a legislative council, consisting of twenty-seven members, ten of them elective. The Seychelles and Rodriguez Islands are dependencies of Mauritius.

Maxima Cæsariensis was one of the Roman districts of Britain. Of its situation nothing is known.

Maximus, Roman commander in Britain, was in the year 383 proclaimed Emperor. He established his power in Britain and Gaul, and in 387 invaded Italy with an army largely composed of British troops. He expelled Valentinian, but in A.D. 388 he was himself defeated and slain.

May, Thomas (*b.* 1595, *d.* 1650), belonged to a good family in Sussex, and was educated at Cambridge. He was one of the most successful and popular authors of the time of Charles I. He wrote five plays and two historical poems, besides translating the *Georgics*, and some of Martial's *Epigrams*. His failure to obtain the laureateship in 1637 is said to be the cause which made him seek the patronage of the Parliament, and become its historian and apologist. His *History of the Parliament* was published in May, 1647, and chronicled events as far as the battle of Newbury (Sept., 1643). He also wrote, first in Latin and then in English, a Breviary of the *History of the Parliament of England*, which extended to the end of the second Civil War. In November, 1650, he died, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. At the Restoration his body was exhumed and removed to the burial-ground of St. Margaret's Church. Chatham praises his "honesty," and Warburton his "candour." But within a few years after his death, Marvell characterises him as a "most servile wit and mercenary pen." He was by no means impartial, but being a skilful advocate strove to avoid the appearance of partiality.

May, *Hist. of the Long Parliament* (Preface to the edition of 1854). Clarendon, *Life*; Guizot, *Portraits politiques des hommes des divers parties.*

Maynard, Sir John (*b.* 1602, *d.* 1690), was born at Tavistock, educated at Exeter College, Oxford, entered the Middle Temple in 1619, and represented Chippenham in the first Parliament of Charles I. He speedily obtained eminence as a lawyer, and was in consequence appointed by the Long Parliament one of the managers in the prosecution of Strafford, and also of Laud. In 1648 he vehemently opposed the vote of non-addresses, and when it passed in spite of his opposition, for a time seceded from Parliament. Thus he took no part in the measures which led to the king's execution and the foundation of the Republic, nor did he again sit in a Parliament until 1656. During the Protectorate, Maynard was committed to the Tower by Cromwell for his argument in Cony's case, showing the illegality of the customs' duties levied by the Protector. To obtain his release he was compelled to sign a submission acknowledging his fault. In spite of this incident Maynard was offered and consented to accept from Cromwell in May, 1658, the post of Sergeant to the Commonwealth. In 1659 Maynard steered his course with great skill; he did not take his seat in the first restoration of the Rump, but waited till the second, and then used his influence to pave the way for the return of the king. Thus he easily made his peace, was knighted, and appointed one of the king's sergeants. In that capacity he frequently took part in the State trials, and he also acted as principal manager for the Commons in the trial of Lord Stafford (1680). In the solitary Parliament of James II., he opposed the encroachment of the king, and he refused to appear for the crown

against the Seven Bishops. In the Convention Parliament Maynard took a prominent part, conducted the conference with the Lords on the question of the "abdication" of James, and was nominated the first of the Commissioners of the Great Seal.

Foss, *Judges of England.*

Mayne, CUTHBERT, a Catholic priest, was executed Nov., 1577, for having denied the queen's supremacy, and celebrated mass. The trial is remarkable for the fact that no proof was obtained, and the prisoner was actually convicted on the ground of *strong presumption* only.

Mayo, RICHARD SOUTHWELL BOURKE, 6TH LORD (*b.* 1822, *d.* 1872), eldest son of the fifth Lord Mayo, entered Parliament in 1847, as member for Kildare. He was Chief Secretary for Ireland under Lord Derby in 1852, and again in 1858 and 1866. In 1868 he was appointed Governor-General of India. His reign was a period of peace, and was marked by the inauguration of numerous enterprises for the improvement of the social and material condition of the natives. Lord Mayo was assassinated Feb. 8, 1872, by a Mohammedan fanatic at Port Blair, in the Andaman Islands.

Mayor. The title "Mayor" symbolises municipal self-government—the possession of those rights which were implied in the recognition of a town as a "communa." The first certain instance of its use appears to be in London. Here the concession of the communa by Earl John and Walter of Rouen in 1191 is followed at once by the appearance of a mayor, Henry Fitz-Alwyn. Three years after the death of Henry Fitz-Alwyn, who had retained the office for life, John in 1215, in order to win the support of the citizens, conceded to the barons of London by charter the right of annually choosing their mayor. The person elected was, however, to be approved by the king. Though chosen only for a year it was usual until 1319 to re-elect the same person for several years; from that year dates the practice of an annual election. According to the evidence of the Rolls, it is to the reign of John that the possession of a mayor in the other great towns, such as Bristol, York, Norwich, Lincoln, and Winchester is due. Local lists of mayors giving earlier dates are scarcely trustworthy. During the thirteenth century town politics turn chiefly on the question who was to elect the mayor—the aldermen, representing the propertied class, or the populace. This struggle is particularly important in London during the Barons' War, when the commons sided with De Montfort's party, the magnates with the king. The popular party were successful, and secured the election of their own candidate in 1263—65, but the royal victory in 1265 brought with it a suspension of the city constitution altogether, and the town remained under a "custos," and not a mayor, till 1270. The contest was renewed in 1272, but in 1273 the aldermen, supported by the Royal Council, regained their power. The suspension of the town constitution was the penalty not only for popular violence, but also for attempts of the magistracy to extend its power. Thus London was without a mayor, and under a custos, from 1285 to 1298, because the mayor had endeavoured to gain exemption for the city from the jurisdiction of the justices in eyre. The fourteenth century sees the rise of the craft guilds, and their efforts to gain control of the administration, including the election of the mayor. In these efforts they are entirely successful in the reign of Edward IV. The same general lines of development are seen in the other great towns; the struggle of the magnates against the commons for the election of the mayor, against royal interference, the occasional nomination of a custos, and the increasing importance of the trade societies. The struggle between the aldermen and the people of York happened curiously enough in 1381; whether it had any connection with the Peasant Rising has not been ascertained. In conferring a new charter in 1389 Richard II. gave the mayor his own sword: after this he assumes the title of Lord Mayor, hitherto only borne by the mayor of London. Another point of interest is offered in the conflicts between the mayors, representing town self-government, and the lords of such towns as were in the demesnes of prelates. The most notable instance is that of Reading, when in the thirteenth century mayor and abbot struggle concerning the merchant guild, and in the fourteenth concerning the nomination of constables, and when as late as the fifteenth century the abbots claimed a voice in the choice of the mayor.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, c. 11, 13, 21.

[W. J. A.]

Meal-Tub Plot, THE (1679), was a pretended conspiracy fabricated by the informer Dangerfield, who hoped thereby to emulate Oates and Bedloe. He declared that the Presbyterians were conspiring to raise an army and establish a republic. At first he was believed, but his imposture being discovered, he was committed to Newgate, when he suddenly turned round and declared that the pretended conspiracy was an imposture concocted by the Papists to hide a real Popish Plot, which had for its object the murder of the king. The papers relating to this plot were, he declared, concealed in a *Meal-tub* in the house of Mrs. Cellier, a Roman Catholic lady, who was tried with Lady Powys for the alleged plot, but acquitted.

Measures, THE ASSIZE OF (1197), was issued for the purpose of securing the uniformity of weights and measures throughout

the kingdom. But it was found impossible to break down local custom, and even Magna Charta was not obeyed in this respect. Indeed, it is only just now that any serious attempt is being made to secure that uniformity which would be so beneficial.

Meath, The Kingdom of, is said to have been formed about 150 A.D., by Tuathal Techmar, a chieftain of the Scoti tribe (probably allied to the Brigantian Gauls) as the demesne land of the *ard ri*, or over-king of Ireland. For this purpose he took pieces of land from each of the four kingdoms; from Connaught the hill of Usnech, the old religious centre of the Irish, from Munster the mound of Tlachtga, from Ulster, Tailti (Teltown), and from Leinster the hill of Tara. The last became his principal residence, and the place of assembly of the under-kings of Ireland, while each of those places became a religious centre where great festivals were held. Meath now comprised the present county of Meath, Westmeath, and parts of Longford and King's County. Tuathal made Leinster completely subservient, and is said to have created a standing army, which afterwards became celebrated as the Fenians. The power of the *ard ri* was soon menaced by that of the rival kingdom of Munster, and Tuathal's grandson, Conn, "of the hundred battles," was forced by Mug of Munster to divide Ireland into two parts, the north being Conn's half, the south Mug's half. The power of the *ard ri* seems to have been precarious, and the over-kings were chosen from various branches of the Milesian race, until in the fifth century Miall "of the nine hostages," of the race of Elimon, founded the Hui-Neill dynasty, which from 483—when Lugaid, the son of Laeghairé, established himself upon the throne—was dominant in Ireland for five hundred years, the sovereignty alternating between the two branches. In 558 the *ard ri* deserted Tara in consequence of a curse pronounced upon it by St. Rodanus, or Ruadan, because of the violation of his sanctuary by King Diarmaid (Dermot), and their residence became unsettled, the kings of the southern Hui-Neill dynasty, whose settlements were in Meath, living in Westmeath, those of the northern race, whose possessions were in Ulster, establishing themselves in Derry. There was therefore no central power, and hence the weak resistance offered to the Teutonic invaders of whom the Fingals, or Norwegians, founded a considerable colony in Meath, and by whom a tribute was imposed upon the southern Hui-Neills. In 980, however, Malachi II., of the clan Colmain, King of Meath, became *ard ri*, on the extinction of the direct branches of the Hui-Neills or O'Neills as they now called themselves, and he was the last of his race who held that dignity without dispute. During his lifetime it was usurped for a time by Brian Boru, and after his death it was assumed more than once by the Kings of Leinster, and by the O'Loughlins of Ailech. In fact, from the beginning of the eleventh century, the power of the O'Melachlins (sons of Malachi) of Meath was, as a rule, at a low ebb, and after the Anglo-Norman invasion the province was bestowed on Hugh de Lacy, through whose great-granddaughters it passed into the families of De Gennerville, lords of Trim, and of De Verdon, barons of Dundalk. The lordships of Trim passed by marriage into the hands of Mortimer, Earl of March, and vested in the crown, while the De Verdon property went to the Talbots, Earls of Shrewsbury, by whom it was forfeited to the crown under the statute against absentees. In the reign of Elizabeth, Meath, now reduced to its present dimensions, was added to the province of Leinster. It received a large English colony during James I.'s later plantations, and again during the Cromwellian settlement. The ancient tumuli with which Meath is covered are thought to be relics of the Tuatha dé Danarus (tribes of Dia and Ara), the fourth of the invading tribes, a branch of the Nemidians, who were probably of Gaulish origin.

Keating, *Hist. of Ireland*; Haverty, *Hist. of Ireland*; O'Halloran, *Hist. of Ireland*; Walpole, *The Kingdom of Ireland*; Cusack, *Hist. of the Irish Nation*; Lodge, *Irish Peerage*.

[L. C. S.]

Meaux, Annals of, is the name given to the records of the Cistercian abbey of Meaux, in Yorkshire, which extend from 1150 to 1406, and were collected by Thomas de Burton, the nineteenth abbot. They have been published in the Rolls Series.

Meer Cossim was the son-in-law of Meer Jaffier. Raised to the musnud of Moorshedabad by Mr. Vansittart on the deposition of Meer Jaffier (1760), he quarrelled with the English about the revenue laws, and murdered an embassy sent to effect a pacification. War was declared; Moorshedabad was taken, and the Nabob was compelled to fly. Before he fled he caused the whole of the English residents in the Patna factory (150 in number) to be imprisoned, shot down, and cut to pieces, their mangled remains being thrown into wells. Meer Cossim fled to Oude. Sujah Dowlah, the vizier, received him with favour; but the terrible defeat of Buxar, and the return of Clive to India, so alarmed the vizier that he compelled Meer Cossim to leave the country (1765).

Meer Jaffier was appointed Nabob of Moorshedabad, or Bengal, by Clive after Plassey (1757), and granted the zemindary of Calcutta to the English. On the death of his son Meerun, during the Mogul invasion, he lost his reason, and his affairs fell into anarchy. His son-in-law, Meer Cossim, took advantage of this to obtain the throne from

Mr. Vansittart, Governor of Bengal, at the price of the cession of Midnapore, Chittagong, and Burdwan, to the Company, and a gratuity of twenty lacs to his benefactors.

Meeting, The Right of Public, as opposed to rioting, first became important in 1768, when the Middlesex electors, supported by the most prominent politicians of the day, assembled to protest against the infringement of their rights by the House of Commons. Meetings were also held in their support in no less than seventeen counties. The question, which became intimately connected with that of petition, was again raised in 1779—80, when an agitation began in Yorkshire and spread over England, in favour of economical and Parliamentary reform. The House of Commons at this time protested against the practice of sending delegates to London with petitions, but were unable to prevent it. The right of meeting was grievously abused by the Protestant associations which led to the Lord George Gordon riots of 1780; but the Anti-Slave Trade Association of 1787 carefuliy kept within the law. The terror caused by the French Revolution at length determined ministers to have recourse to repressive measures. Several societies already established, chief among which were the Revolution Society, the Society for Constitutional Information, and the London Corresponding Society, had received a fresh impulse from events occurring on the other side of the Channel, and members of the latter especially had indulged in violent language. This was met by several trials for sedition both in England and Scotland, in which the sentences imposed, especially in the northern country, were of terrible severity, and the cases invariably prejudged. The acquittal of Horne Tooke, Thomas Hardy, and other members of the great societies on the charge of treason, in 1794, was, however, a severe blow to the government, which nevertheless continued the suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act, and procured the conviction of Henry Redhead Yorke on a charge of conspiracy. The London Corresponding Society continued to hold meetings, one of which, being followed by an attack on the person of the king (1795), resulted in the passing, in company with a Treason Practices Bill, of a Seditious Meetings Bill, which provided that no political meeting of more than fifty persons could be held without previous notice to a magistrate, who was to attend in person, and might disperse them according to the Riot Act if he thought them dangerous. In spite of the vehement opposition of Fox and his friends, these bills became law by large majorities. The only result was that the societies had resort to secret conspiracy in conjunction with the French clubs and the United Irishmen, and were in consequence suppressed by the stringent Corresponding Societies Bill (1799). In 1817, when discontent, want, and zeal for Reform had caused riots in various parts of the country and an attack on the Prince Regent, the Acts of 1795 and 1799 against corresponding societies were extended to other associations, such as the Hampden and Spencean clubs. Meetings, however, only became larger and more revolutionary, especially in the manufacturing districts; and the rash action of the military resulted in the "Manchester Massacre" of 1819, and that criminal blunder was followed by the "Six Acts," one of which placed rigorous restrictions on all meetings of more than fifty persons, and entrusted magistrates with the amplest powers for their suppression and adjournment. In the following year, Orator Hunt, Sir C. Wolseley, the Rev. Joseph Harrison, and others, were tried for unlawfully meeting together, and sentenced to various periods of imprisonment. From that time onwards the right of meeting has been generally recognised by government, and lawful agitation is no longer confounded with riotous and disorderly assemblies. The Catholic Association in Ireland was allowed to continue, restrictions being placed alone on the proposal to appoint managers of petitions as being a violation of the Irish Convention Act of 1793, until it threatened to supersede Parliament. It was thereupon suppressed (1825), but continued in another form; and, being revived on the expiration of the Act, was again suppressed, but not until its objects had been completely gained (1829). The great Reform Bill was ushered in by the agitation of political unions throughout the country, and on the rejection of that measure by the House of Lords, these organisations exceeded their lawful limits by sending delegates to a national union in London. They were in consequence proclaimed, but continued nevertheless; and the surrender of the Lords alone prevented much violence and consequent coercion. The agitation for the Repeal of the Irish Union produced some monster meetings, such as that on the Hill of Tara (1843), which were so dangerous to the peace that the government had to repress them. A similar fate attended the Orange lodges, which, established about 1795 in opposition to the Catholic Association, spread into England, especially into the army, and dabbled in plots for placing the Duke of Cumberland on the throne (1835). The trades unions' procession, the object of which was the release of the Dorchester labourers, dispersed upon the refusal of Lord Melbourne to receive a deputation which relied to some extent on the exhibition of physical force (1834). A similar attitude was adopted towards the Chartists, who were not allowed to appear in large numbers at Westminster under pretence of presenting their huge petition, but whose meetings were tolerated

as long as they were orderly. In Ireland the Land Agitation of 1880 and the subsequent years compelled the government to place restrictions on the right of public meeting. The Land League was suppressed in October, 1881, and the Prevention of Crimes Act of the following year empowered the Lord-Lieutenant to disperse assemblies calculated to disturb the peace; which power was frequently exercised in the case of Land League, Nationalist, and Orange assemblies. By the Crimes Act of 1887—a permanent statute—the Lord-Lieutenant may suppress any association which, in his judgment, is engaged in the commission of crimes, or in incitement to violence or intimidation. [RIOT ACT.]

Stanhope, *Life of Pitt*; *Parl. Hist.*, xxi., xxxiii., and xxxiv.; *State Trials*, xxii.; Erskine, *Speeches*; *Hist. of the Two Acts*; *Lord Sidmouth's Life*; Wyse, *Catholic Association*; *Courts and Cabinets of William IV.*; Martineau, *Hist. of England*; Prentice, *Hist. of Anti-Corn Law League*; May, *Const. Hist. of England*, vol. ii., chs. ix. and x. [The right, in some Continental countries expressly guaranteed by the Constitution, is legally in England a mere corollary of individual rights: *see* Dicey, *Law of the Constitution*, p. 284, *seqq.*] [L. C. S.]

Megasætas, THE, were a Saxon tribe occupying the present county of Hereford.

Melbourne, WILLIAM LAMB, VISCOUNT (*b.* 1779, *d.* 1848), was the second son of Peniston, first Viscount Melbourne. In 1805 he entered the House of Commons as member for Leominster, and joined the Opposition under Fox. When Mr. Canning was commissioned to form a cabinet, Lamb accepted the office of Chief Secretary for Ireland. Later, he accepted office under Lord Goderich and under the Duke of Wellington. In 1828 he succeeded his father in the House of Lords. He took office under Lord Grey, in 1830, as Home Secretary. In 1834 Lord Grey found his position untenable, and the king sent for Lord Melbourne, who contrived to construct a cabinet, which lasted till the end of the year. The death of Earl Spencer caused the fall of the cabinet. The king called upon Lord Melbourne to retire, and summoned Sir Robert Peel from Italy to assume the premiership. The new government did not last over the year. A new Parliament decided against them, and Melbourne formed a mixed government, which lasted from 1835 to Sept., 1841. At the beginning of Queen Victoria's reign the Prime Minister's position was one that required address and tact, and by universal acknowledgement Lord Melbourne filled it with success, and in such a way as to earn the queen's gratitude. Several important Acts were added to the statute book by the ministry, including the New Poor Law. In 1839 Lord Melbourne, after practical defeat on the Jamaica question, resigned. Sir Robert Peel, however, declined to form a ministry on account of the disputes about the royal household, known as the "Bedchamber Question," and Lord Melbourne returned. The general election of 1841 resulted in a Conservative majority, and the government resigned. After his resignation Lord Melbourne took little active part in public affairs.

Greville Memoirs; Walpole, *Hist. of Eng. since* 1815; Earl Russell, *Recollections and Suggestions.*

Mellitus, Archbishop of Canterbury (619–24), was sent over by Gregory in 601 to assist Augustine in the conversion of the English. He preached the Gospel in Essex, and became the first Bishop of London.

Melun, TREATY OF (1593), was concluded between Elizabeth and Henry IV. of France, and bound both sovereigns to maintain war against Philip as long as he should remain in hostility to either England or France.

Melville, ANDREW (*b.* 1545, *d.* 1622), was appointed principal of Glasgow University in 1574, and subsequently principal of St. Mary's College, St. Andrews (1580), and rector of the University in 1590. He was moderator of the General Assembly, 1587–94. In 1606 he was summoned to London in company with seven other of the leading Scottish ministers to discuss the question at issue between the king and the Scotch Church. A conference took place, which ended in an explosion of rage on Melville's part against the Primate. He was ordered to be imprisoned in the Tower, and kept there for four years. He was released at the request of the Duke of Bouillon, and passed the remaining years of his life as professor of divinity at Sedan.

Members of Parliament. The House of Commons has no right to decide the eligibility of members; it can merely insist on the performance of those conditions under which alone it is lawful to sit and vote. In 1769 Wilkes, having been expelled the House, was declared "incapable of being elected a member to serve in this present Parliament," and Colonel Luttrell, though defeated by him at the poll, was admitted as member for Middlesex, but in 1782 the resolution against Wilkes was, on his own motion, expunged from the journals of the House as subversive of the rights of the whole body of electors. This principle was not acknowledged in earlier times, for in 1711 Sir Robert Walpole was declared ineligible in consequence of a previous expulsion. Nevertheless, a member though duly returned could not sit and vote until he had taken the oath provided by 31 and 32 Vict., c. 72, though Quakers, Moravians, and Separatists were allowed to affirm instead. On May 3, 1880, Mr. Bradlaugh claimed to affirm, and his claim being rejected by a Select Committee, offered to take the oath. As he had declared that an oath was not binding on his conscience, the House re-

fused to allow him to do so. His claim to affirm was referred to the law courts, and the High Court of Justice decided that it was invalid. In 1888, however, a statute was passed giving to members the right of choice between the oath and the affirmation. Any member sitting or voting before taking the oath or affirming, incurs a penalty of £500 for each offence besides vacating his seat. But though a member in this case may not take his seat, he does not cease to be a member of the House; he may even sit within its walls, though he must take care that his seat is below the bar, which for this purpose is held to be without the House; and he may, like Baron Rothschild in 1858, be called on to serve on committees. A member having been sworn, or made affirmation, as he may prefer, is presented to the Speaker by the Clerk of the House. The personal privilege of members formerly extended to freedom from arrest or molestation for themselves, their servants, and their goods. This privilege was founded on a law of Æthelberht, and was recognised by statute (5 Hen. IV., c. 6) in the case of Chedder. For the reign of George III. this privilege was dropped as regards servants, and now extends only to the person of members for forty days before, during, and for forty days after a session. It never covered treason, murder, felony, or breach of the peace, and since the House in 1753 took a less liberal view of its own privileges—by refusing in Wilkes's case to extend them to seditious libel—than was held by the Court of Common Pleas, it has not covered any indictable offence. It is the duty of a judge on committing a member to prison to inform the House of the fact, that it may satisfy itself as to the question of privilege. A member is not exempted from punishment for contempt of court, for in 1831 Lord Chancellor Brougham committed Mr. Long Wellesley for contempt, and the House refused to interfere in his behalf. More lately, in 1882, Mr. Gray, member for Dublin, was imprisoned for contempt at the end of the session. His imprisonment ended before the next meeting of Parliament, and a Select Committee reported that the case did not demand the attention of the House. A member may be expelled, and expulsion may be said to follow such ill-conduct as would render a man unfit to sit in the House, while it is also inflicted on any member absconding from justice, as in the case of Sadleir in 1857. By a standing order of 1880 suspension is incurred by wilful obstruction of the business of the House. All members are bound by 5 Rich. II., c. 4, to render personal service in Parliament, and their attendance may be enforced by a call of the House, though there has been no instance of such a proceeding since 1836. A member vacates his seat by elevation to the peerage, and since 6 Anne, c. 7, by the acceptance of a lucrative office under the crown. No member can relinquish his seat, and since 1750 the custom has obtained that a member wishing to retire from Parliament should apply to the crown for a nominal office, such as the Stewardship of the Chiltern Hundreds. [CHILTERN HUNDREDS; PARLIAMENT.]

May, *Procedure of Parliament*, 9th edition.

Merchant Adventurers, THE, were a trading guild established in Brabant in 1296, and having numerous branches in England. In the latter country they received the title by patent of Henry VII. in 1505. In 1564 the Merchant Adventurers were incorporated by Elizabeth, and received some extensive privileges of trade to the East.

Merchants, THE CHARTER OF THE (1303), was granted by Edward I. to the foreign merchants, and gave them certain important privileges, in return for which he received from them a considerable sum of money in the shape of duties on wool, etc.

Merchants, THE STATUTE OF (1283), known also as the Statute of Acton Burnell, was one of Edward I.'s important commercial measures. It provided for the registration of merchants' debts, their recovery by distraint, and the debtors' imprisonment.

Mercia was the great Anglian kingdom of central England. Originally the term seems to have been confined to that particular Anglian settlement which occupied the district round Tamworth and Lichfield, and the Upper Trent Valley. West of this a range of moorlands checked the progress of the invaders for a considerable period. Their proximity to the unconquered Welsh gave them the title of Mercians, or Men of the March. Nothing definite can be determined as to the date of this original Mercian settlement, but it must have been later than that of the more eastern Anglian settlements in mid-England. It was, however, probably made in the latter half of the sixth century. Nothing is known of its first king, Crida, who died in 600; Wybba (600—610) and Ceorl (610—626) were of equal insignificance. But in 626 a great king, Penda, son of Wybba, began to reign. He found Middle England split up into a large number of independent Anglian settlements. These had, perhaps, been already dependent on Ethelbert of Kent and Rædwald of East Anglia. Penda reduced them to a permanent dependence on the men of the March. Henceforth Lindiswaras and Gyrnas, Middle English and South English, Pecsaetan, Hwiccas, Hecanas, and Megasætas were but under-kingdoms of the Mercian monarch. They were still centres of local feeling. Lines of subreguli, or hereditary ealdormen, continued to reign in them. But for great political purposes, Mercia is henceforth synonymous with Middle England. Penda, the creator of this greater Mercia, was also

the representative of the heathen re-action which followed Augustine's mission. He was, moreover, the uncompromising foe of the rising power of Northumbria. In alliance with the Welshmen he defeated and slew Edwin the Bretwalda. Oswald, the sainted king, was equally unable to withstand him. But at last Oswy, his successor, destroyed the power of Mercia at the battle of Winwæd (655). Penda fell on the field. Oswy gave law to all England. The greater Mercia began to break up, and some parts were even conquered by Oswy. But in 659, on the death of Peada, the next king, the Mercians seized arms in despair, and led by Wulfhere, nephew of Penda, drove out the Northumbrians, and effectually consolidated the greater Mercia. It may have been now that the Mercian boundary was pushed southward to the Thames. Meanwhile Christianity had silently become the religion of Mercia, and Theodore of Tarsus found in Wulfhere and his brother and successor, Ethelred (675—704), active and powerful auxiliaries. In 704 Ethelred withdrew to a monastery. His nephew Cenred, son of Wulfhere, reigned over the Mercians till 709, when Ceolred, son of Ethelred, succeeded, and in 715 sustained the great defeat of Wanborough from Ine of Wessex. He died in 716. His successor, Ethelbald, son of Alweo, brother of Penda (716—755), took advantage of Ine's abdication, and the growing anarchy of Northumbria, to establish that Mercian overlordship that was to endure for fully a century. A series of successful wars subdued all the neighbouring States, and Ethelbald with good reason claimed to be *rex non solum Mercensium sed et omnium populorum qui generali nomine Sutangli dicuntur.* But the end of his reign was unfortunate. In 754 the revolt of the conquered people was followed by the defeat and flight of Ethelbald at Burford. Next year he died, and even the genius of Offa (757—795), who, after a year of anarchy, became King of the Mercians, could not wholly undo this great disaster. Yet Offa became the greatest king of his day. He put his dependents in the neighbouring kingdoms, and established a series of alliances that made his power irresistible; conquered eastern Powis from the Welsh, and built the dyke that goes by his name to protect his western frontier: established at Lichfield a short-lived archbishopric that made Mercia ecclesiastically independent, and corresponded on equal terms with Charles the Great himself. Cenwulf, a successor (796—819), was hardly less powerful. But soon after his death the collapse of the Mercian power at Ellandun—where Beornwulf was defeated by Egbert—handed over the supremacy of Britain to Wessex. The power of Mercia had been based on nothing but the prowess of its kings. It retained that want of centralisation which flowed naturally from its origin; and if remarkable for military ability, was behind-hand in culture and civilisation. The failure of the royal house, combined with the great invasion of the Danes, completed the Mercian overthrow. Ludecan and Wiglaf were mere puppet kings. When the struggle was over, half Mercia was regularly settled by Norse Vikings; the other half, that to the west and south of Watling Street, was a mere ealdormanship under the West Saxon kings. Ethelred, the new ealdorman of the Mercians, and after his death his wife Ethelflaed, "Lady of the Mercians," the daughter of Alfred the Great, were strong and vigorous rulers; but they ruled in the West Saxon interest. On the latter's death, Mercia, enlarged by the gradual re-conquest of the Danish portion, ceased to have a ruler of its own. Yet it retained for many generations its local patriotism. The policy of Dunstan may have conciliated it; the policy of Edwy led to its revolt, and the setting up a king for itself in Edgar. But on Edwy's death conquered Mercia gave a king to the victorious West Saxons. The establishment of the great earldoms revived local Mercian feeling. Elfgar, Leofric, Edwin, and Morcar became in a sense new rulers of Mercia. Had not the Norman Conquest intervened they might have re-established Mercian independence. But the Norman administrative system for ever put an end to dreams of particularism. Despite the schemes of Earls Ralph and Roger to revive the Heptarchy in the interests of feudalism, despite the distinction of law that survived down to the days of the *Dialogus De Scaccario*, Mercia ends its political existence with the Norman Conquest. [T. F. T.]

KINGS OF MERCIA.

Creoda (?)	600
Wybba (?)	600—610
Ceorl (?)	610—626
Penda	626—655
Peada	655—659
Wulfhere	659—675
Ethelred	675—704
Cenred	704—709
Ceolred	709—716
Ethelbald	716—755
Beornred	757
Offa	757—795
Egferth	796
Cenwulf	796—819
Ceolwulf	819—821
Ludecan	825
Wiglaf	838

There are no peculiarly Mercian Chronicles of early date, so that its early history is very obscure. It has to be pieced together from casual references in West Saxon and Northumbrian Chronicles, and from charters and laws. J. R. Green, *Making* and *Conquest of England*, and Palgrave's *English Commonwealth* may be referred to for modern account.

Merciless, or WONDERFUL PARLIAMENT, THE (1388), was summoned by the Lords Appellant after the defeat of De Vere and the royalist party, for the purpose of obtaining a sanction to their acts. Gloucester declared his innocence of any attempt to depose the king: the judges who had declared the com-

mission of regency illegal were arrested and banished to Ireland; the royal ministers were impeached and sentenced to death, and other offenders were punished, and £20,000 was voted to the Lords Appellant. The legislative work was undertaken by this Parliament, and its acts, as Dr. Stubbs says, "fully establish its right to the title [of "merciless"], and stamp with infamy the men who, whether their political crimes were or were not salutary to the constitution, disgraced the cause by excessive and vindictive cruelty."

Merton, The Statute of (1236), was enacted by the barons in a great council assembled at Merton, January 23, 1236, shortly after the marriage of Henry III. and Eleanor of Provence. The barons declared in it that they were unwilling to change the laws of England, which would seem to intimate a fear on their part of the foreign influences which might be expected from the marriage.

Metcalfe, Charles, Lord (*b.* 1785, *d.* 1846), entered the East India Company's service, and in 1808 was selected by Lord Minto to negotiate the alliance with Runjeet Singh. He carried out his mission successfully, and succeeded in concluding the treaty of Umritsur (1809). Subsequently he negotiated the treaty with Ameer Khan in 1817 during the Mahratta War, and conducted the delicate negotiations with Toolsye Bhye, the regent of the Holkar State, during the same war. In 1820 he was appointed Resident at Hyderabad. On the resignation of Sir David Ochterlony (1825), Sir Charles Metcalfe was appointed Resident at Delhi for Rajpootana. In 1834 he was appointed Governor of the newly-created Presidency of the North-West Provinces, and in 1835, in consequence of the premature departure of Lord William Bentinck, he was obliged to return to Calcutta, and assume the provisional Governor-Generalship, which he continued to hold for a year. On the arrival of Lord Auckland he proceeded to Agra. Soon after his arrival (1836), he learned that the press law carried by him during his Governor-Generalship had exasperated the India House, and that in consequence his name had not even been mentioned in connection with the vacant governorship of Madras. He resigned his appointment. His services were fully appreciated by the crown. He was appointed Governor of Jamaica (1839—41), and Canada (1842—45) successively, and for his eminent services was raised to the peerage as Lord Metcalfe in 1845. The difficulties which he experienced from factious opposition, and his own ill-health, produced his resignation (1845), and he returned to England to die in 1846.

Methodists.—The name was first given in derision to the society formed for religious study and conversation by John and Charles Wesley at Oxford in 1729. Wesley, in 1739, began to hold great evangelical meetings in London and elsewhere. In the same year he formed the first regular Wesleyan Methodist society. The society was divided into "classes" with "leaders" and "stewards." Two years before, Wesley had begun to institute lay preachers to his various local societies. In 1744 the first Conference was held; but it was not till 1784 that Wesley constituted the Conference the supreme authority of the sect, and vested the property of the society in trustees under its jurisdiction. In 1784 Wesley gave letters of ordination to Dr. Coke, and constituted him "bishop" of the American Methodist body, thus beginning the American Episcopal Methodist Church. It was not, however, till 1788 that Wesley ordained preachers to assist him in administering the sacraments to the societies in England. Wesley died in 1791. After his death the Connexion was distracted by disputes, which ended in the "plan of pacification" in 1795. In 1797 Alexander Kilham founded the "New Connexion," the government of which was more republican than that of the older body. There have been several secessions since—notably those of the "Protestant Methodists" in 1798 (who subsequently were joined by other bodies of seceders and became the "United Methodist Free Churches"). The "Primitive Methodists" were formed in 1810. In 1907 the "New Connexion," the "United Methodist Free Churches," and the "Bible Christians" (formed in 1815) were united into one body known as the "United Methodist Church."

H. Tyerman, *Life of Wesley;* Smith, *History of Wesleyan Methodism.*

Methuen Treaty, The, was a commercial convention between England and Portugal, concluded on Dec. 27, 1703, by Paul Methuen. Portugal bound itself to admit English woollen manufactures on the same terms as before the late prohibition of them. England agreed to admit Portuguese wines on payment of two-thirds of the duty imposed on French wines. It was annulled by the supplementary treaty of 1835.

Smith, *Wealth of Nations,* book iv., chap. vi.

Military System. In the earliest times, the military system of the Teutonic races reposed on the broadest and most national basis. Ruled over by elective *duces,* encouraged to valour by the presence of kindred and neighbours, the old Teutonic host, described by Tacitus, was in a very intimate sense the army of the people. Yet even in those days the *comitatus* of the *principes,* which, by devoting its whole energies to fighting, was probably the most efficient military force, was of other than popular origin. It was the body-guard, the personal following of the king or leader, After the migration to England, the same system continued. It was a primary principle of Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence that every landholder

was obliged to serve in the *fyrd*, as the popular host was now called. Fyrdbot was part of the *trinoda necessitas*. Arranged by the sheriff, the fyrd was simply the county court in arms. But want of cohesion between various localities made its operations uncertain, and the want of discipline in a citizen militia frequently rendered it ineffective. The glorious fight of Brihtnoth and the East Anglian fyrd against the Danes at Maldon, shows what the fyrd of a limited district could do; but attempts to aggregate the national militia of the whole nation in a single body were in those early times nearly impossible. Yet, when well led, the fyrd fought well, and its national character was of great political importance as keeping alive national feeling. Still the West Saxon kings would hardly have attained to their imperial position, if, in addition to the forces of the allodial system, they had not also to rely upon the services of their gesiths and thegns. These personal retainers of the monarch, the *comites* in a developed form, formed a body-guard of trained soldiers, always at hand. But as time went on, the thegn became more of a feudal noble, dwelling on his estate, and only serving his lord on occasion. Thus the thegnhood became untrustworthy also, until its revival in a more primitive form, in the *huscarls* of Cnut, gave the king again the services of a standing body-guard of highly-trained professional soldiers.

Such was in outline the old English military system. In it we have the germ of most of the later developments of the English army, the national militia, the feudal levies, and even permanent mercenary troops. The Norman Conquest largely developed the feudal element by the wholesale introduction of tenure by military service, and by gradually dividing the land of England into "knights' fees," held by the tenure of providing and equipping a heavy-armed horseman to serve his lord for forty days in the year. William the Conqueror himself saw clearly the constitutional danger and the military worthlessness of the feudal army. In want of discipline, irregularity, and incapacity for development, it surpassed the fyrd. It was, moreover, largely composed of the disloyal party of the feudal baronage, ever anxious to destroy the royal power, and consequently a source of weakness more than of strength. Henry II. saw this, and by the institution of scutage (q.v.) largely superseded the direct service of the feudal array by a money composition. This enabled him to carry out still farther the policy of the Norman kings, and depend for the most part on Flemish or Brabançon mercenaries, who, bound to their lord by no tie but good pay and the rough loyalty of a soldier to his general, and often composed of the very scum of society, were yet efficient military instruments.

But mercenaries were expensive, unpopular, and frequently treacherous. They were unpleasant necessities, rather than welcome ones. The Norman and Angevin monarchs consequently sought, by the maintenance of the fyrd-system, to retain the services of a body which always supported the crown against the feudal party. The history of the national militia subsequently to the Conquest strongly illustrates the continuity of English constitutional development. William I. exacted from every freeman the old national oath to join in defending the king, his lands and his honour both at home and beyond sea. In 1073 the fyrd took a prominent share in the conquest of Maine. William II. cheated the fyrd out of the ten shillings a-piece which the shires had given them for their maintenance. Yet it was always faithful to the crown in its struggle against the feudalists. The defeat of Robert of Belesme, the repulse of David of Scotland at Northallerton, the suppression of the feudal revolt of 1173 were largely due to its valour and patriotism.

Still, the heavy cavalry of the barons was, from the military point of view, a necessary supplement to the infantry of the fyrd, and with the political importance of feudalism annihilated, there was less danger in the feudal array. Yet Henry II., while relying for foreign service mainly on mercenaries paid for by the scutages of the barons, trusted to the fyrd for home defence. His Assize of Arms (1181) revived and reorganised that ancient body, and devised an excellent machinery for compelling every citizen (*tota communa liberorum hominum*) to possess the arms appropriate to his station in life. The increased dread of mercenaries, through their misuse by John, and their attempts to control the destinies of the kingdom during his son's minority, gave an increased importance to the re-issue of the Assize of Arms by Henry III. in close connection with the system of Watch and Ward. In the Statute of Winchester, Edward I. (1285) still further developed the same system, which a series of later measures of Henry IV., Philip and Mary, and James I. has brought down to our own days.

The vague power, never perhaps formally taken away from the sheriff, of summoning the *posse comitatus*, was from the fourteenth to the sixteenth century supplemented by more definite commissions of array, empowering those addressed to muster and train all men able to bear arms within the counties included in the commission: while in the reign of Philip and Mary the institution of lord-lieutenants in every county practically deprived the sheriff of his command of the national forces. Henceforth, the lord-lieutenant was the deputy of the crown for all military matters, and the ultimate custodian of law and order. But the Act of 1 Jac. I., c. 25, had to some extent repealed the long series of statutes which enforced the obligation of keeping sufficient arms on each citizen. The Artillery

Company of London, which still continues to exist, sprang from a voluntary association during Henry VIII.'s reign, and the "train bands" of the seventeenth century, which the Act of James I. substituted for the mediæval system, though in a sense the continuation of the fyrd, were also largely of voluntary origin. The difficulties caused by the militia question in 1642, between Charles I. and his Parliament, the prominent part taken by the train bands in the Great Rebellion, rendered it necessary for the Restoration Parliament to reorganise the national forces, and reconstitute the militia under the headship of the crown. Up to 1757 this force was, however, quite neglected, when the absence of the regular army on the Continent caused it to be revived as a local organisation for internal defence. Its importance as a recruiting ground for the army was also a great reason for its revival. Under George III. and Victoria a series of Acts of Parliament have modified the militia laws. During these reigns army reforms were effected that brought the militia into organic relation with the standing army, without destroying its local basis. Previous to these reforms, service was nominally compulsory, though a Militia Ballot Suspension Act made it practically voluntary. As a means of national defence, the militia has been at various times supplemented by a volunteer system, self-supporting and unpaid. The Artillery Company is an early example of such a force. In 1803 the fear of French invasion caused nearly half a million of men to enrol themselves into volunteer regiments; but the cessation of the panic led to the gradual dying out of the movement. In 1859 a more permanent volunteer organisation was started, and an Act of 1863 gave this organisation a legal status. By an Act passed in 1907 great changes were made with regard to the volunteers and the militia. The former were transferred to the territorial army, and the latter to the special contingent of the army reserve, which consists of non-regulars who have undertaken to serve abroad.

Thus far the non-professional and irregular military forces have mainly been dealt with. But even in mediæval times the national militia became gradually both unfit and unwilling for foreign service, for which the shortness of the service of the feudal levies still more disqualified them. The mercenary system of the Normans and Angevins became impossible with the development of constitutional government. The need of regular forces became greater with the development of the political power of England. During the Middle Ages the feudal tenants, or the militia of the neighbouring shires, were enough to repel a Scotch or Welsh inroad; but the systematic wars with France which the fourteenth century witnessed required more systematic forces. The armies which fought in the Hundred Years' War, though to a small extent composed of feudal tenants and of forced levies of pressed men, were mainly raised by indentures or contracts made with some great noble or experienced general, who agreed to serve the king abroad with a certain number of men at a fixed rate. The pay was very high, and there was never any difficulty in raising the men. The contract generally ended with the war, so that these armies, though composed of trained troops, were not permanent. Penalties for desertion and disobedience were inflicted by statutes which anticipated the later Mutiny Acts.

The germ of a standing army is found in the Yeomen of the Guard instituted by Henry VII., and in the small garrisons of Calais, Berwick, and Dover. In the reign of Elizabeth there were anticipations, in the reign of Charles I. the beginnings, of a larger standing force. The complaints of martial law and illegal impressment now became general. The struggle of the crown for the right of maintaining a standing army had now begun. It was to last until the principle was unwillingly accepted at the end of the seventeenth century.

The abortive armies of Charles I. and the commencement of a military law that marked his reign were soon eclipsed by the great army levied by Parliament [New Model], which the genius of Cromwell moulded into the most efficient fighting machine known in English history. Under the Restoration several regiments of Cromwell's army were still maintained. At first, these numbered only 3,000 men, but during Charles II.'s reign not only were temporary armies levied for emergencies, but several new regiments added to the permanent forces. The abolition of the feudal levies by the Act 12 Car. II., long after they had ceased to be of any great value, though they were summoned so late as 1640, made a standing army the more necessary. James II. largely increased these troops, and the French war, which the Revolution involved, prevented their disbandment. But a standing army was very unpopular with all parties. To the Whigs it suggested tyranny and popery, to the Tories the military despotism of Cromwell. Only after a great struggle was an army of 7,000 men retained after the Peace of Ryswick. But those debates practically decided the question. Henceforth England has always had a standing army. The constitutional difficulty had been got over by passing an annual Mutiny Act (q.v.), which alone empowered the sovereign to govern the troops by martial law. Despite popular jealousy, the numbers of the army have steadily risen. After the Peace of Utrecht the army numbered 8,000. In 1750 it was nearly 19,000. In 1792 it had decreased to 17,000 in time of peace, though in 1777 it had been 90,000; and in 1812 nearly a quarter of a million of men were under arms. The

East India Company had been allowed to levy a separate army for the defence of the Indies. After the Indian Mutiny it was incorporated with the royal forces. In the years 1871 and 1872 important changes were made which had the effect of joining together all the various branches of the English military system into a single whole. [CARDWELL.] In 1871 the purchase of commissions by officers was abolished by royal warrant.

The modern standing army of England has always been mainly raised by voluntary enlistment. But so late as the American War "idle and disorderly persons" were impressed for the army as well as for the navy. Difficulties in the way of recruiting were often felt. Perhaps this partly accounts for the survival of the contract system of the Edwards as late as the eighteenth century. So great was the constitutional difficulty suggested by the standing army that only 5,000 men were allowed to live in barracks at the beginning of the 19th century.

Up to the Crimean War the military system was cumbersome. The commander-in-chief, responsible to the crown; the "secretary of state for war and the colonies," whose power was limited to war time; the "secretary at war," the parliamentary representative of the army; the treasury, which controlled the commissariat; the Home Office, which governed the militia—all exercised clashing jurisdictions. Many reforms have since been made, notably in 1904, when the office of commander-in-chief ceased to exist, a new post, inspector-general, being created, and a council of war framed on the model of the Board of Admiralty; and again in 1907 by the passing of the Territorial and Reserve Forces Act.

Stubbs, *Const. History*; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*; May, *Const. Hist.*; Grose, *Military Antiquities*; Clode, *Military Forces of the Crown*; *Encyclopædia Britannica* (ninth ed.), art. *Army*.

Mill, JAMES (*b.* 1773, *d.* 1836), received an appointment in the India Office, and rose to be head of the revenue department. Mill was one of the most prominent of those who understood and developed the views of Bentham on government and legislation. [BENTHAM.] Besides numerous works on metaphysics, economics, and political theory, which exerted great influence on the thought of the 19th century, Mill wrote a *History of British India* (1817–18), a very valuable work.

Prof. A. Bain, *Biography of James Mill*.

Mill, JOHN STUART (*b.* 1806, *d.* 1873), son of the above, entered the India House in 1823, and in 1856 became head of the examiner's department, from which he retired in 1858. In 1865 he was elected member for Westminster, but was defeated in 1868. In Parliament he was an advanced Liberal, and supported with much earnestness woman's suffrage. Mr. Mill wrote numerous works. In almost all departments of political, social, and moral philosophy, Mr. Mill's influence has been very great. As the thinker who attempted to develop and adapt the utilitarianism of Bentham to the complicated needs of modern society, his place is specially important; while as a political economist he forms one in the line of succession of great English writers on the subject which began with Adam Smith.

Mill's *Autobiography*, an interesting and fascinating work, appeared after his death in 1873.

Milner, ALFRED, 1ST VISCOUNT MILNER (*b.* 1854), was from 1887 to 1889 private secretary to Mr. Goschen, from 1889 to 1892 he was under-secretary for finance in Egypt, and chairman of the Board of Inland Revenue from 1892 to 1897. In 1897 he succeeded Lord Rosmead as governor of Cape Colony and high commissioner of South Africa. He was first Governor of the Transvaal and Orange River Colonies (1900–5), and in 1906 the House of Lords voted their high appreciation of his services in South Africa. He was created Baron Milner in 1901, and a viscount in 1902.

Milton, JOHN (*b.* 1608, *d.* 1674), claims a place in the present work owing to his connection with the movement known as the Great Rebellion. In May, 1641, he came forward as one of the literary champions of the Puritan party, and wrote a pamphlet *Of Reformation touching Church Discipline in England*, followed by four others directed against the moderate Episcopalians. The most important is *The Reason of Church Government* (1641—2). In 1644 he published his famous *Areopagitica*. Within a fortnight of the king's execution he published a pamphlet justifying the act. In March, 1649, he was made secretary for foreign tongues to the Council of State. In this year he published his *Eikonoklastes*, in reply to *Eikon Basilike*, and *Pro Populo Anglicano Defensio*. In 1652 he became quite blind, and practically gave up the work of his secretaryship. In May, 1654, he published his *Pro Populo Anglicano Defensio Secunda*. He continued to assist in the foreign correspondence of the Republic till the Restoration, and tried by a series of vehement pamphlets to prevent that event. After May, 1660, he lived for some months in hiding, but he was not molested by the new government, and passed the remainder of his life quietly.

Masson, *Life of Milton*, 6 vols., 1859—1880.

Minden, THE BATTLE OF (Aug. 1, 1759), was fought during the Seven Years' War. Ferdinand of Brunswick, the commander of the allies, had under him 10,000 or 12,000 British soldiers, under Lord George Sackville. He had previously made an unsuccessful attempt to recapture Frankfort from the French. The French commanders, De Broglie and Contades,

pushed after him, and rapidly took Cassel, Münster, and Minden. Ferdinand maintained his position on the right bank of the Weser, and left a detachment of 5,000 men, seemingly unguarded, to lure Contades from his strong position at Minden. The Duke de Broglie was despatched to attack this body of men, but he was compelled to summon Contades to his assistance. The French generals, thus obliged to accept battle on unfavourable grounds, were defeated.

Minorca was taken (1708) by the English during the War of the Succession in Spain, and ceded to England by the Treaty of Utrecht. In 1756 it was recaptured by the French; and Admiral Byng, after a feeble attempt to relieve the town, left it to its fate. The island was restored to England by the Treaty of Paris (1762). In 1781 it was again recaptured by 12,000 French and Spaniards, although General Murray and his men, reduced by sickness to 700, made a resolute defence. In the following year it was ceded to Spain, and in 1783 formally given up to her. In 1798, in the midst of the struggle with Napoleon, it was retaken by General Stuart, but finally given up to Spain by the Treaty of Amiens (1802).

Minorities, Representation of. Provision was made for the representation of minorities in large constituencies by the insertion into the Reform Bill of 1867 of two clauses declaring that in three-cornered constituences no elector should be allowed more than two votes; and that no elector of the city of London should be allowed more than three votes. It was found possible, however, for one party to carry all three members in Birmingham, and the system came to an end with the Redistribution Bill of 1885. Systems on somewhat similar lines, but vastly more complex, have been introduced in recent years in Belgium and some Swiss cantons. On the formation of school boards, minority representation was secured by the system of cumulative voting. In 1884 a society, including members of Parliament of both parties, was formed to promote the representation of minorities by proportional representation.

D'Hondt, *Réprésentation Proportionnelle*; Mill, *Representative Government.*

Minto, Lord (*b.* 1751, *d.* 1814), after having filled the office of president of the Board of Control, was appointed governor-general of India in 1806. His first task was to deal with the Vellore Mutiny, his next the establishing of order in India, and securing the frontiers of the company's territories by treaties with foreign powers. Marching an army into Nagpore, he compelled Ameer Khan to retire. The pirates of Kolapore and Sawuntwarree were attacked and overawed. The growth of the power of Runjeet Singh made him desirous (1808) at once to check it in the east, and to form an alliance with him. He sent an embassy to Lahore, under Mr. Metcalfe, who, after some difficulty, succeeded in concluding with Runjeet the treaty of Umritsir, of perpetual amity between the British government and the state of Lahore. About the same time Sir Harford Jones reached Persia in the character of a plenipotentiary of the British crown, and by him (1810) a treaty was concluded binding the sovereign of Persia to resist the passage of any European force through his country to India, and the government of England to furnish aid in case Persia should be invaded from Europe. Having thus established order and security at home, Lord Minto turned his attention to the hostile colonies of the enemy and his allies. Macao and the Chinese colonies of Portugal were occupied (1809), but were subsequently abandoned, owing to the firmness and threats of the Chinese government. The islands of Mauritius and Bourbon were captured (1809), thus cutting off a great resort for French privateers. The Dutch colonies in the Spice Islands and Java were captured after a gallant defence (1811). In 1812, on his return from Java, Lord Minto learned that he had been superseded. He was raised to an earldom, and recalled, and in October, 1813, returned to England.

Lord Minto in India, 1880.

Mitchell, John (*b.* 1812, *d.* March 21, 1875), was one of the leaders of the Young Ireland party in 1848, and in his journal, the *United Irishman*, supported open rebellion. He was tried, but found not guilty. When the Treason Felony Act was passed, however, he was again arrested, and his newspaper suppressed. He was finally sentenced to fourteen years' transportation, and sent to Bermuda. He escaped by breaking his parole, and fled to the United States, where he became an ardent partisan of the Confederates. In 1874 he went to Ireland, and was returned to Parliament unopposed for Tipperary county. On Mr. Disraeli's motion, however, he was declared incapable of sitting. A new writ being issued, he was again elected; but Captain Moore, a Conservative, who was next on the poll, claimed the seat, and it was adjudged to him by the Irish Court of Common Pleas. Mitchell now intended to stand for every Irish county in turn, but died before he could carry out his plan.

M'Leod Affair, The (1841). During the Canadian rebellion an American steamer called the *Caroline*, which had been engaged in carrying arms to the rebels, was boarded in the night by a party of loyalists, set on fire, and driven over the Falls of Niagara. She was lying at that time within the terri-

torial jurisdiction of the State of New York, and an American citizen lost his life in the struggle. The matter caused some excitement in the United States; and in January, 1841, Alexander M'Leod, a British subject, was arrested in the State of New York on a charge of murder, for being concerned in the attack on the *Caroline*. The British government at once demanded his release, asserting that he was acting under and within his orders, and that in consequence the responsibility rested solely with them. The United States government replied to this communication that they could not interfere with the internal affairs of the State of New York. Lord Palmerston replied that the execution of M'Leod would be followed by war. M'Leod was tried at Utica in October, and was declared "Not Guilty." This was a simple solution of what seemed likely to prove a very disastrous affair.

Modus Tenendi Parliamentum is a document containing a sketch of the constitution and manner of holding Parliament. It pretends to give an account of Parliament as it existed in the time of William the Conqueror, but it would seem to have been written about the reign of Richard II., and in many particulars to describe rather the author's idea of what Parliament should be, than the actual condition of that assembly in the fourteenth century.

The document is to be found in Dr. Stubbs's *Select Charters*.

Mogul, The Great, was the name commonly given to the Indian prince who was the descendant of Timour the Tartar, "the firebrand of the universe." Baber, one of his successors, established himself as Emperor of India at Delhi, and transmitted his dignity to his posterity. The invasion of Nadir Shah, and the sack of Delhi, 1739, struck a fatal blow at the grandeur of the Mogul Empire. Already the Deccan had split off under a powerful chief, the Nizam-ool-Moolk. The government of Oude was usurped by another; and the conquests of the Mahrattas tended to reduce the imperial authority to a shadow. In 1788 Delhi was sacked again; the wretched emperor was blinded by a ruffian, and his wives and daughters exposed and dishonoured. After the battle of Patun (1790), the emperor fell wholly into the power of Scindia. After the battle of Delhi he became a British pensioner, with a large and liberal pension and his residence in Delhi. On the outbreak of the Indian Mutiny in 1857, after a bloody massacre, the descendant of Timour was proclaimed King of Delhi. But after the siege and capture of Delhi by Archdale Wilson, he surrendered, and his two murderous sons were shot in the midst of their attendants by Captain Hodson. The Mogul himself was tried, found guilty of treason and murder, and transported to Tounghoo in Burmah, with his favourite wife and son.

Elphinstone, *India*; Malleson, *Indian Mutiny*; Grant Duff, *Mahrattas*.

Mohamrah, The, a strong Persian fortress on the river Karoon, a branch of the Euphrates, was stormed by the English during the Persian Campaign (March 26. 1857).

Townsend, *Persian Campaign*.

Mohun, Charles, 5th Baron (*d.* 1712), "the Whig bully," was a nobleman of bad character, conspicuous at intervals during the reigns of William III. and Anne. In 1692 he was tried for aiding his friend Captain Hill in the murder of the actor, William Mountford, before the court of the Lord High Steward. Although palpably guilty, he was acquitted. He behaved with great bravery while serving as a volunteer in the expedition against Brest (1694). In Anne's reign he was chiefly conspicuous for his uncompromising Whiggism. He spoke against Nottingham's Occasional Conformity Bill, and wished to have him sent to the Tower for an imputation on the memory of King William. He warmly defended the Godolphin ministry after its fall (1710). Marlborough chose him as his second in a duel arranged with Lord Powlett, which was stopped, however, by royal authority. Mohun was himself slain in a duel with the Duke of Hamilton, not, however before he had mortally wounded his adversary. The quarrel was of a private nature; but as Hamilton was about to be sent to France, it was believed with favourable messages to the Pretender, his death was regarded by the Tories as a political murder.

Moleyns, or **Molineux,** Adam (*d.* 1450), Bishop of Chichester, was one of the negotiators of the marriage between Henry VI. and Margaret of Anjou, and also assisted in arranging a truce with France, both of which acts made him very unpopular. He was one of the victims of Jack Cade's rebellion, being murdered by the insurgents as he was on the point of escaping to France.

Monasticism. Monks were bodies of men, living together apart from the world, for the purpose of leading a religious life. Monasticism first sprang up in the East, where it assumed a solitary and contemplative character; as it spread in the West its organisation became more practical. The first monks who exercised any influence on Great Britain were the Celtic monks of Ireland, where Christianity early assumed a monastic and tribal character. The Irish Church was not so much organised round the bishops as round the monastery. The tribe was reproduced in the monastic brotherhood, of which the abbot was father and head. Celtic Christianity was poetical and imaginative. It sent forth mis-

sionaries amongst the Britons and the Picts. In the fourth century Ninian established a monastery at Candida Casa, or Whithern, in Galloway. Soon afterwards two bishops of Gaul dotted along the Wye settlements, which rapidly spread. Columbà's monastery at Iona was the source whence Christianity was carried into the Northumbrian kingdom (635), and Lindisfarne became the great missionary station whence the conversion of the north of England was carried on. When the Roman monk Augustine converted the Kentish kingdom he likewise established a monastery at Canterbury (598). The Roman and the Celtic Church advanced in their work of conversion till they came into collision. When in 664 it was agreed at the Synod of Whitby that the Roman use should prevail in the Northumbrian kingdom, the downfall of Celtic monasticism followed. Such monks as remained conformed to the Roman rule; those who refused returned to Iona. Before the end of the eleventh century Celtic monasticism died away, and the more vigorous system of Rome had taken its place. There was no great difference between the objects which the two systems proposed. Prayer, work, and reading were alike the aims of the communities. The monks settled on unoccupied lands, and by their labour brought them under cultivation. They taught the neighbouring folk, and by their active lives gave a standing protest against the prevalent sensuality of a rude people. The monasteries were the homes of peace and learning, and were the means of spreading civilisation. The Northumbrian thegn, Benedict Biscop, founded his monasteries of Wearmouth (674) and Jarrow (682), where rose a band of English scholars, of whom Bede is the chief. But even before his death, Bede saw the decline of the great days of monasticism. His letter to Egberht, Archbishop of York, complains of the excessive number of monasteries founded from a desire to obtain from the king grants of folkland. The monks were the mere creatures of the thegns who put them there; they lived idle and useless lives; they set a bad example, and impoverished the State. Bede's warnings were unheeded, and punishment was not long in coming. The Northmen attacked the monasteries, which were near the sea, and whose treasures offered them a rich booty. The ninth century saw the overthrow by the heathen of most of the renowned monasteries of England. The rule of life, such as it was, seems after this to have fallen into disuse, and they were mostly left in the possession of secular clerks. In the middle of the tenth century a monastic revival spread from the abbeys of Glastonbury and Abingdon. Dunstan and Ethelwolf laboured to restore a system which alone could repair in English society the ravages wrought by the Danes. They pursued two objects, the substitution of monks for secular canons, and the introduction of the rule of St. Benedict for the vaguer and less organised rules which had been previously adopted. Their efforts met with great success. Kings and nobles again endowed monasteries, and monasticism became once more a great influence in the progress of English society.

The Norman Conquest brought still stronger and more definite organisation. The great monastic reform on the Continent, which had begun at Cluny, was steadily pursued in Normandy at Bec. From Bec came the two archbishops, Lanfranc and Anselm. Not only were the English monasteries more rigidly ruled by Norman abbots, but in cases where cathedrals had been originally of monastic foundation, Lanfranc replaced the secular canons by regulars. [Cathedrals.] By means of the monasteries especially the superior civilisation of the Normans was spread through England. But the institution of monasticism itself had well-nigh spent its strength. The eleventh and twelfth centuries witnessed the formation of a number of new orders, all following the Benedictine rule in its main features, but each striving to give it greater reality.

Each of the monastic movements which led to the formation of the Carthusians, Premonstratensians, Austin Canons, and, above all, Cistercians, found its echo in England. Amongst the founders of the Cistercian order was an Englishman, Stephen Harding, and the Cistercians were a favourite order in England, as the remains of their great abbeys in Yorkshire sufficiently show. The Crusades created a new kind of monasticism—the military orders of the Knights Templars and the Knights of St. John. One order only was specially English, the Gilbertines, founded by Gilbert of Sempringham, in Lincolnshire, about 1135, which is remarkable for double monasteries of men and women, side by side.

This feverish growth of new orders was a sign of weakness rather than of strength. Monasticism could not save itself from degeneracy, and in the beginning of the thirteenth century a new effort was made by St. Francis and St. Dominic, who established the mendicant orders. [Friars.] The friars rapidly increased in numbers and in popular estimation, and the glory of the old orders paled before them; but in spite of their greater activity, the friars also rapidly ran their course. The fourteenth century saw the gradual growth of a feeling against religious orders. The Templars, through their pride and wealth, and the mystery which surrounded their doings, were the first to fall. They were dissolved in 1310. In England the royal power showed great jealousy of "alien priories," or houses depending on foreign monasteries. Edward I. and Edward III. both confiscated their lands and possessions. Finally, in 1416, Parliament dissolved these "alien priories," and vested their lands in the crown.

The feeling against monastic institutions

was largely increased by the Lollard movement; but on many sides it was felt that their usefulness had really gone. In early times the monks had been settlers and reclaimers of barren land; later they had been good farmers, who had not dealt hardly with those who worked under them. The Cistercians in Yorkshire especially were the chief merchants in the wool trade with Flanders. But monasteries, like all corporations, though easy masters, were tenacious of their rights. They were often involved in quarrels with the rising spirit of municipal freedom. At St. Albans, for instance, the monks and the burghers were in constant strife about trifling matters. The enfranchisement of villeins, and the gradual extinction of villeinage in the fourteenth century, brought economic changes, which were unfavourable to the tenure of lands by corporations. The land was more and more let to tenants, and not worked by the monks themselves. Luxury and idleness went hand in hand. It became clear that any reform in the Church must begin with the monasteries. In 1523 Wolsey obtained bulls from the Pope suppressing forty of the smaller monasteries, and authorising the application of their revenues to educational purposes. The Renaissance had made men feel that a learned clergy was necessary, instead of indolent monks.

The example set by Wolsey was rapidly followed when Henry VIII. threw off from the Church of England the papal headship. The monasteries were particularly obnoxious to the king as harbouring those who were discontented with his changes. Their weakness and their wealth made them a tempting object of attack. A visitation of the monasteries was followed by an Act of Parliament authorising the suppression of the smaller monasteries whose incomes were below £200 a year (1536). Their fall was quickly followed by that of the larger monasteries also (1539). The monastic system was swept out of England. The monasteries themselves were cast down. Their lands were granted to nobles, or were sold, and the result was a sudden change in social conditions which was not for the better. The easy-going monks were replaced by capitalists. The old-fashioned farming of the monks was superseded. Arable land was turned into pasture for the more profitable purpose of growing wool. Many peasants were thrown out of work, and the doors of the monasteries no longer stood open for the relief of destitution. There was great distress, and much discontent, which caused the popular risings under the Tudors, and the legislation of Henry VIII. against "sturdy beggars." Ultimately the Poor Law of Elizabeth adopted the principle of distributing alms to those in want, and replaced the charity of the monks by the legal contributions of the community. In constitutional matters the suppression of the monasteries largely diminished the members of the House of Lords. The greater abbots ceased to exist, and the character of the Upper House was changed by the loss of the preponderance of spiritual peers. [Abbot.]

The general character of English religious orders may be shown by the number of their houses at the time of the dissolution. There were 186 Benedictines, 173 Augustinians, 101 Cistercians, 33 of the four orders of friars, 32 Premonstratensians, 28 of the Knights Hospitallers, 25 Gilbertines, 20 Cluniacs, 9 Carthusians, and a few other orders. The total number of monasteries was 616, and their revenues were approximately valued at £142,914 yearly.

A full account of English monasteries is given in Dugdale's *Monasticon;* of monasticism in general a popular account is in Montalembert's *Monks of the West.* For the dissolution of the monasteries Dixon's *History of the Church of England.* [M. C.]

Monk, George. [Albemarle.]

Monmouth, James, Duke of (*b.* 1649, *d.* 1685), was the natural son of Charles II. by Lucy Walters, and was born at Rotterdam. During the king's exile he was generally known as James Crofts, but in 1662 he was brought over to England, and created Duke of Monmouth and Orkney, recognised by Charles as his son, and apartments in Whitehall given to him. In 1663 he was married to Lady Anne Scott, daughter and heiress of the Duke of Buccleugh. In 1665 he took part in a naval engagement with the Dutch, and in 1668 he was made captain of the first troop of Life Guards. In 1672 he was appointed to an important military command in the Dutch War, and distinguished himself by his bravery and discretion. In 1678 he fought in the army of the Prince of Orange, from whom he earned high praise. In 1679 he was sent to Scotland to repress the Covenanters, whom he defeated at Bothwell Bridge, but earned a name for humanity by preventing the indiscriminate slaughter of the insurgents. About this period dates his great popularity and his friendship with Shaftesbury and other leaders of the Protestant or Presbyterian party, and a design was formed whereby Monmouth should succeed to the throne. But Charles sternly refused to countenance such an idea, and expressly declared that Monmouth was not his legitimate son, while, to prevent these intrigues from being carried on any longer, he banished Monmouth to Holland in 1679. In 1680 he returned, was received by the people with the greatest enthusiasm, and made a progress through England, being hailed everywhere with demonstrations of popular joy. In the midst of his progress he was arrested at Stafford by the king's orders. He quickly made his peace with his father, and lived quietly in London till 1683, when he joined in the Revolution plot, though probably not in the Rye House conspiracy. Charles, however, treated Monmouth with the utmost

kindness, but finding that he still consorted with men who were suspected of designs against the government, he was compelled to banish him once more to Holland. Here he remained till the accession of James II., when he was expelled from Holland by William of Orange, and returned to Brussels, where the invasion of England was planned. On June 11 (1685) he landed at Lyme Regis in Dorsetshire, where he issued a proclamation against "the Duke of York," as he termed James II., asserting his own legitimacy, but, at the same time promising that he would leave his claims to be decided by a free Parliament. From Lyme he marched to Taunton, Bridgewater, Wells, and Frome, at all of which places he was solemnly proclaimed. The royal troops under Feversham and Churchill encountered his levies at the battle of Sedgemoor, and Monmouth was utterly routed (July 5, 1685). After wandering about for some days, he was discovered near Holtbridge, in Dorsetshire, in a dry ditch, covered with fern. He now exhibited the greatest cowardice and terror, and entreated James to grant him an interview, which the king did, but, finding that he would not betray his accomplices, rejected all his appeals for mercy, and Monmouth was executed on Tower Hill on July 15th. He left three children—James, Earl of Dalkeith, Henry, Earl of Deloraine, and Anne, who died from grief shortly after her father.

Roberts, *Life of Monmouth*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Christie, *Life of Shaftesbury*.

[F. S. P.]

Monopolies. The first attack upon the power of the crown to issue patents conferring exclusive rights of carrying on certain trades, was made in 1597. According to the common law every man was entitled freely to exercise his trade, but the principle was generally recognised that exceptions might be made to this rule in the case of any process newly invented or introduced from abroad. Anxious to gain a control over the increasing commerce of the country, the government was likely to stretch this principle farther than it would bear, and the grant of patents to courtiers was among the readiest means of satisfying their demands. In 1597 the Commons sent up an address to Elizabeth against the abuse of monopolies, but an evasive reply was given, and in 1601 a bitter debate of four days took place on the subject. The queen thought it wise to yield, promised that all injurious grants should be repealed, and caused most of the patents to be revoked. Their number increased again under James I.: "whereas, at the king's coming in," says a contemporary, "there were complaints of some eight or nine monopolies then in being, they are now said to be multiplied by so many scores." A detailed examination of the most important cases has been made by Mr. Gardiner, who declares that they were not open to the usual charges brought against them. "They were not made with the object of filling the Exchequer. They were not made, primarily at least, with the object of filling the pockets of the courtiers. They were, it is impossible to doubt, the result of a desire on the part of official persons to encourage commerce, and to promote the welfare of the State, though it cannot be denied that their zeal was often greater than their knowledge, and that their best efforts were not unfrequently tainted by . . . . favouritism and corruption. Take, for example, the commission for gold and silver thread. Such thread had been made before in England, but on a small scale; in 1611 and 1616 patents were granted to certain persons, including several courtiers, on two grounds: first, that they would establish a manufacture large enough to compete with the Continent; and secondly, that they would import bullion, and not use English coin, the sinews and strength of our state." In 1618 the monopoly was taken into the king's hands, and a proclamation issued forbidding the manufacture of gold and silver thread by private persons, while a commission was issued for the punishment of offenders. The commissioners caused disobedient workmen to be arrested, tools seized, and goldsmiths and silkmen imprisoned upon refusal to enter into bonds not to sell to unlicensed persons. The harshness with which the monopolies were enforced, together with the fact that the chief monopolists were also profiting by patents for the control of alehouses and inns, and shamefully abusing their power, caused a storm of indignation which broke in the Parliament of 1621. On Feb. 19, Noy moved for an inquiry, and his proposal was seconded by Coke. A committee of the whole House investigated the patents for inns, and also those conferring monopolies. The king yielded to the storm, and Buckingham, on the advice of Dean Williams, declared he would not even protect his brother. Sir Giles Mompesson and Sir Francis Mitchell were accused by the Commons before the Lords (a measure usually regarded as the revival of the power of impeachment, though not technically such), and heavy penalties were imposed. Finally, in the Parliament of 1624, an Act was passed abolishing most of the monopolies. Some few, however, were specially retained as for the public advantage. A few years later the Lord Treasurer Weston endeavoured to raise money by creating chartered companies, which escaped the Act of 1624 by being open to all merchants who cared to pay certain fees. Much discontent was caused among those traders who were unable to join, and the grants were all revoked in 1639.

Gardiner, *Hist. of England*, iv.; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*

[W. J. A.]

Montague, John Neville, Marquis

OF (*d.* 1471), was the son of Richard, Earl of Salisbury, and the younger brother of the Earl of Warwick. He joined his father and brother in espousing the cause of York, and on the accession of Edward IV. was made Warden of the East Marches. In 1464 he defeated the Lancastrians at Hedgeley Moor and Hexham. In 1467 he was created Earl of Northumberland, and the estates of the Percies were granted to him. He resigned this position in two years in order that Percy might be restored, and received in lieu the title of Marquis of Montague. He joined Warwick in his intrigues against Edward, shared in Henry VI.'s restoration, and fell with his brother in the battle of Barnet.

Montague, ANTHONY BROWNE, VISCOUNT (*d.* 1592), "a man of great wisdom, prudence, and loyalty," was son of Sir Anthony Browne, Master of the Horse to Henry VIII., and as a staunch Roman Catholic was high in favour with Mary, by whom he was created a peer (September, 1554). He was lieutenant of the English forces at the siege of St. Quentin, and in 1561, in spite of his vigorous opposition to the Acts of Uniformity and Supremacy, was sent by Elizabeth on a mission to the court of Spain. His religion caused him to be suspected of sympathy with the northern rebels in 1569, but he nevertheless contrived to retain the favour of the queen. Lord Montague was one of the commissioners at the trial of the Queen of Scots in 1587.

Monte, ROBERT DE (*d.* 1186), was a monk of Mont St. Michel, in Normandy. He wrote a *Chronicle*, extending to the year of his death, and a *History of Henry I.*, which is generally considered the eighth book of William of Jumièges' *Chronicle*. "His *Chronicle*," says Sir T. Hardy, "is the most important authority we possess for the history of the Continental actions of our later Norman kings and the earlier monarchs of the house of Plantagenet."

This work will be found in Pertz, and a translation in the *Church Historians of England*.

Montfort, SIMON DE (*b.* 1208). The marriage of Simon, lord of Montfort and Evreux, with the sister and co-heiress of the Earl of Leicester, in the reign of Henry II., was the origin of the connection of the Montforts with England. Their second son, Simon, the leader of the Albigensian crusade, to whom fell the title and half the estates of the earldom of Leicester, married Alice de Montmorency, and of this marriage, Simon, the great Earl of Leicester, was the fourth and youngest son. His father was deprived of his English estates in 1210, and died in 1218, leaving to his sons—of whom only two, Almeric or Amaury, and Simon, now remained—nothing more than his ancestral territories and his claims in England. Amaury resigned his rights to his younger brother, who came to England in 1230 to try his fortune. He at once became a royal favourite, was given a pension of 400 marks; and in the year 1238 was secretly married to the king's sister, Eleanor, widow of William Marshall. In 1239 he was invested with the earldom of Leicester, and soon after acted as godfather at Prince Edward's christening. Up to this date, then, there had been nothing to distinguish him from the crowd of foreign adventurers who haunted the court of Henry. Political causes precipitated the first quarrel. In 1239 Frederick II. was excommunicated by the Pope; after some hesitation the English king made up his mind to side with the pontiff, and determined to get rid of a man whom he knew greatly admired the Pope's enemy. When next he came to court, Henry greeted him with coarse and causeless abuse, and ordered him to depart. With his wife he hastened to France, cheered in his exile by a letter from Grosseteste of Lincoln, whom he had made his friend. In less than a year, however, the king was reconciled, but Simon was glad to take refuge from the annoyances of the English court in the excitement of a crusade (1240—41). In Palestine he could do little, though his ability so impressed the barons of the kingdom of Jerusalem that they begged the Emperor to appoint him governor of the land. In 1242—43 Henry's miserable campaign in Poitou engaged him; and then for five years he lived quietly on his Leicester estates, in the enjoyment of the friendship of Grosseteste and Adam de Marisco. In 1248 he was summoned from his retirement to become Lieutenant of Gascony. Into the details of his five years' administration it is not necessary to enter. Possibly he occasionally acted with ill-timed severity, and the pleasure which a strong man has in the sense of mastery may have led him into indiscretions. But it is clear that his administration was on the whole successful, and also that he was again and again shamefully abandoned by his weak master, who seemed to welcome the complaints made against him. On his return Simon again retired to his own estates, and watched the course of events, and it is not till the Mad Parliament of 1258 that he again becomes prominent. But from this time to his death he is the foremost figure in the opposition, and it was during this period that he made so powerful an impression upon the popular mind by his political measures and personal qualities. Avoiding details, his subsequent action may be thus summarised: He was one of the twenty-four who drew up the Provisions of Oxford, and a member of the permanent Council of fifteen; negotiated peace with Louis IX.; quarrelled with Gloucester in the Parliament of February, 1259, according to popular belief because the latter was content with getting power into the hands of the barons, and objected to further reform; he joined with the Bishop of

Worcester in summoning the Parliament of 1261, in which knights of the shire were present; on the death of the elder Gloucester he practically governed England for some months at the end of 1262 and beginning of 1263; rejected the Mise of Amiens; took up arms and won the battle of Lewes (1264), which put the king into his hands; established a standing Council of nine instead of the elaborate constitution of 1208; and brought to the support of this a Parliament to which knights of the shire were summoned, and in 1265 representatives of the towns for the first time. He was killed at Evesham, Aug. 4, 1265.

Simon has long enjoyed the reputation of being the creator of the English House of Commons. It has, however, been pointed out that the writs of 1265 for borough representation were not sent through the sheriff, but to the mayors direct; and thus Simon's action stands outside the regular development of Parliament, which consisted in bringing the county courts into contact with the Great Council. It cannot, however, be doubted that the precedent of 1265 was of the utmost subsequent importance. It may fairly be argued that the constitution of 1258 does not represent Simon's own policy, but that of the barons with whom he was forced to associate; while that of 1264, arranged at a time when he had broken with the oligarchical party, represents his own ideas as to what was fitting in the existing state of things. Simon in 1264—65 showed his confidence in the knights and burghers by summoning them to a Parliament which was to have a permanent place in the constitution.

Matthew Paris; Annals of Burton; Matthew of Westminster; Monumenta Franciscana; Grosseteste's Letters, and Royal Letters of Henry III.'s Reign (all in Rolls Series); Wright's *Political Songs* (Camden Soc.). Blaauw, *Barons' War*, and Pauli, *Simon de Montfort*, are good modern books on the period. Especial reference should be made to Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, ii., ch. 14, and to the documents in his *Select Charters*.

[W. J. A.]

Montfort, Henry de (*d.* 1265), was the eldest son of Simon de Montfort. He took part with his father in his opposition to Henry III., and commanded the right wing of the baronial army at Lewes, and, after the victory, took charge of Prince Edward. The conduct of Henry and his brothers during the period between the battles of Lewes and Evesham was one of the chief causes of their father's fate. Henry was killed at the battle of Evesham.

Montfort, Simon de (*d.* 1271), second son of Simon de Montfort, first distinguished himself in the year 1264 by defending Northampton against the royalists. He was, however, defeated, taken prisoner, and his life only saved by the personal intervention of Prince Edward. He was not released till after the battle of Lewes, when he was appointed by his father warden of Surrey and Sussex. After the battle of Evesham, he held out in the castle of Kenilworth, and through his intercession the lives of the King of the Romans and his son were spared. After the capture of the castle he fled to Italy, where, in conjunction with his brother Guy, he murdered Henry of Almayne, at Viterbo. For this crime he was excommunicated, and shortly afterwards died.

Montfort, Almeric de, was the third son of Simon de Montfort. He was appointed treasurer of York, but after his father's death was deprived of his office, and fled abroad. Being supposed to have been privy to the Viterbo murder, he was taken prisoner by Edward I. in 1276, but in 1281, at the Pope's intercession, he was released.

Montford, Guy de, was the fourth son of Simon de Montfort, and took part with his father in the Barons' War, commanding the right wing at the battle of Lewes. Wounded at the battle of Evesham, he fled to Italy, where in 1270 he murdered Henry of Almayne at Viterbo. For this he was excommunicated, but was subsequently allowed to do penance, and fought in the Papal army, but in 1288 was taken prisoner by the Sicilians, and ended his days in prison.

Montrose, James Graham, 5th Earl of (*b.* 1612, *d.* 1650), at first espoused the cause of the Covenanters, whose troops he commanded in the north of Scotland. Having got possession of his enemy, Huntly, by violating his safe-conduct (1639), Montrose sent him to Edinburgh, and continued his movements against the Gordons and other Royalists, whom he defeated at Stonehaven, subsequently routing them again at the Bridge of Dee. In 1641 Montrose, annoyed at the Covenanters refusing him the supreme command, went over to the side of the king, who created him a marquis in 1644. In his Highland campaign (1644–45), Montrose was most successful, defeating the Covenanters at Tippermuir, Aberdeen, Auldearn, Alford, and Kilsyth, though he was himself beaten at Philiphaugh (Sept., 1645). In 1650 he undertook a fresh invasion of Scotland on behalf of Charles II., but was defeated and taken prisoner, and was hanged at Edinburgh.

Montserrat, one of the Leeward Islands, south-west of Antigua, was discovered by Columbus in 1493. In 1632 it was colonised by a party of English settlers from St. Kitts, and remained in British hands until 1782, when it was taken by the French, and kept by them until the close of the war. In 1871 it joined the federation of the Leeward Islands, of which it forms a presidency, with nominated executive and legislative councils.

Edwards, *West Indies*.

Monumenta Franciscana is the title of a work published in the Rolls Series, under the editorship of Mr. Brewer, which contains valuable original materials for the history of the arrival and settlement of the Franciscans in England, the letters of Adam Marsh, and other documents connected with the foundation and diffusion of this great body. Mr. Brewer's preface throws a flood of light on the early history of the mendicant orders in England.

Moodkee, The Battle of (Dec. 18, 1845), was fought during the Sikh War. After a fatiguing march of twenty-one miles over an arid plain, Sir Hugh Gough found himself face to face with the army of Lal Sing. He was taken completely by surprise. The enemy's horse endeavoured to outflank our force, but were gallantly repulsed. In this first conflict between the English and the Khalsa soldiers, the superiority of the latter in discipline and musketry was very apparent. The commander-in-chief had himself to rally a flying native regiment, and in the confusion one of our regiments fired into another. Lal Sing was the first to fly, with his cavalry, and he was at length followed by the infantry, who withdrew under cover of night, leaving seventeen guns in the hands of the English. The British loss amounted to 872 killed and wounded.

Moolraj, Insurrection of. Moolraj, the Governor of Mooltan, a strong fort in the Punjaub, was the son of Sawan Mull, whom he succeeded in 1844. In March of 1848, after some differences with the Durbar, he offered to resign the fort and government. This was accepted, and Khan Singh was sent to assume the government, accompanied by Mr. Agnew, as political agent, and an escort of 350 Sikh troops. On the morning of the 19th, there was a stormy interview with Moolraj, who was ordered to produce the accounts of the last six years. On the 20th an attempt was made to assassinate Mr. Agnew. On the 21st a brisk fire was opened on the encampment from the citadel. The Sikh escort proved treacherous, and deserted to the enemy; a crew of howling savages rushed in and murdered Mr. Agnew and his companion, Lieutenant Anderson, with the greatest brutality. On the 22nd Moolraj issued a proclamation of a religious war against the English. Lieutenant Edwardes, who was employed in the revenue settlement at Bunnoo, across the Indus, without waiting for orders, crossed the Indus with 1,200 infantry, 350 horse, and two guns. The Nabob of Bhawulpore was requested by the Resident to advance. Lieutenant Edwardes joined him at Kineyree. Timely reinforcements enabled him to win the battles of Kineyree and Sudoosain, and to shut Moolraj up in Mooltan, when the outbreak of Shere Sing merged these operations in the second Sikh War.

Mooltan, Siege of (1848). This was begun in July, 1848, by Lieutenant Edwardes with a British force, supported by one troop of the friendly Nabob of Bhawulpore. The investment continued till Sept. 12, when the town was ineffectually bombarded. The siege was raised Sept. 22. General Whish, with 17,000 men and sixty-four heavy guns, re-opened the siege (Dec. 27), and pushed it with great vigour. For five days, in spite of desperate sallies, the batteries played on the town. On the third day an enormous powder magazine exploded in the town, doing immense damage. On January 2, 1849, the town was carried by assault. The siege of the citadel was now pushed on. After a continuous fire from the English batteries for several days, Moolraj endeavoured to treat, but was informed that no terms would be granted short of unconditional surrender. He therefore continued to defend the fort, till his garrison insisted on surrender or an attempt to cut their way out. On Jan. 22, therefore, he surrendered, and the fort was placed in charge of Lieutenant Edwardes.

Moore, Sir John (*b.* 1761, *d.* 1809), was the son of a Glasgow physician. His education was chiefly acquired on the Continent, till in 1776 he entered the army. Two years later he was ordered to Nova Scotia, where he remained almost inactive during the American War. On the conclusion of peace in 1783, he was placed on half pay, and was returned to Parliament for the group of Selkirk burghs. In 1790 he became lieutenant-colonel of the 51st Regiment. Five years later he saw almost his first active service at the siege of Calvi, in Corsica, where he led the storming party of grenadiers into the chief fort. He was appointed adjutant-general of the island, but he soon threw it up, and, returning to England, was ordered to the West Indies under Sir Ralph Abercromby. In the expedition against St. Lucia, he distinguished himself by his wonderful courage and energy, and was rewarded by being appointed governor of the island. In this position his continuous exertions, combined with the malarious character of the climate, twice laid him low, and in the summer of 1797 he went to England with Abercromby, whom he followed to Ireland. He was engaged against the rebels at New Ross and defeated them at Wexford. In 1799 he was sent to Holland, whence he returned severely wounded. In 1800 he was again employed under Abercromby in the expedition to Egypt. At the landing of the troops Moore signalised himself by his prompt decision in bringing up the reserves at the crisis of the battle, and so gaining the victory. At Aboukir he was again conspicuous, and again wounded. While the Peace of Amiens lasted, he remained at home on staff employment, but on the renewal of the war was placed as second in command of the troops in the

Mediterranean. In 1808 he was sent to Sweden in command of 10,000 men to help the king. Some difference occurring between them, Moore was placed under arrest, and on freeing himself, returned at once with his troops to England. He had no sooner arrived than he was sent off to the Peninsula to act under Burrard and Dalrymple; but on their recall after the Convention of Cintra he was appointed to the command in chief (Oct. 6, 1808). At last he had an opportunity of displaying his great military talents, and he did not throw the chance away. He advanced up the country, but was compelled to retreat to Corunna under terrible difficulties, before Soult. On Jan. 16, 1809, he won a great victory at Corunna, and covered the embarkation of his army, but was himself killed in the action.

Memoir of Sir John Moore; Napier, *Peninsular War;* Alison, *Hist. of Europe.*

Moray. [James Stuart.]

More, Sir Thomas (*b.* 1478, *d.* 1535), was the son of Sir John More, a judge of the King's Bench. At an early age he entered the household of Cardinal Morton. In 1492 he went to Oxford, and in 1496 entered Lincoln's Inn; already before this time he had become acquainted with Erasmus and other eminent scholars. In 1504 he entered the House of Commons, and speedily became a prominent member of what may be called the popular party, opposing Henry VII.'s demand for subsidies. In 1510 he became under-sheriff of London. In 1514 and 1515 he was employed as envoy to the Low Countries, and soon after he was made a member of the Privy Council, and in 1521 knighted. He became closely connected with Henry VIII., and assisted the king in his book against Luther. In 1523 he was appointed Speaker of the House of Commons at Wolsey's request, but he nevertheless opposed the grant which the cardinal tried to obtain from the House. He, however, was reconciled to Wolsey, and in 1527 accompanied him on a mission to France. In 1525 he had been made Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, and in Oct., 1529, he became Lord Chancellor. Conspicuous as he had been all his life as one of the party of Church Reform, More was altogether opposed to the assumption of supremacy by Henry VIII. In May, 1532, he resigned the seals, and in 1534 (April 17), was sent to the Tower. He declined to take the oath of supremacy, and was indicted for misprision of treason, Nov., 1534; convicted, and beheaded July 5, 1535. More's noble and beautiful character was acknowledged by all his contemporaries. As the most distinguished of the English exponents of the "New Learning," he has an interest beyond that of his historical position. In addition to a *History of Richard III.* and other works, he wrote the *Utopia* (1526), one of the most remarkable political romances in this or any language.

Roper, *Life of More;* Jorten, *Life of Erasmus;* Seebohm, *The Oxford Reformers;* Brewer, *Reign of Henry VIII.;* Burnet, *Hist. of the Reformation.*

Moreville, Hugh de, one of the murderers of Becket (q.v.), had been one of the itinerant justices. After the murder he fled to his castle of Knaresborough, and is said to have undertaken a pilgrimage to Jerusalem in expiation of his crime. From a charter we learn that he was living at the accession of King John, and he seems to have died shortly afterwards.

Morgan, Sir Henry, one of the chief buccaneers of Jamaica, was frequently employed by Charles II. to harass the shipping of the Spaniards in the West Indies. In 1670 he plundered and burnt Panama, and as a reward was created a knight, and Governor of Jamaica.

Morgan, Thomas, a Welshman, and a devoted adherent of the Queen of Scots, was imprisoned on a charge of complicity in the Ridolfi Conspiracy. On his release he went abroad, and became Mary's chief agent in corresponding with her friends. He was declared by Dr. Parry to have instigated him to assassinate Elizabeth, and his arrest was accordingly demanded from Henry III. of France, but refused. In 1585 he formed a fresh plot against the life of the queen, and was implicated in the Babington conspiracy.

Morice, James (*d.* 1596), attorney of the Court of Wards, moved in the Parliament of 1593 that the abuses of the bishops' courts should be reformed. On this the queen forbade the House to consider "any bill touching matters of state or reformation of causes ecclesiastical," and Morice himself was kept in confinement for some years.

Morice, Sir William (*b.* 1602, *d.* 1676), played an important part in the Restoration. He was the first person to whom Monk entrusted the secret of his design to restore Charles, and he was used as a go-between by Monk and Sir John Grenville, who was sent over to Charles.

Morley, John, 1st Viscount Morley of Blackburn, was born at Blackburn in 1838. After acquiring great distinction as a man of letters and journalist, he entered Parliament in 1883. In 1886 he was secretary for Ireland in the first Home Rule ministry, and held the same office from 1892 to 1895. In 1898 he, with Sir William Harcourt, resigned the duty of "leading the councils of the Liberal party," but in 1906 he took office as secretary of state for India. He was created a viscount in 1908.

Mortimer, The Family of, was one of the most important families of the Welsh Marches. Roger Mortimer, the paramour of Queen

Isabella, was created Earl of March, with considerable estates and influence on the Welsh border. He was attainted in 1330, but the attainder was reversed, and the title and estates restored to his grandson (1354). His great-grandson, Edmund Mortimer, married Philippa, daughter of Lionel of Clarence, son of Edward III. Their grandson, the Earl of March, was heir presumptive to the crown in Henry IV.'s reign, and the unsuccessful conspiracy of the Earl of Cambridge and Lord Scrope (1415) was intended to place him on the throne. His sister Anne married Richard, Earl of Cambridge, son of Edmund of Langley, Duke of York, son of Edward III. Their son was Richard, Duke of York (killed at Wakefield, 1460), who thus united the claims of the houses of York and Mortimer, and was descended directly from two sons of Edward III.

Mortimer, Roger (*b.* 1287, *d.* 1330), was a ward of Piers Gaveston, and held many important offices in the reign of Edward II., being appointed Lieutenant of Ireland in 1317. He sided with Lancaster in his opposition to the king, was taken prisoner in 1322, and condemned to perpetual captivity. Escaping in 1324 he fled to France. In 1325 Queen Isabella being sent over to the French court, Mortimer formed an intrigue with her, and in the next year accompanied her to England. The king fled, and was subsequently deposed, and in 1327 Mortimer was master of the situation. For nearly four years the queen and Mortimer ruled the country. All attempts to upset or curtail their power were defeated; the Earl of Lancaster, who endeavoured to rival Mortimer, was compelled to submit in 1328, and a plot set on foot by the king's uncle, Edmund, Earl of Kent, which had for its object the restoration of Edward II., who was supposed to be still alive, failed utterly, and Kent was executed (1330). But this was Mortimer's last act, for the young king had determined to rid himself of the intolerable yoke he had borne so long. Mortimer was surprised in Nottingham Castle, arraigned as a traitor, accused of the death of Edward II. and the Earl of Kent, and hanged, to the universal joy of the nation. His arrogance and vindictiveness recalled the worst features of the Despencers, and his adultery with the queen rendered him still more odious in the eyes of the people.

Mortimer's Cross, The Battle of (1461), was fought between Edward, Duke of York (Edward IV.), and the Lancastrians, under the Earl of Pembroke. In 1460, while Richard, Duke of York, marched to the north against Queen Margaret, Edward was despatched to raise forces in the Welsh Marches. With these troops, he marched to Gloucester, where news reached him of his father's defeat and death at Wakefield (q.v.), and he prepared to march against Queen Margaret, when he learnt that the Earls of Wiltshire and Pembroke had assembled a large army of Welsh and Irish in order to attack him. Accordingly he turned round, and met them at Mortimer's Cross, in Herefordshire, between Leominster and Wigmore, and totally routed them. Pembroke and Wiltshire escaped, but Owen Tudor was captured and beheaded. Edward then proceeded with his army to join the Earl of Warwick, who had just been defeated by the Lancastrians at the second battle of St. Albans. They effected a junction at Chipping Norton, in Oxfordshire, and, with their united armies, marched towards London, where Edward was proclaimed king.

Mortmain. The abuse which the Statute of Mortmain (*De Religiosis*) (Nov. 15, 1279) was designed to remedy was by no means one of late origin at the time of the passing of this Act. Five hundred and fifty years earlier Bede had complained of the way in which pretended monks secured to themselves large grants of the public land, and on their produce, which ought to have supported the king's warriors, lived a life of ease and debauchery. But however great this evil may have been in the intervening centuries, it does not seem to have called for legal interference till the days of Magna Charta. By chapter 36 of the Magna Charta, confirmed 9 Henry III., "It was ordained that it should not for the future be lawful for any one to give his land to a religious house, and to take the same land to hold of that house." The object of this enactment was to prevent any more of the land from passing into the hands of the Church, and so ceasing to owe military service to the king, while at the same time the overlord lost all chance of ever recovering an estate so alienated by escheat; for by feudal law on the failure of the heirs of the grantee lands lapsed back to the grantor, and of course there could be no failure of heirs when lands were held by a corporation such as an abbey or church. Some thirty-four years later the Provisions of Westminster enacted in a somewhat similar spirit that no men of religion should enter into any man's fee without the licence of the chief lord of whom the fee is immediately holden. But this may well have been treated as a dead letter, for it was not re-enacted in the Statute of Marlborough (1267). Edward I., the whole bent of whose mind seems to have been towards definiteness and order, soon saw with disgust how much of the land was steadily freeing itself from the duty of military service, and securing itself against ever lapsing into the royal hands. To remedy this defect he issued the famous Statute of Mortmain, or *Statutum de Religiosis* (1279). This enactment forbids "any person whatsoever, religious or other, to buy or sell, or under colour of any gift, term, or other title, to receive from any one any lands or tenements in such a way that such lands

and tenements should come into *mort main*." The penalty affixed to breaking this enactment was forfeiture to the next superior lord, and if he failed to insist on this forfeiture within a year, the right lapsed to *his* overlord, and so on to the king. But clerical cunning was not long in finding a means of evading even this law, and some six years later the king had to issue a fresh statute to check this new abuse. As might be expected, the great body of the clergy strongly disapproved of the king's measures, and in 1294, when Edward demanded half their revenue for the year, offered to grant it if he would only repeal the statute "*De Religiosis*." This, however, Edward was by no means prepared to do. We must not, however, suppose that all gifts of landed property to ecclesiastical foundations were cut short by this Statute of Mortmain. Passing by the system of "Trusts and uses," by which the monks attempted to evade its stringency, "the kings never withheld their licence from the endowment of any valuable new foundation." Another device, that of bringing land into the possession of the Church, under pretence of purchasing it as a burial-ground, was forbidden by another Statute of Mortmain under Richard II. (1391), a statute which at the same time specially declares the provisions and penalties of Edward's Act to extend to guilds and fraternities, and even to the "Mayors, Bailiffs, and Commons of Cities, Boroughs and other Towns, which have a perpetual Commonalty," and so could hold land in perpetuity without any chance of its lapsing.

Of later Acts dealing with the alienation of land in mortmain, we may notice 7 & 8 Will. III., c. 37, which empowered the king "to grant any person or persons, corporate or not, licence to alien in mortmain without rendering the lands liable to forfeiture." Again, the statute of George II. specified the conditions under which alone lands, &c., could be devised for charitable purposes. Oxford and Cambridge, Eton, Winchester, and Westminster, were excepted from the operation of this Act, and by the 5th of Geo. IV., the British Museum was likewise excepted from the Statutes of Mortmain, as other religious, educational, and charitable bodies have been since. Finally, by 54 & 55 Vict., c. 73, land may be left by will to charitable uses, but (with certain exceptions) must be sold within a year after the testator's death.

"Mortmain [Fr. *morte*, dead; *main*, hand] is," says Dr. Lathom, "such a state of possession as makes property inalienable; whence it is said to be in a *dead hand*, in a hand that cannot shift away the property." In the later of the statutes the phrase runs lest lands "deveniant ad manum mortuam;" and in the French equivalent it is "devenir à mortmayn."

Reeves, *Hist. of Engl. Law*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*

Morton, John, Cardinal (*d.* 1500). studied at Balliol College, Oxford. In 1474 he was appointed Archdeacon of Winchester, and in 1479 was made Bishop of Ely and Chancellor by Edward IV. He was regarded with suspicion by Richard III., and given into the custody of the Duke of Buckingham. He escaped to Henry Tudor, on the Continent, and became one of his chief advisers. When Henry came to the throne, Morton became one of the Privy Council, and on the death of Bourchier in 1486, Archbishop of Canterbury, and in 1487 he again became Chancellor. In 1493 he was created a cardinal. During the remainder of his life he was Henry VII.'s chief minister, and incurred much of the odium of that king's measures. But he seems to have been a wise and enlightened prelate, and a friend to learning and education.

Mountjoy, William Stewart, Viscount (*d.* 1692), was one of the few members of the Established Church who held office in Tyrconnel's Jacobite administration (1689). Master of the Ordnance and colonel of an Irish regiment, he was also president of a royal society, formed in imitation of the Royal Society of London. When it was seen that Ulster was determined to hold out for William III., he was sent there to win them over. The inhabitants of Londonderry permitted him to leave a portion of his regiment there, but the Enniskilleners declined to listen to his proposal. Shortly afterwards, Tyrconnel, wishing him out of the way, sent him on a mission to St. Germains, with Rice, who was to tell James that he (Mountjoy) was a traitor at heart. He was accordingly thrown into the Bastile. After three years he was exchanged for Richard Hamilton, and, converted by his wrongs to Whiggism, volunteered in William's army. He fell at Steinkirk.

Munro, Sir Thomas (*d.* 1827), entered the military service of the East India Company. He was present at the first march on Seringapatam, and the battle of Arikera, and subsequently took part in the more successful march of 1792. In 1799 he was included in the commission appointed to complete the organisation of Mysore after the fall of the Mohammedan dynasty. In 1813, having seen the disadvantages of the zemindary system of land settlement in Bengal and Mysore, he instituted the ryotwary system. From 1820 to 1827 he was Governor of Madras.

Munster, The Kingdom and Province of, is believed by modern authorities to have been peopled chiefly by the Milesians, a group of tribes of Gaulish or Spanish origin. The Irish legends represent Munster as having been divided between the Milesian chiefs Eber and his brother Lugaid, of whom the former prevailed, and drove the latter into the south-

western corner. President W. K. Sullivan thinks that the tribes of Eber are to be identified with the Scoti, or Brigantian Gauls, who invaded Ireland from Meath, and appears to throw some doubt on the theory of an invasion from Spain. The tribes of Eber were in turn subdued by the tribe of Degaid, probably of the rival Milesian race of Erimon, but the former, under the famous Mug of Munster, having recovered their strength, drove out the Degaidian tribe. Mug further defeated the *ardri*, or over-king Conn "of the hundred battles," and compelled him to consent to a division of Ireland, by which the former received the southern part, Loth Moga or Mug's half (*circa* A.D. 130). Munster now comprised the modern counties of Tipperary, Waterford, Cork, Kerry, Limerick, part of Kilkenny, and Clare, which had orignally belonged to Connaught. It was divided into the districts of Thomond, Desmond, and Ormonde. The kings of these districts formed a confederacy under the King of Cashel, who, according to the old Irish custom, was chosen alternately from the Eoghanists (afterwards the O'Donovans and the MacCarthys) of Desmond, and the Dalcasians (the O'Briens) of Thomond. It seems that Munster was partly converted to Christianity, probably through the Irish colonies in Wales, before the arrival of St. Patrick in 431, but even after the coming of that saint it would seem, from the fact that Queen Ethne the Terrible was still a heathen, that the new faith gained ground but slowly The Munster kings were throughout this period the rivals of the *ardris* of the Hui-Neill dynasty, and disputed the supremacy of Ireland with them, often not without success. They seized the opportunity of the Scandinavian invasions (795—1014), to revive their claim to the over-kingship, and unpatriotically ravaged the territories of the Hui-Neills. From 915, however, there was an interval of comparative peace throughout Ireland for forty years, during which time Cormac MacCullinan, the king-bishop of Cashel, is a prominent figure in Irish history, one of his feats being the defeat of the joint forces of the King of Connaught and of Flann, the *ardri*, in battle. After his death (976) the famous Brian Boru speedily made Munster as powerful as it had been in the days of Mug. Subsequently, however, Munster again fell into anarchy until 1050, when Donnchad O'Brien succeeded in reducing the country to order by peaceful means. During the period of ruthless interprovincial war which followed, the O'Briens frequently got the upper hand in Ireland, and assumed the title of *ardri*. After the Anglo-Danish invasion, the kings and chiefs of Munster, headed by MacCarthy of Desmond, "came in" readily to Henry and surrendered their strongholds. The English king retained Cork and Limerick for himself, but gave the greater part of Cork county to Fitz-Stephen and De Cogan, while Limerick went to De Braose, and the Decies to De la Poer. Their families were, however, speedily supplanted by the Munster Fitzgeralds, who founded the Desmond line together with the younger branches of the Knights of Kerry and the Knights of Glyn. The Fitzgeralds, after a prolonged struggle with the MacCarthys and O'Briens, intermarried with them, and established a generally recognised authority. Ormonde, or East Munster, was occupied by the Butlers, who spread thence over Kilkenny and Tipperary. During the invasion of Ireland by Edward Bruce (1315) the Geraldines and Butlers suffered severely at the hands of the O'Briens, and Edward III., in order to strengthen their power, created the great earldoms of Desmond and Ormonde. These two houses were weakened further by the Wars of the Roses; the Butlers, moreover, becoming involved in a deadly feud with the Kildares, which lasted for generations. Through these dissensions the O'Briens and MacCarthys again obtained power, though the cautious policy of the Tudors kept them under. Thomond became county Clare, and was added to Connaught. In the reign of Elizabeth occurred the Desmond rebellions. Wishing to put a stop to the anarchy in Desmond, Elizabeth and her governor, Sir Henry Sidney, in 1514, determined to colonise Munster with gentlemen from the west of England, headed by Sir Peter Carew, who claimed the old Fitz-Stephen estates. However, the barbarities of Sir Peter Carew soon drove the whole country into a wild and bloody rebellion, the MacCarthys, and even Ormonde's brothers, joining the Desmonds in the revolt, which was led by Sir Maurice Fitzgerald, a cousin of the earl. Ormonde, however, pacified his brothers, and Sir Henry Sidney crushed the rebels, being succeeded after his recall by Sir John Perrott (1571), who, through the most brutal measures, succeeded in reducing the district to order. Munster became an English presidency. The English government was, however, exhausted by the effort, and thought it necessary to have recourse to the most terrible severity, Sir William Drury hanging four hundred persons in one year. Thereupon the second Desmond rebellion broke out (1579), which, however, was broken without much difficulty by the loyal Duke of Ormonde. The estates of the Fitzgeralds and their allies were confiscated and granted to English adventurers. In 1598 James Fitzthomas Fitzgerald assumed the title of Earl of Desmond, and in conjunction with O'Neil, Earl of Tyrone, raised the last of the Munster rebellions. After Essex had failed to cope with it, Sir George Carew suppressed it in 1600, and but little more is heard of the Geraldines. Munster, except Kerry, which was reserved for the government, was finally colonised by Cromwell with soldiers and adventurers; these were promptly absorbed by the Irish population, and though

the Catholic gentry received back small portions of their estates at the Restoration, they lost most of them again under the "broken treaty of Limerick." From that settlement the history of Munster has varied but little from that of the rest of Catholic Ireland.

O'Donovan, *Annals of the Four Masters*; Keating, *Hist. of Ireland*; Prendergast, *Cromwellian Settlement*; Haverty, *Hist. of Ireland*; Cusack, *Hist. of Irish Nation*; Walpole, *The Kingdom of Ireland*; King, *Estates of the Protestants of Ireland under James II.*; Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng.*

[L. C. S.]

Murimuth, Adam, a canon of St. Paul's in the time of Richard II., wrote a *Chronicle* from 1303 to 1336, which was continued subsequently to the year 1380. It has been published by the *English Historical Society*.

Murphy, Father John (*d.* June 26, 1798), was educated for the priesthood at Seville. In 1794 he took the oath of allegiance, but was the first to rise at the head of his parishioners on May 26, 1798. He soon gathered several thousand men around him, and committed fearful cruelties. He was victorious over the English troops, and occupied Wexford on May 31. He attacked Arklow on June 9, but was driven back with heavy loss. On June 21 he was again beaten at Vinegar Hill. He fled to Wexford, but was captured and hanged on June 26.

Murray, James Stuart, Earl of, was the illegitimate son of James V., and the half-brother of Mary Queen of Scots. In 1562 he married a daughter of the Earl Marischal, and was created Earl of Mar, a title which he soon changed for that of Murray. Vehemently opposed to his sister's marriage with Darnley, he headed the combination of lords against the queen and her wretched husband. In 1567, shortly after the murder of Darnley, he was appointed regent on the abdication of his sister. After an interview with the queen in Lochleven Castle, Murray set himself vigorously to the task of governing Scotland. On Mary's escape (1568) he hastily collected a body of troops, and defeated her at Langside. He was one of the commissioners for James VI. at York in 1568. His implacable enemies the Hamiltons formed a combination against him, and measures were freely canvassed for bringing back Mary and ousting the regent. Murray seized the chief conspirators, and was then obliged to give his attention to quieting the border. On Feb. 28, 1570, he was assassinated by James Hamilton of Bothwellhaugh. [Scotland; Mary Queen of Scots.]

Mutiny Act, The, was first enacted in 1697, and was facilitated by the mutiny at Ipswich of a Scotch regiment. Before this a person guilty of desertion or other military crimes had ranked as an ordinary felon; now, such offences were to be subject to special penalties, inflicted by military tribunals. The Act was to be in force for six months only, but was continued on its expiry, and annually thereafter. The bill was frequently attacked by the Tory party; since the reign of George I., however, it had been usual to pass it without discussion, and like its successor, the Army (Annual) Act it was annually brought in and read as a matter of form. From 1713 to 1715 the court-martial had no power to award capital punishment. Since 1748 it has been provided that no sentence touching life or limb could be imposed except for offences enumerated in the Act; and in the same year members of the court-martial were forbidden to divulge the sentence until approved, or the votes of any member unless required by Parliament. In 1754 the operation of the Act was extended to troops serving in India and North America. In 1756 the militia were brought under its provisions, and in 1785 half-pay officers were exempted from it. In 1879 the military code was embodied in an Army Discipline and Regulation Act, which relieved the annual Mutiny Bill of much of its contents, power being left to the Crown to make new Articles of War as before. This was put in force by an annual Army Act, and replaced in 1881 by another permanent Army Act, which is now similarly continued from year to year by the Army (Annual) Act, replacing the old Mutiny Act. [Military System.] The Mutiny Act and Army (Annual) Act well exemplify the English custom of meeting new political requirements without openly altering the Constitution.

Mysore. The Mohammedan kingdom of the Deccan was founded by Hyder Ali on the wrecks of the southern principalities. It included, when at its greatest power, not only Mysore proper, but also the whole of Malabar, Cochin, and Calicut, and extended north into the Poonah and Hyderabad States; while to the east and south it included the Carnatic Balaghaut, the Baramahal, and the provinces of Coimbatoor and Dendigul. These outlying possessions were gradually shorn off by English conquest, and in 1799 the Mohammedan State of Mysore came to an end at the second siege of Seringapatam and the death of Tippoo. The Hindoo State of Mysore was thereupon created, deprived of all the outlying provinces and Seringapatam, for the descendants of the old Hindoo rajahs. A strictly personal settlement was made with the rajah, leaving the Company the right of assuming the management if necessary. The insufferable rule of the rajah, culminating in rebellion, compelled Lord William Bentinck, in 1831, to assume the entire management. But in 1867 the native sovereignty was re-established, and orders were issued by the Secretary for

India that the country should be surrendered to the rajah's adopted son on his coming of age. This was done in 1881.

Wellesley Despatches; Wilks, *Mysore;* Mill, *Hist. of India.*

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Nagpore, The Town of, was captured by the English, Nov. 26, 1807, after a severe defeat inflicted on the rajah's troops. In 1853, on the death of the rajah, the town and territory of Nagpore were annexed by the English.

Nana Sahib. Dhoondoo Punt, a Mahratta Brahmin, was the adopted son of Bajee Rao, the last of the Peishwas. On the death of the latter the Nana petitioned the Lieutenant-Governor of Agra to continue the Peishwa's pension to him. The petition was rejected by Lord Dalhousie and the Directors, though the jaghire of Bithoor was granted him rent free for life (1853). In revenge he devoted himself to plots against the English government. His agents were employed in all the discontented portions of India, and his agent in England, Azim Dolla Khan, on his return encouraged him with exaggerated tales of English disasters in the Crimea. On the outbreak of the Indian Mutiny he became the chief instigator of the carnage. It was his object at once to revive the old empire of the Peishwas in his own person, and to sacrifice as many Europeans as possible to his revenge. It was by his orders that the sepoys fired on the garrison of Cawnpore after they had surrendered, and that the final massacre of Cawnpore was perpetrated. At the end of the Mutiny the Nana escaped to the Terrai jungles of Nepaul, where he is supposed to have died. In 1874, however, the Maharajah Scindia delivered up to the English government a prisoner, who represented that he was the Nana. He turned out to be an impostor; the reason for this imposture has never been discovered, nor is it certain whether the Maharajah was himself deceived.

Kaye, *Sepoy War;* Malleson, *Indian Mutiny;* *Annual Register.*

Napier, Lieutenant-General Sir William (*b.* 1785, *d.* 1860), was the brother of Sir Charles and Sir George Napier, and the cousin of the admiral. His military services, unlike those of his brothers, were confined to the period of the great French War between 1807 and 1814. He served at the attack on Copenhagen, and in all the Peninsular campaigns down to Orthes. He was severely wounded at the bridge of Almeida (1810); received three other wounds during five years; obtained seven decorations; and at the close of the war was made a Commander of the Bath, though he had attained no higher rank than that of lieutenant-colonel. In 1819 he retired on half-pay; and from 1824 to 1840 he was unremittingly engaged on his *History of the Peninsular War*, which is one of the masterpieces of military history. In 1842 he was appointed Lieutenant-Governor of Guernsey, being now a major-general. Here he had serious disputes with the local authorities and the population. In 1848 he became a K.C.B. In 1848 he published his *Conquest of Scinde,* a defence of his brother, Sir Charles.

Napier of Magdala, Lord (*b.* 1810, *d.* 1890). Sir Robert Cornelius Napier, the son of Major C. F. Napier, was educated at the Military College, Addiscombe. He entered the corps of Royal Engineers (1828), and served with distinction in the Sutlej campaign, at the conclusion of which he was appointed engineer to the Durbar of Lahore. He was present at the siege of Mooltan and the battle of Gujerat. He was named chief engineer under the new Punjaub administration, and for some time was engaged in building roads and cutting canals to open up that province. In 1857 he served as chief engineer in the army of Sir Colin Campbell, and the part he played in the suppression of the rebellion greatly enhanced his reputation. He also distinguished himself in China as second to Sir Hope Grant, and was rewarded by being made a K.C.B., a major-general, and a member of the Council of India. In 1865 he became commander-in-chief at Bombay. In 1867 he received the appointment to command the Abyssinian expedition, and was made a K.G.C. of the Star of India. While he was in Abyssinia he achieved a brilliant success. King Theodore on his defeat committed suicide, the captives were restored, and Magdala besieged and burnt. On his return Sir Robert received the thanks of Parliament, the sum of £2,000 per annum was settled on him and his next heir, and he was created Baron Napier of Magdala.

Napier, Sir Charles (*b.* 1782, *d.* 1853), eldest son of Colonel George Napier, was educated at home, and sent into the army (1794). He was employed in Ireland during the insurrection; he was at Corunna with Sir John Moore, and fought under the Duke of Wellington at Fuentes D'Onoro and Badajos. Later he was employed in a fighting cruise off the Chesapeake, and returned in time to accompany the English army to Paris, though he was not present at Waterloo. A period of military inactivity followed; but in 1841 he was appointed commander-in-chief of the army of Bombay. His first and greatest exploit was the conquest and annexation of Scinde, of which he was constituted governor by Lord Ellenborough. The general proceeded to subjugate the hill tribes and all the warlike population. He completely reorganised the

whole physical and moral condition of the district, and gained the respect and reverence of the inhabitants—even of the Beloochees. His proceedings, however, highly offended the Directors, and a quarrel ensued, in which Sir Charles treated them with very slight ceremony. His plans for the termination of the Sikh War (q.v.) were not ripe when the battle of Sobraon ended it. Before leaving Scinde he succeeded in changing the feudal system of landholding into a landlord and tenant system, which he considered the best means of forming loyal subjects, by raising a race of independent farmers attached to the government. In 1847 he returned to England and lived in semi-retirement until the disasters of the second Sikh War (q.v.) made everyone look around for a general. Sir Charles started (March, 1849), but found on his arrival at Bombay that the Sikhs had been finally routed. He now devoted himself to military reform; but after two years returned to England, where he died.

Napier, Vice-Admiral Sir Charles (*b.* 1786, *d.* 1860), was the cousin of the three Napier brothers, Charles, George, and William. He went to sea 1799; was employed all through the French War in the colonies and the Mediterranean. He served on shore in the Peninsula, and was present at Busaco. At the close of the war he had a long interval of rest, but on his return in 1829 he was employed off the coast of Portugal in the *Galatea*. He supported the Constitutionalists; defeated the fleet of Don Miguel, and settled Donna Maria on the throne. Don Pedro was unbounded in his gratitude; created him Viscount of Cape St. Vincent; gave him all the Portuguese orders, and named him admiral-in-chief. He proceeded to remodel the corrupt Portuguese navy; was thwarted by the officials, and threw up the appointment. In 1840 he was employed in the Mediterranean against Mehemet Ali as commodore, and concluded a convention with him. For his services he was made K.C.B., and received the thanks of both Houses. In 1841 he was elected for Marylebone. In 1847 he received the command of the Channel fleet, and compelled the Emperor of Morocco to make compensation for injuries done to the British commerce. During the Russian War he was nominated to the command of the Baltic fleet, but had little opportunity of earning distinction. On his return he quarrelled with the government on the subject, and mutual recriminations were interchanged. In 1855 he was returned for Southwark, and cleared himself in the eyes of Parliament and the nation. From this time he devoted himself to attacking the abuses in the navy, until his failing health required him to withdraw altogether from public life.

Napierville, The Battle of (1839), was fought near Montreal between the British troops under Sir James McDonnell and the Canadian rebels, who were completely defeated.

Naseby, The Battle of (July 14, 1645), was fought during the Great Rebellion. Both armies took the field in May, 1645. Charles I. marched northwards, and, whilst Fairfax was besieging Oxford, the king stormed Leicester. Leaving Leicester, Charles established himself at Daventry, collecting provisions to revictual Oxford, and threatening to attack the eastern counties. Fairfax, who left Oxford on July 5, overtook the king on the 12th. The king resolved to give battle, and took up his position on an eminence called Dust Hill, about two miles north of the village of Naseby. The army of Fairfax was drawn up on Red Pitt Hill, about a mile from Naseby. The two armies were both about 11,000 strong, the Royalists being rather the stronger in cavalry. The Royalist right, commanded by Rupert, commenced the attack, and, after a hard fight, routed the Parliamentary left, under Ireton, and attacked the baggage of the Parliamentary army behind the line of battle. Meanwhile the Parliamentary right wing, led by Fairfax and Cromwell, charged and broke the division commanded by Sir Marmaduke Langdale, which formed the left of the king's army. Fairfax and his guards returned from this charge to take part in the struggle between the foot of the two armies in the centre. For this decisive struggle Fairfax brought up all his reserves, and was aided by part of Cromwell's horse and what remained of Ireton's division. Under their combined attack the Royalist centre was utterly routed. Rupert returned too late to the field to turn the fortune of the battle. The king, at the head of his reserve of horse, was resolved to charge in the hope of recovering the day, when a courtier seizing his bridle caused a confusion, which effectually prevented an attack. The cavalry of the Parliament pursued the flying Royalists to within two miles of Leicester, and the slaughter during the flight was very great. The Royalists lost all their guns and baggage and the king's private correspondence.

The best account of the battle is in Sprigge's *Anglia Rediviva*. The letters of Fairfax, Cromwell, and the Parliamentary Commissioners addressed to the Speaker give the official report of the battle. Whitelocke's and Clarendon's accounts contain valuable details. Markham's *Life of Fairfax* contains a list of authorities, and a criticism of their value. [C. H. F.]

Natal. [South African Colonies, and South Africa, Union of.]

National Debt, The. The kings of the Middle Ages, and notably the later Plantagenets, had frequently borrowed large sums of money on their own credit on the security of the crown property and estates: but the modern national debt was originated in the reign of William III. by Montague, in 1692,

when Chancellor of the Exchequer. In order to defray part of the military expenses, Montague borrowed a million sterling, the interest of which—at first at ten, and, after the year 1700, at seven per cent.—was secured on new duties on liquors. These duties were to form a fund, and on the credit of this fund the loan was to be raised by life annuities, which were to be extinguished when the survivors were reduced to seven. In the following year another loan was obtained, in the shape of the capital of the newly-created Bank of England, which amounted to £1,200,000. By the date of the Treaty of Ryswick (1697) the national debt exceeded 20 millions; by that of the Treaty of Utrecht it was more than 50 millions. This rapid increase was the cause of great alarm to the Tory party, and it was the fear of the Whigs that the Pretender would come "with a sponge" and wipe out the national debt. Its gradual extinction was one of the objects of statesmen. In 1711 Harley founded a floating debt (a debt payable on demand) of ten millions, which became the capital of the South Sea Company, who in return were allowed the monopoly of the privileges of the Assiento (q.v.) contract with Spain. In 1717 Walpole established the first sinking fund, borrowing £600,000 at four per cent. only, to extinguish liabilities bearing a higher rate of interest. The high rate of interest, and the confusion caused by the fact that some of the annuities by which the various loans had been raised were redeemable and others irredeemable, induced the government in 1720 to accept the proposal of the South Sea Company that they should add the national debt to their capital, and should in return make the fund uniform and redeemable, paying at first five, and after 1727 four per cent.; but the failure of the company caused the plan to fall to the ground. Pelham was more successful in his measures, carrying out in 1750 a uniform arrangement, called the Consolidated Fund, and reducing the interest to three per cent., paying off those who were unwilling to accept the terms. Meanwhile the debt increased by leaps and bounds. At the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748) it was over 78 millions; at the Peace of Paris (1763), over 138 millions; and at the conclusion of the American War (1784), 249 millions. In 1786 the younger Pitt proposed a new sinking fund, by which scheme the sum of one million was annually set apart from the income of the country for the reduction of the debt. The fallacy of the system became evident when times of difficulty arose; and the nation was forced to borrow, often at a higher interest than it gained, in order to meet current expenses. It was gradually abandoned, being finally laid aside by Lord Grenville in 1828. The struggle with Napoleon was a fearful strain on the national resources, and in 1817, when the English and Irish exchequers were consolidated, the capital was over 840 millions, and the annual charge exceeded 32 millions. Since that date it has been gradually reduced, partly by arrangements of economy, such as that by which, under the Bank Charter Act of 1833, the Bank of England was to receive £120,000 less than before for the management of the debt; partly, as in 1868 and onwards, by the conversion of stock into terminable annuities. In 1875 a new and permanent sinking fund was established, which was to be maintained by annual votes of the legislature. In 1883 a great scheme in connection with the national debt was formed by Mr. Childers, by which, through the creation of new annuities terminable in twenty years, £70,000,000 of debt could be immediately extinguished, and £173,300,000 in twenty years. The national debt in this year amounted to £756,376,519. In 1884 Mr. Childers carried an Act by which a portion of the debt was to be converted from three per cent. to two and a half per cent. stock; and Mr. Goschen in 1888 passed a large conversion measure. [BANKING; SOUTH SEA COMPANY.]

Macaulay gives a clear account of the origin of the debt, and Lord Stanhope of its connection with the South Sea Company. See also Massey, *Hist of Eng.*; Martineau, *Hist of the Peace*; McCulloch, *Commercial Dictionary*; *Statesman's Year-Book*. [L. C. S.]

Navarrete, or **Najara.** THE BATTLE OF (April 3, 1367), was fought during the alliance between the Black Prince and Pedro the Cruel, King of Castile. Pedro had been expelled from his kingdom by his natural brother, Henry of Trastamare, who was supported by a considerable French force, commanded by the Breton hero, Du Guesclin. Pedro applied for assistance to the Black Prince, who after some hesitation agreed to march into Spain to his aid, on condition that the expenses of the campaign should be defrayed by Pedro, and certain Spanish towns ceded to England. Accordingly he crossed the Pyrenees with an army of 24,000 men, and met the combined force of the French and Spanish, numbering 60,000 men, on the plain of Navarrete just beyond the Ebro near the town of Logrono. This victory was almost equal in the importance of its results to Crecy and Poitiers. The English archers won the day, the loss of the enemy being very considerable, and among the prisoners was Du Guesclin himself.

Navarino, BATTLE OF (Oct. 20, 1827). In 1827, on the refusal of Turkey to grant the armistice to the Greeks demanded by the powers, the French, English, and Russian fleets entered the Eastern Mediterranean, and appeared before Navarino Bay, where twenty-eight Turkish and Egyptian ships-of-war lay waiting fresh reinforcements from Europe. The allies explained the negotiations, and declared they should not sail. Ibrahim Pasha agreed, but sailed in spite of this. The allies returned, and drove the Turkish fleet into

Navarino. Ibrahim now ordered a general massacre on shore. On the 20th, Sir Edward Codrington, the English admiral, sailed in to say that he would convoy the Turkish and Egyptian ships back to their respective countries. Codrington went on parleying till the Turks opened fire upon him and the French. The battle then began, and in four hours the Turkish fleet was entirely destroyed by the allies.

Navigation Laws, The, regulated the privileges of British ships, and the conditions under which foreign ships were admitted to the trade of this country. Legislation of this kind was naturally of early development; we find instances of it under the later Angevin kings, and in the reigns of Henry VII. and Elizabeth laws were passed excluding foreign ships from our coasting trade. Cromwell was, however, the first to adopt the navigation system as a policy; in 1650 he excluded all foreign ships without a licence from trading with the plantations of America, and in 1651 the famous Navigation Act was passed, which forbade the importation of goods into England except in English ships, or in the ships of the nation which produced the goods. This measure was levelled at the Dutch carrying trade; it forced the Dutch into war, but in the end they accepted it. The mercantile system, as it was called, was continued after the Restoration. In 1660 an Act was passed providing that all colonial produce should be exported in English vessels; that no man might establish himself as a factor in the colonies, and that various sorts of colonial produce could only be exported to England and her dependencies. In 1663 it was enacted that the colonies should receive no goods whatever in foreign vessels. In 1672 came the Navigation Act of Charles II., based on that of Cromwell, under which the prohibition against introducing goods, except in English ships manned by a crew of which at least three-fourths were English, applied to all the principal articles of commerce known as the "enumerated articles." This Act ruined the Dutch merchant navy, and the cruel restrictions of the navigation laws were one of the main causes of the American rebellion. After the Declaration of Independence, the United States were placed on the footing of a foreign nation, and hence came under the operation of the Act of Charles II. They promptly retaliated by excluding our ships, and in 1814 the Treaty of Ghent was concluded, by which discriminating duties were mutually abolished. Long since the folly of these restrictions on commerce had been pointed out by political economists, and Mr. Wallace and Mr. Huskisson began from 1821 and onwards, introducing a series of measures of which the object was to place England and the foreign nations with which she was at peace on the same footing. The most important of these was the Reciprocity of Duties Act of 1823, which was directed against Prussia, the Netherlands, and Portugal, all of whom had raised their duties on English vessels; and the Act of 1826, by which the Navigation Act was repealed, and a new set of regulations established of a more liberal character, though the goods of Asia, Africa, and America were still restricted to English vessels, or those of the producing country. The free-trade legislation of 1842, 1846, and 1849 finally abolished a most vexatious system. Lastly, in 1854, the coasting trade of England was thrown open to foreign vessels.

The effects of the Navigation Act on America are mentioned in Doyle, *The English in America*, and Bancroft, *History of the United States*. See also Adam Smith, *Wealth of Nations*; and 12 Car. II., c. 18; 3 Geo. IV., c. 42, 43, 44, 45; 12 & 13 Vict., c. 29. For the increase of English commerce since the repeal of the Acts see Mr. Gladstone's speech at Leeds, Oct., 1881.

[L. C. S.]

Navy, The. According to the strict sense of the word, the navy did not come into existence until the reign of Henry VIII. Before that period the King of England had the power of calling upon a certain part of the people to serve against his enemies at sea, and to supply ships and arms; but there was no permanent naval force, although some of the sovereigns had ships which were their personal property. It seems, however, to have been the custom to pay the crews of these ships when on active service out of the national treasury. The Cinque Ports were endowed with privileges on consideration of rendering especial service at sea, but the obligation to serve was common to the whole coast. Until the end of the thirteenth century the general control of the navy was left to officers called leaders, governors, or justiciaries of the king's fleet. In the reign of John the office was held by an ecclesiastic, the Archdeacon of Taunton. In 1303 the title of admiral was already in use. Gervase Alard is stated to be "captain and admiral of the fleet of ships of the Cinque Ports, and of all other ports from the port of Dover, and of the whole county of Cornwall." Admirals for parts of the coast, or for different seas, were appointed on varying conditions until the office of Lord High Admiral grew out of the older "captain and admiral" of particular districts. [Admiral.] From the beginning of the fifteenth century, the navy has always been governed, nominally at least, by a Lord High Admiral, either in person or by commissioners appointed to discharge the office. Its powers were very great, including the commandership-in-chief at sea, the authority of the present Lords of the Admiralty, with the jurisdiction of the Admiralty Court in peace, and the prize courts in war. [Admiralty.] The last

Lord High Admiral who really exercised the powers of the office was James II. when Duke of York. Henry VIII. began the modern navy by the appointment of a comptroller, and by setting aside a portion of his revenue every year to meet the expenses of building new vessels and of keeping his ships in fighting order. It was, however, long before an organised body of naval officers was formed. Until the reign of James II. it was the custom to appoint a captain who might or might not be a seaman, and who had a master to navigate for each voyage. The captain then collected his crew by voluntary enlistment or press. When the special service for which the ship had been commissioned was performed, the whole crew was paid off, and ceased to have any further necessary connection with the royal service. The pay of the captains was largely made up by fees for convoying, &c., until the abuses of the system induced James II. to abolish it, and compensate the captains by the large increase of sea-pay, known as service-and-table money. James II. also established the system of giving half-pay to officers not on active service. It seems to have been regarded as a species of retaining fee, and even until the beginning of the eighteenth century naval officers in the intervals of active service commanded merchant ships, and traded on their own account. There are well-known cases of merchant skippers appointed to command war ships as late as the end of the seventeenth century. Captain Cook is an example of a man who worked his way to command through the rank of sailing-master from before the mast. Step by step, however, our organisation has become more strict, and to-day naval officers are a highly trained professional body. The *materiel* of the navy has gone through a process of development very similar to that of the *personnel*. Under the Tudors, the first two Stuart princes, and the Commonwealth, the navy consisted of a nucleus of royal ships (or national, as the case might be), which was joined in war time, or whenever the king thought fit to make an imposing demonstration in the Channel, by a crowd of merchant vessels. Scarcely a fifth of the ships collected against the Armada belonged to the queen, and the proportion in Wimbledon's fleet which sailed against Cadiz in 1625, and in Buckingham's at the Isle of Rhé, 1626, was about the same. Even the great fleet which fought the three days' fight with Tromp in the Channel contained many armed merchant ships. By that time, however, the armed merchant ships had become a mere nuisance to the fighting vessels. What had done well enough in 1588, though even then the queen's officers did not think the ships from the ports good for much except to make a show, had become completely useless fifty years later. The causes of this change were two. In the first place the heroic enthusiasm of the Elizabethan days passed away with the Elizabethan heroes. In 1625 it was found impossible to get obedience from pressed crews and merchant skippers, and the English flag was disgraced by insubordination and cowardice before the enemy. In the second place Phineas Pett, James I.'s builder, had begun to make the war ship something far more different from the merchant vessel than it had been in the sixteenth century. The progress of the seventeenth century in shipbuilding was as rapid as anything seen in our time. When James I. ascended the throne a ship of five hundred tons was a match for anything; the liners of his grandsons were vessels of from 1,500 to 1,600 tons. Their superiority in build and rigging was enormous. As the war ship therefore became a special instrument, it was found impossible to improvise it out of a merchant ship any longer. Accordingly the number of royal ships had to be increased very rapidly. James I. left only thirty-three; Charles raised the number to sixty-seven; under the Commonwealth it rose to 150, and at the Revolution it was 234. At one period since then it has reached upwards of 900. The beginning of the eighteenth century may be considered as the period at which the navy became fully developed.

Since then the organisation of the navy has remained almost the same in form, though it has undergone innumerable modifications in points of detail. The administrative machinery, the rank and status of officers, the code of laws by which naval discipline was preserved, and the duties of the various branches of the service were fixed at the beginning of the eighteenth century; and though the changes in the construction and management of ships have been enormous, the attempt has constantly been made to adapt this organisation to it, without departing from it in essentials. Great progress was made in shipbuilding and naval tactics in the eighteenth century. In 1745 "first-rates" were ordinarily ships of 2,000 tons; in the American War they were 2,100; and in 1808 there was a ship of 2,616. The results of the great war with France from 1793 to 1815 was that the navies of the chief Continental states were almost annihilated, and that of England obtained an enormous preponderance. Great improvements in the construction of the vessels were made after the close of the war; and the British ships of the line reached their perfection between the years 1820 and 1845. But in 1838 steam was applied to war vessels, and by the time of the Crimean War many English liners were fitted with auxiliary screws. Shortly afterwards armour-plated ships were introduced, and since then change has succeeded change with bewildering rapidity. Wooden ships of the line have become quite obsolete, and during the last thirty years the English navy has been completely

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LORD NELSON.

From the portrait by L. F. Abbott, in the National Portrait Gallery

reconstructed, and ships of size far exceeding the largest vessel of the past, and carrying ordnance of enormous powers have been built. The old system of "rating" is still nominally kept up, and generally speaking the names, ranks, and duties are assigned to the fighting part of the service; but each ship now carries a large number of engineers, artificers, and scientific officers. Of late years the Navy has been greatly strengthened and brought more into touch with the army. [ADMIRALTY.]

Derrick, *Rise and Progress of the Royal Navy*; James, *Naval History*; Yonge, *Hist. of the Navy*; Brassey, *The British Navy*; Sir W. L. Clowes, *The Royal Navy*. [D. H.]

Nazir Jung was the second son of Nizam-ool-Moolk, on whose death (1749) he seized the royal treasure and the throne, and called in the aid of the English to resist the confederation formed against him by Dupleix to support Mozuffer Jung, the grandson of Nizam-ool-Moolk. The alliance did not, however, last long, and Nazir Jung was unable to cope with the intrigues of Dupleix. In 1750 he was assassinated.

Nechtan's Mere, THE BATTLE OF (May 20, 685), was fought between Brude, the Pictish king, and Ecgfrith of Northumbria, his cousin, who had crossed the Forth to subdue the Picts. The result of this battle was most important. The Picts at once shook off the Northumbrian yoke, and the Northumbrian overlordship itself came to an end. Nechtansmere is the modern Dunnichen, about four miles south-east of Forfar.

Neck-verse, THE. [BENEFIT OF CLERGY.]

Nectan Morbet (*d.* 481), King of the Picts, was banished to Ireland by his brother and predecessor, Talorgan, on whose death, however, he returned. He is said to have founded the church of Abernethy, and to have given his name to Drum-nechtan or Dunnichen in Forfarshire.

Nectan (*d.* 732), son of Derili, succeeded his brother Brude as King of the Picts in 706. In 710 the king and nation were persuaded by St. Boniface to conform to the Roman Church, and to adopt Roman usages instead of the Columban. The Columban clergy were consequently in 717 expelled, and driven into Dalriada; this had the effect of stirring into antagonism the latent hostility between the Scots and Picts. In 724 Nectan abdicated and entered a monastery, which, however, he subsequently left, and after a victory over Alpin, the reigning king at Scone, recovered his kingdom. He was very shortly afterwards defeated by Angus MacFergus.

Nelson, HORATIO, VISCOUNT (*b.* 1758, *d.* 1805), was the son of the Rector of Burnham Thorpe in Norfolk. He went to school first at Norwich, and afterwards at North Walsham. In 1771 he went to sea with his uncle in the *Raisonnable*, but soon returned, and was commissioned to the *Triumph* at Chatham. In 1773 his uncle's influence obtained a place for him in Captain Phipps's expedition to the Arctic Seas. It was at one time in great danger, but eventually returned safely. He was then ordered to the East Indies, where, after serving eighteen months, he was invalided home. In 1777 he received his commission as second lieutenant of the *Lowestoffe*, ordered to Jamaica. In the West Indies he soon became noticeable for his bravery and application, and in December, 1778, he was appointed to command the *Badger*, from which he was transferred in the following June as post-captain to the *Hinchinbrook*. In the spring of 1780 he was appointed to command an expedition against San Juan and the isthmus of Nicaragua. The expedition ended in failure, not through any fault of Nelson's, but on account of the deadly nature of the climate, against which only 380 out of 1,800 men were proof. Nelson himself was so shattered by the exertions he had gone through that he had to go to England to recruit his health. In 1784 he was appointed to the *Boreas* bound for the West Indies, where he found himself senior captain. In this position he became involved in some troublesome disputes, and finally in a law-suit, owing to his determination to enforce the Navigation Act. On the breaking out of the French War in 1793 he was appointed to the *Agamemnon* of sixty-four guns to proceed to the Mediterrancan. In 1796 Sir John Jervis took the command in the Mediterranean, and Nelson became at the same time commodore. After various encounters with Spanish and French ships, he joined the main fleet off Cape St. Vincent, where, on Feb. 14, 1797, he took a conspicuous part in the great battle, and contributed much to the victory. Nelson was now advanced to the rank of rear-admiral, and commanded the inner squadron at the blockade of Cadiz. In July he conducted a night attack on Santa Cruz, which failed through the darkness; Nelson himself lost his right arm. Early in the following year he rejoined Lord St. Vincent in the *Vanguard*, and was immediately despatched in command of a small squadron to watch the movements of the French fleet in the Mediterranean. On Aug. 1 he came in sight of them anchored in Aboukir Bay, near Alexandria. He at once attacked with such fury and skill that, after the battle had raged all night, the whole French fleet, with the exception of four ships, was either taken or destroyed. The victory was hailed with delight in England, and Nelson was created Baron Nelson. There was work for him next to do at Naples in trying to strengthen that kingdom to resist France. The French, however, succeeded in occupying it with the help of a republican section of the inhabitants. Nelson blockaded the coast, and a counter-

revolution seemed probable when, during his absence, the officer left in charge granted terms to the republicans. Nelson annulled these terms, and had Carraciolo, one of the republican leaders, tried by court-martial and executed with undue haste — an act usually ascribed to Lady Hamilton's influence, but without sufficient reason. In 1800 Nelson returned to England, and in the following year he was sent as second in command under Sir Hyde Parker to the Baltic, and on April 2 bore the chief part in the bombardment of Copenhagan Nelson was made a viscount, and on the recall of Sir Hyde Parker was left in sole command. On his return to England he was at once appointed to a command extending from Orfordness to Beachy Head. He organised an attack on the flotilla lying at Boulogne, but the expedition failed in its immediate object, though it had the effect of terrifying the French. On the war breaking out afresh in 1803 he was appointed to the command of the Mediterranean fleet, and took his station off Toulon. From May, 1803, to August, 1805, Nelson left his ship only three times, so constant was his watch for an opportunity of engaging the enemy. But when the alliance of Spain and France was concluded Napoleon determined to carry out his long-intended invasion of England. The combined fleets put out of port. Nelson went in search of them. From January to April, 1805, he beat about the Mediterranean; then pursued them to the West Indies. Here they were in advance of him; and he was baffled by conflicting accounts of their movements. At length he followed them northwards, and on July 19 anchored off Gibraltar, but could hear no tidings of them. Unrelentingly he resumed his search round the Bay of Biscay and the coast of Ireland, and returning, joined Admiral Cornwallis off Ushant on August 15, where he received orders to proceed to Portsmouth. There he learnt that Admiral Calder had fallen in with them off Cape Finisterre on July 22, and that they had put into Vigo to refit. He again offered his services, which were eagerly accepted; and on Sept. 29 he was off Cadiz. Villeneuve hesitated to obey peremptory orders to put to sea; but at length he ventured out, and on Oct. 21 gave Nelson his long-wished-for opportunity. The fleets met off Trafalgar, and in the battle which ensued the French and Spanish fleets were utterly destroyed. The victory was, however, only obtained at the cost of Nelson's life.

Southey, *Life of Nelson*; Pettigrew, *Memoirs of Nelson*; *Nelson Despatches*; James, *Naval Hist.*; Allson, *Hist. of Europe*; Mahan, *Life of Nelson*.

Nennius is the supposed author of the collection of chronicles and genealogies of very different date and value which is styled *Historia Britonum*. Many historians have agreed with Milton's description of him as a "very trivial writer," and one recent author speaks of "the stuff called Nennius." Mr. Skene, however, has formed a higher opinion of his value.

Nennius has been published by the Eng. Hist. Soc., and in the *Mon. Hist. Brit.* There is a translation in Bohn's *Antiquarian Library*. The best account of him will be found in Mr. Skene's *Celtic Scotland*, vol. i.

Nepaul. About the middle of the fourteenth century it was colonised by Rajpoots, and in the middle of the last century, a chief of the Goorkha tribe united all the small principalities and founded the military dynasty of Katmandoo. The attempts of the Nepaul princes to extend their dominions north ended in a collision with China, which resulted in their being compelled to pay tribute. Foiled in the north, they turned south. Their greatest general, Ulmur Singh, who acted almost independently, carried their arms west beyond the Kalee to the Upper Sutlej, coming in contact with the rising power of Runjeet Singh. Not content with this, they pushed their encroachments to the British frontier and beyond, until their aggressions ended in the Goorkha War (q.v.), which effectually repressed their attempts in the south and west. The treaty which ended the war has never been violated, and the Goorkhas, instead of taking advantage of our exigencies in the Mutiny of 1857, sent a large force to assist in quelling it. The barren region which was the scene of the war has proved an invaluable acquisition. It has furnished sites for sanatoria at Simla, Mussooree, Landour, and Nynee-thal, where the rulers of British India can recruit their strength during the heat of summer. The distance between Calcutta and Simla is abridged by a railway, and to this beautiful place the Governor-General, the commander-in-chief, and the chief officials, fly during the intense heat of summer.

Neutrality may be either perfect or conventional, independent of, or affected by, treaty. Examples of conventional neutrality are afforded by the perpetual neutrality and inviolability of the Swiss cantons declared in 1815, and by the neutrality of Belgium declared in 1833. In some cases also neutrality has been qualified by a pre-existing alliance with one of the belligerents. Thus, in the war between Russia and Sweden in 1788, Denmark, though supplying the Empress Catherine with certain aid, as arranged by previous treaty, was yet held to be neutral. Such a limited neutrality, however, would scarcely be recognised in these days. No hostilities are lawful on neutral territory, nor may troops pass through such territory for the purposes of war. Within the limits of the maritime jurisdiction of a neutral state all captures are invalid, and every belligerent act is unlawful. In 1863

the crew of the American merchantman the *Chesapeake* mutinied, seized the ship, and declared her a Confederate man-of-war. The United States government took the ship with three of the crew in British waters, but Mr. Seward considered the capture a violation of the law of nations, and delivered ship and men to the British authorities. Such violation of territorial right is a matter which lies between the neutral state and the captor. A neutral state is bound not to afford any kind of warlike help to either of two belligerents, and not to refuse to one what she grants to the other. Acting on these principles, Washington, on the outbreak of the European war of 1793, issued a proclamation of neutrality, with instructions to prevent the equipment of belligerent vessels in the ports of the United States. No legislative effort in this direction was made by Great Britain until the Foreign Enlistment Act of 1819, which followed the lines laid down in America. This Act was relaxed in 1835 in respect of troops levied to uphold the claim of Queen Isabella to the throne of Spain. During the civil war in America, 1861—65, much dispute arose concerning our duty as a neutral. Many cruisers, such as the *Alabama*, the *Florida*, and the *Shenandoah*, were built at Liverpool for the Confederate States, and were received in British ports. These ships did immense damage to the shipping and trade of the Federal States. The most famous of them, the *Alabama*, was built in Liverpool in 1862, received her crew from that port, and sailed thence to the Azores, where she put on board her armament, which had been sent out from Liverpool for that purpose. During the next two years she took sixty-five vessels, before she was herself destroyed. As she and her fellows left our ports without warlike equipment, the law was evaded rather than broken. Since, however, it was at least doubtful how far we had exercised due vigilance, we submitted to arbitration, and, in 1872, were condemned to pay £3,000,000. [Geneva Award.] As regards the rights of neutrals in trading and carrying, primitive law allows the capture of an enemy's goods in any place save the territory of a neutral state; public ships, being reckoned as such territory, are not subject to visitation or capture of goods. This does not apply to private vessels. In respect of these, however, primitive law has been modified by treaty in favour of the rule that free, or neutral ships, make the goods they carry free also. Treaties to this effect were made by Holland, a great trading and carrying country, with Spain in 1650, with France in 1652, and again at the Peace of Ryswick in 1697. Though the maxim "free ships, free goods," does not imply the other maxim, "enemy's ships, enemy's goods" (for the one is founded on the principle *suum cuique*, while neutral goods, since they belong to a friend, should not be subject to capture), yet they have often been joined together, as in the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713. The parties to the Armed Neutrality of the Baltic, in 1780, insisted on "free ships, free goods," which was contrary to British custom. This rule has been established by the Declaration of Paris, made in 1856, with the exception of contraband of war, a term including such goods as are of primary importance in war, together with such as are of doubtful use, as naval stores and coal, if they are rendered contrabrand by circumstances. A neutral ship is subject to capture when carrying military persons or despatches, or contraband goods, when they belong to the owner of the ship, or when fraud is practised. The right of neutrals to carry persons was involved in the *Trent* affair (q.v.). In Nov., 1861, the *Trent*, a British mail steamer, was stopped by a United States ship, and two Confederate commissioners, Messrs. Slidell and Mason, with their secretaries, were taken from her. Earl Russell declared that these persons were not contraband, and finally they were delivered up to us, the question of their character being left unsettled. Neutral rights are further limited by blockade. The right to blockade by proclamation was asserted by Bonaparte, when, in 1806, without a ship to enforce his decree, he declared the blockade of the British Isles, and the same assertion was involved in our retaliatory Orders in Council. It has now been settled by the Declaration of Paris that a blockade to be binding on a neutral must be "effective." These restraints on neutrals imply the belligerent right of search and capture, and a neutral ship resisting this right is thereby rendered subject to confiscation.

Wheaton, *International Law*, ed. Dana, pp. 412—537.

[W. H.]

Neville, The Family of. The Nevilles were lords of Raby from the early part of the thirteenth century. In 1397 Ralph de Neville of Raby was created Earl of Westmorland The title was forfeited in 1570. Ralph's younger sons, Richard, William, and Edward, became respectively, through his marriage, Earl of Salisbury, Baron Fauconberg, and Abergavenny (with the titles of Despencer and Burghersh). Another son, George, was created Lord Latimer. Richard, Earl of Salisbury, was the father of Richard, the famous Earl of Warwick (by marriage with Ann, sister and heiress of Henry Beauchamp, Earl and ultimately Duke of Warwick), whose daughter, Isabel, married George, Duke of Clarence, created Earl of Warwick and of Salisbury (1472). John Neville, a younger brother of the "King-maker," was created Marquis of Montagu (1470), and his son, George, Duke of Bedford, in 1469. The latter was degraded from all his dignities in 1477, but a descendant in the female line, Anthony Browne, was created Viscount Montagu (1554). Returning to the generation next subsequent to Ralph, first Earl of Westmorland, George Lord Latimer's title fell into abeyance in

1577, while that of Edward, Lord Abergavenny, still remains. It was raised to an earldom (with the viscounty of Neville of Birling in Kent) in 1784, and to a marquisate (with the earldom of Lewes) in 1876. Between 1598, however, and 1604 there was a dispute between the heir general and the heir male of the title, which ended in the latter holding only the barony of Abergavenny, while the former received that of Despencer. The son of the holder of the Despencer title was in 1624 raised to the barony of Burghersh and earldom of Westmorland, and the title still remains with his descendants.

Neville, Alexander (*d.* 1392), was elected Archbishop of York in 1373, and on the accession of Richard II. became one of his chief advisers. The barons were determined to get rid of all the royal ministers, and in 1388 Neville was impeached of treason. The Merciless Parliament declared him guilty of treason, and the Pope was induced to translate him to the see of St. Andrews, which act, as Scotland acknowledged the rival Pope, was a mere mockery. Neville retired to Flanders, where he obtained a benefice, which he held till his death.

Neville, George, Bishop of Exeter (*d.* 1476), was the youngest son of the Earl of Salisbury, and brother to Warwick, the "King-maker." In 1456 he was made Bishop of Exeter, and on the triumph of the Yorkists in 1460, received the Great Seal. In 1465 he was appointed Archbishop of York; but on the breaking out of a quarrel between the Earl of Warwick and the king in 1467, he was deprived of the chancellorship. In 1470 he joined his brothers in their restoration of Henry VI., by whom he was appointed Chancellor; but after Edward's victories at Barnet and Tewkesbury, his goods were seized and he himself was imprisoned for three years. He took no further part in public affairs, and died not long after his release.

Neville's Cross, The Battle of (Oct. 17, 1346), was fought near Durham, between an invading army of the Scotch, under David II., the Steward and the Knight of Liddesdale, and the northern militia under Henry Percy and Ralph Neville. The Scotch were completely defeated, owing to their inability to cope with the English archers; David himself was captured, together with many of the chief men in the Scottish army, and it is said that 15,000 men were slain.

Nevis, one of the Leeward Islands, was discovered by Columbus (1493), and colonised by English settlers from St. Kitt's (1628). The progress of the island made rapid strides until 1706, when a French invasion carried off most of the slaves; and for some time after this attack, the colonists had considerable difficulty in supporting themselves. In 1871 Nevis joined the Federation of the Leeward Islands. Previous to this time the government was vested in a president, a council of seven members, and a representative assembly of nine.

New Brunswick at first formed part of Nova Scotia, and, like that country, was discovered first by Cabot in 1497. In 1639 and 1672 it was partially colonised by the French, and was by them held as a fishing and hunting station until 1760, when it was taken by the British. Shortly afterwards English colonists began to arrive in large numbers, and the fisheries were found to be extremely valuable. In 1783 the country was still further colonised by a number of disbanded troops, who were sent from New England, and in the following year New Brunswick was separated from Nova Scotia, and made an independent province, with a constitution similar to those of Nova Scotia and Canada. In 1837, in consequence of representations made to the home government, the entire control of taxation was vested in the legislative assembly. In 1867, under the British North American Act, New Brunswick was incorporated with other provinces under the title of the Dominion of Canada. Its government, which is now subject to the central authority at Ottawa, consists of a lieutenant-governor, an executive and a legislative assembly. The capital of New Brunswick is St. John's, and its wealth is derived from fisheries, coal, and iron, besides other minerals. [Canada.]

R. M. Martin, *British Colonies;* Creasy, *The Imp. and Col. Consts. of the Britannic Empire;* Gesner, *New Brunswick.*

New England. [Colonies, American.]

New Model was the name given to the army of the Parliament as new modelled in April, 1645. The term referred at first to the plan on which the army was reorganised, but soon came to signify the army itself. The Lords rejected the first Self-denying Ordinance, because they did not know "what shape the army would suddenly take." The Commons produced a scheme for the reconstruction of the army on the following plan. The new force was to consist of 22,000 men, divided into 6,600 horse, 1,000 dragoons, and 14,400 foot, the horse to be formed into eleven regiments of 600 men each, the dragoons into ten companies of 100 men, and the foot into twelve regiments of 1,200 men each in ten companies. The army was to cost £44,955 a month, to be raised by assessment throughout the kingdom. On January 21 it was resolved that this force should be commanded by Sir Thomas Fairfax, with Skippon as major-general. The officers were to be nominated by the commander-in-chief, subject to the approval of the two Houses. This scheme, and these appointments, were confirmed by the House of Lords on February 15, 1645. The

new army contained a large number of Independents, for Fairfax was empowered to dispense with the signature of the Covenant in the case of religious men. Several of its officers had risen from the ranks, and had originally filled very humble stations. Lieutenant-Colonels Pride and Hewson had been, the one a drayman and the other a cobbler. But the assertions made at the time by opponents of the new scheme that most of the colonels were "tradesmen, brewers, tailors, goldsmiths, shoemakers, and the like," were entirely untrue. Out of thirty-seven generals and colonels it is computed that twenty-one were commoners of good families, nine members of noble families, and only seven not gentlemen by birth. It deserves notice that a large number of these officers were Cromwell's kinsmen and connections. Clarendon in 1660 described the army thus founded as "an army whose sobriety and manners, whose courage and success, have made it famous and terrible all over the world."

Markham, *Life of Fairfax;* Peacock, *Army Lists of Cavaliers and Roundheads.*

[C. H. F.]

New Ross, The Battle of (June 5, 1799), was fought during the Irish Rebellion between General Johnstone, with some 1,400 men, and no less than 30,000 rebels, under Father Roche and Bagenal Harvey. The rebels were at first successful, and reached even the market-place; here, however, Johnstone rallied his men, and, charging with the bayonet, drove them out of the town with fearful carnage. The troops, enraged to frenzy, gave no quarter, and after eleven hours' fighting, no less than 2,600 rebel corpses were left on the field. This defeat prevented the rebels from marching on Dublin.

New South Wales. [Australasia.]

New Zealand. [Australasia.]

Newburgh, William of (*b.* 1135? *d.* 1200?), wrote a history covering the period 1154—1198. It is particularly interesting from its anecdotes of distinguished persons. The writer's style is clear and sedate, while his observations are acute and sensible. All that is known of the author is that he was an Augustinian canon.

An edition of his work is published by the English Historical Society.

Newburn, Battle of (Aug. 28, 1640). At the opening of the second war between Charles I. and the Scots, Viscount Conway, with about 12,000 men, was charged to hold the line of the Tyne. Leaving two-thirds of his forces in Newcastle, Conway, with 3,000 foot and 1,500 horse, posted himself at the ford of Newburn, four miles above the town. There he threw up some hasty entrenchments, but they were commanded by the higher ground on the opposite bank, and, after a three hours' cannonade, the raw levies who defended them took to flight. The Scots now crossed the river, and after a couple of charges, routed the English cavalry. This defeat forced Conway to evacuate Newcastle, which the Scots occupied on the following day.

Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng., 1603—1642.*

Newbury, The First Battle of (Sept. 20, 1643), was fought during the Great Rebellion. The Earl of Essex raised the siege of Gloucester (Sept. 8), and managed to evade pursuit during the first portion of his march back to London. But Prince Rupert, with the royal cavalry, overtook him and delayed his progress, so that the king was enabled to occupy Newbury, and bar the road to London. The royal army was advantageously posted on a hill to the south of Newbury with its right resting on the river Kennet. Charles was resolved to maintain a defensive attitude, but the rash attack of some of his horse prevented this resolution being carried out. The battle was decided by the Parliamentary infantry, led by Essex in person, who stormed the hill by sheer hard fighting. "The trained bands of the city of London," writes an officer present, "endured the chiefest heat of the day, and had the honour to win it." "They behaved themselves to wonder," says Clarendon; "standing as a bulwark and rampart to defend the rest." The king lost many noblemen and officers, including the Earl of Carnarvon, the Earl of Sunderland, and Lord Falkland. Essex marched on to Reading, unopposed, the next morning.

May, *History of the Long Parliament;* Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion;* Forster, *British Statesmen,* vol. vi.

Newbury, The Second Battle of (Oct. 27, 1644). After the surrender of the Earl of Essex in Cornwall (Sept., 1644), Charles marched back towards Oxfordshire. He found that the Parliament had united a new army of about 16,000 men from the armies of Waller and Manchester, and the remains of that of Essex. The king, with little more than 8,000 men, took up his position to the north of Newbury between Shaw and Speen, with his front protected by the river Lamborne, with Donnington Castle, and a house called Doleman's House, serving as outworks. Here the king was attacked on Oct. 27. On the king's left, round Speen, the Royalists lost that village and several guns, but they held their ground in the fields between Donnington and Newbury. On the right, at Shaw, the earthworks round Doleman's House were successfully defended, and the Parliamentary troops were repulsed with great loss. Nevertheless the loss of ground on the left obliged the king to abandon his position, and he withdrew the same night by Donnington Castle to Wallingford. Cromwell declared that this imperfect victory might have

been turned into a decisive success had the Earl of Manchester been willing. "I showed him evidently," says Cromwell, "how this success might be obtained, and only desired leave with my own brigade of horse to charge the king's army in their retreat, leaving it to the earl's choice if he thought proper to remain neutral with the rest of his forces. But he positively refused his consent." So far did the inactivity of the Parliamentary general go, that the king was allowed twelve days later to return and remove his artillery and stores from Donnington.

Ludlow, *Memoirs*; Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion*; Sir E. Walker, *Historical Discourses*; Simeon Ash, *A True Relation of the Most Chief Occurrences at and since the Battle of Newbury*; Warburton, *Prince Rupert*; *Manchester's Quarrel with Cromwell* (Camden Soc.). [C. H. F.]

Newcastle, Thomas Holles, Duke of (*b.* 1693, *d.* 1768), succeeded to his uncle's property in 1711. He attached himself to the Whigs. On the accession of George I. he became Lord-Lieutenant of Middlesex, and was created Duke of Newcastle in 1716. In that year he displayed great zeal in suppressing the Jacobite rebellion. He was made Lord Chamberlain, and sworn of the Privy Council. He followed Sunderland and Stanhope when the schism took place in the Whig ministry, but on their deaths in 1720 he joined Townshend and Walpole. In 1724, on the dismissal of Carteret, he became Secretary of State. For many years he continued to be a follower of Walpole. At length, in 1737, seeing that Walpole was deprived of the friendship of Queen Caroline, and that the king was opposed to his peace policy, Newcastle began to intrigue against him. The king was encouraged in his wish for war; angry despatches were sent to the English ambassador in Spain. Walpole's appointment of Lord Hervey as Lord Privy Seal further alienated him. In 1742 his intrigues were successful; Walpole resigned. Wilmington was made premier, and on his death (1743) Newcastle's brother, Henry Pelham, became leader of the ministry. All opposition in Parliament had ceased, but the Pelhams were jealous of Carteret. They brought matters to a crisis by demanding the admission of Pitt and Chesterfield to the cabinet. The king refused, and they resigned. Carteret was commissioned to form a ministry, but he failed, and the Pelhams returned to power. In 1747 Newcastle succeeded in getting rid of Chesterfield. Contrary to the wish of Henry Pelham, he still promoted the war. Chesterfield, finding his peace policy disregarded, resigned. Shortly afterwards Newcastle (1748) concluded the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. In 1751 an estrangement took place between the two brothers. On the death of Pelham, Newcastle took his brother's place as head of the Treasury. He was at a loss for a leader in the Commons. Sir Thomas Robinson, a weak man, was appointed to lead the House. Pitt and Fox contrived to torment him, but Fox making terms with Newcastle, he contrived to get through the year. It was evident that war was at hand. Newcastle was quite incapable. He gave contradictory orders to the English admirals, and on the failure of Admiral Byng the popular outcry against him was so great that he was compelled to resign (1756). He immediately began to intrigue for office. On the failure of Pitt's administration, a complicated series of negotiations ensued. During eleven weeks there was no Parliament. For a brief period Lord Waldegrave attempted to form a ministry. At length Pitt and Newcastle came to terms, and that strong government so gloriously known as Pitt's ministry was formed. "Mr. Pitt," said Horace Walpole, "does everything; the duke gives everything." On the death of George II., Newcastle sent abject messages to Bute, offering to serve not only with him but under him. But patronage and the management of elections were taken out of his hands. In 1761 he deserted Pitt, and spoke against the Spanish War. But his position was untenable, and in 1762 he resigned. In 1763 he was dismissed from his lord-lieutenancy for censuring the terms of the peace. In 1765 he received the Privy Seal in Rockingham's administration. In 1768 he died, intriguing to the last. "His peculiarities," says Lord Stanhope, "were so glaring and ridiculous that the most careless glance could not mistake, nor the most bitter enmity exaggerate them. Extremely timorous, and moved to tears on the slightest occasions, he abounded in childish caresses and empty protestations. Fretful and peevish with his dependants, always distrusting his friends, and always ready to betray them, he lived in a continual turmoil of harassing affairs, vexatious opposition, and burning jealousies. What chiefly maintained him in power was his court-craft, his indefatigable perseverance, his devoting every energy of his mind to discover and attach himself to the winning side."

Horace Walpole; Smollett, *Hist. of Eng.*; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; Macaulay, *Essay on Chatham*; Lecky, *Hist. of the Eighteenth Century*; Coxe, *Pelham*.

Newcastle, William Cavendish, Duke of (*b.* 1592, *d.* 1676), son of Charles Cavendish and Katherine, Lady Ogle, was created successively Baron Ogle (1620), Earl of Newcastle (1628), Marquis of Newcastle (1643), and Duke of Newcastle (1664). He took up arms for the king during the Civil War, and seized Newcastle, thus securing for Charles the communication he needed with the Continent. At the close of 1642 he marched into Yorkshire, recovered York, defeating after a six months' campaign the army of Lord Fairfax, and forcing him to take refuge in Hull. But the siege of Hull was unsuccessful (Sept. 2—Oct. 27), and in the next campaign the

advance of the Scots, and their junction with Fairfax, forced him to shut himself up in York. The city was relieved by Prince Rupert, who, against the advice of the Marquis of Newcastle, gave battle at Marston Moor (July 2, 1644). After this defeat the marquis took ship at Scarborough, and retired to the Continent, where he lived until the Restoration. At Paris he married, in 1645, Margaret Lucas, celebrated for her learning and eccentricity, and author of a life of her husband. She estimates the losses sustained by the duke in consequence of his loyalty, and his services to the king, at £940,000. As compensation for these losses he was, in 1664, made Duke of Newcastle. Clarendon describes the duke as "a very fine gentleman," "active and full of courage," "amorous in poetry and music," but "the substantial part, and fatigue of a general, he did not in any degree understand, nor could submit to."

Life of the Duke of Newcastle, by Margaret, Duchess of Newcastle; Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion*; Warwick, *Memoirs*; Markham, *Life of Fairfax*.

Newfoundland is an island at the entrance to the Gulf of St. Lawrence. It was discovered and colonised at a very early period by the Norwegians, and rediscovered by Cabot in 1497. Its valuable fisheries made it the resort of traders of all nations, and although always claimed by the English, since the attempt to colonise it by Sir Humphrey Gilbert in 1583, it was not until the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713 that it was finally created a crown colony. In 1583 Sir Humphrey Gilbert headed an expedition to Newfoundland, and two years later Sir Francis Drake claimed the island in the name of Queen Elizabeth. In 1623 a colony was established in the south of the island by Lord Baltimore and another by Lord Falkland, in 1635. Throughout the seventeenth century quarrels were continually taking place between the English and French fishing companies; and when the island was finally surrendered to England in 1713, the right of catching and drying fish was reserved by the French on part of the coast. The Treaty of Versailles, 1783, so modified this privilege as to include the whole west coast. These rights were so used by the French as to check British settlement on the coast in question and in its neighbourhood, but in 1904 an Anglo-French agreement was signed by which France renounced her exclusive rights of fishery. In 1724 Newfoundland was separated from Nova Scotia and made a distinct province, with a governor. In 1762 Newfoundland was again attacked by the French, but the towns taken by them were restored by the Treaty of Paris in the following year. Up to 1832 the country was governed by a system of local jurisprudence, but in that year a constitution was granted, and its representative house of assembly established. Responsible government was established in 1855. It has a governor appointed by the crown, an executive council (not exceeding nine members), a legislative council (not exceeding eighteen members), and a house of assembly of thirty-six elected by household suffrage. It was made a bishopric in 1839. Newfoundland is now the only part of British North America not incorporated in the Dominion of Canada. Attached to it is a portion of Labrador.

Creasy, *Britannic Empire*; R. M. Martin, *British Colonies*; Prowse, *History of Newfoundland*.

Newport, The Treaty of (1648). In spite of the vote that no more addresses should be made to the king (Jan. 15, 1648), the Presbyterian majority in Parliament seized the opportunity of the second Civil War to open fresh negotiations. On July 3 the resolutions of January were rescinded, and it was agreed (July 28) that efforts should be made to enter into a general and open treaty with Charles, and that the place of negotiation should be Newport in the Isle of Wight (Aug. 10). The Parliamentary commissioners, five lords and ten commoners, arrived in the island on Sept. 15, and the negotiations began three days later. The negotiations continued till Nov. 27, as the king argued every point, and delayed to give decided answers in the hopes of escaping, or being freed by help from France or Ireland. He offered to consent to the establishment of Presbyterianism for three years, but would not agree to the abolition of bishops. His answers on the Church question, and the question of the "delinquents," were both voted unsatisfactory (Oct. 26—30). Nevertheless, on Dec. 5 the House of Commons, by 129 to 83 voices, voted "that the answers of the king to the propositions of both Houses are a ground for the House to proceed upon for the settlement of the peace of the kingdom."

Newtown Barry, in Wexford, June 1, 1798, was the scene of a rebel defeat by Colonel Lestrange.

Newtown Butler, The Battle of (Aug. 2, 1689), was a victory gained by the defenders of Enniskillen over the Irish adherents of James II.

Nigeria. The River Niger had been partly explored by Mungo Park in 1805, and subsequently by numerous British expeditions, with a view of opening it up to trade. Little had, however, been effected in this latter respect before 1879, when all the British trade interests on the Niger were combined, largely through the influence of an officer in the Royal Engineers, Mr. Goldie Taubman (afterwards Sir George Taubman Goldie), into the United African Company. This corporation (afterwards the National African Company) bought out two unsuccessful French companies, and succeeded, through the activity of Mr. Joseph Thomson, in

forestalling the Germans by concluding treaties with the Sultans of Sokoto and Gando in 1885. In July, 1886, the company received a royal charter as the Royal Niger Company. Under the authority of the British crown, it administered a region about 400,000 square miles in extent. The Company raised revenue by customs duties, had a military force of its own, and practically monopolised the trade of the territories subject to it. Early in 1897 the company undertook expeditions tending to relieve the leading Hausa states of the Fulah oppressors, and in November it was announced that the British government intended to throw open the territories of the company to traders generally. Benin was annexed in 1897, and the Aro Expedition of 1901–2 opened up fresh territory. On Jan. 1, 1900, the Royal Niger Company surrendered its charter, when its territories were transferred to imperial administration. Nigeria comprises the protectorate of Northern Nigeria, with an area of 256,400 square miles, and the protectorate of Southern Nigeria, which in 1906 was made to comprise the old protectorates of Lagos and Southern Nigeria, with an area of 77,200 square miles.

J. S. Keltie, *Partition of Africa*.

Nile, The Battle of the (or Battle of Aboukir Bay), was fought Aug. 1, 1798. Nelson, who had followed and passed the French fleet which convoyed Bonaparte's army to Egypt, had arrived at Alexandria two days before the French squadron. Not finding them there he set sail immediately for Candia, and spent the next four weeks searching the Mediterranean for them. On Aug. 1 his fleet came in sight of that of the French, under Admiral Brueys, which was lying off Alexandria. The English advanced to the attack sailing in two lines, one of which passed between the French and the shore, while the other, led by Nelson in the *Vanguard*, anchored outside the French line, the nine first vessels of which were thus taken between two fires. The action began about half-past six in the afternoon, and before nine five of the French ships had struck, or were rendered helpless. Shortly after this the gigantic *Orient* caught fire and blew up. The battle continued till midnight, by which time nearly all the French ships were too shattered to reply. At daybreak it was seen that the whole French line, with the exception of two ships which cut their cables and stood out to sea, had either sunk or struck their colours. The effects of the battle were very important. Bonaparte's army was entirely isolated, and the ultimate failure of the Egyptian expedition ensured.

Nelson Despatches, ii. 49 *seq.*; James, *Naval History*; Southey, *Life of Nelson*; Alison, *Hist. of Europe*, iv. 597, *seq.*

Nisi Prius was a name given to a writ first issued in 1285, by which the juries empanelled in any ordinary civil cause were to be presented by the sheriff at Westminster on a certain day, unless before that day (*nisi prius*) the justices of assize came into the county, in which case the trial was to be before the justices, and not at Westminster.

Nivelle, The Passage of the (Nov. 10, 1813), was one of the great successes of the closing period of the Peninsular War. The river was strongly defended by Soult, but Wellington found a weak point in his defences, and introduced through it the light division into the heart of the French position. This mistake of Soult's resulted in his complete defeat, after a long and severe struggle. Soon after, Soult withdrew to Bayonne. The loss of the allies was heavy, but small compared with that of the French, who, in addition to 4,300 men, abandoned fifty-one guns and all the field magazines at St. Jean de Luz and Espeiette.

Napier, *Peninsular War*; Clinton, *Peninsular War*; *Wellington Despatches*.

Nizam, The. On the break-up of the Mogul Empire the Nizam-ul-Moolk, Viceroy of the Deccan and feudal lord of the Carnatic, became almost independent of the court of Delhi. He was the ruler of a vast territory between the Kistna and the Nerbudda, with 35,000,000 inhabitants. On his death (1749) a struggle for the throne arose between Nazir Jung, his son, and Mozuffer Jung, his grandson, the former being supported by the English, the latter by the French. The deaths of Nazir and Mozuffer, the one by treachery, the other in battle (1750), made way for Salabut Jung and Nizam Ali, brothers of Nazir Jung. The former succeeded to Mozuffer, the latter, out of hatred towards Bussy, became the English candidate against his brother. Nizam Ali (*d.* 1803) eventually captured and murdered Salabut, and obtained the chief power in the Deccan. In 1765—66 the English obtained from him the Northern Circars, which had been granted to the Company by the Emperor. In 1786—87 he became engaged in war with Tippoo in alliance with the Mahrattas, in which he was not very successful. The feebleness of the Nizam, and his hatred and fear of Tippoo, made him very eager to join the Triple Alliance of 1790, but his fear of the Mahrattas, who had claims of *choute* on him, induced him to try and get a guarantee against the latter. This, however, was refused. His services during the war were not of much value, but in spite of this he gained a large accession of territory by the Treaty of Seringapatam. In 1794, seeing a Mahratta war was inevitable, he endeavoured to get English help, which was refused by Sir John Shore. Deserted by the English, he was beaten in the Kurdlah campaign. He now fell into the hands of a

French officer, Raymond, who organised a disciplined corps, which was at first intended as a protection against the Mahrattas, but eventually absorbed the whole power of the country, so that the Nizam himself became alarmed, and accepted with alacrity Lord Wellesley's proposal to disband them, and renew the English alliance. The treaty of 1798 stipulated that the corps of British troops in the Nizam's pay should be augmented to 6,000 with a proper complement of artillery, on condition that a provision of twenty-four lacs of rupees a year should be made for their support. In 1800, fearing the rapacity of the Mahrattas, the Nizam proposed that the subsidiary force should be augmented, and that territory should be substituted for the subsidy in money; a treaty was therefore concluded by which the districts the Nizam had obtained from Mysore (1793—99) should be ceded as a commutation for subsidy, and that the English in return should guarantee the defence of his kingdom against all enemies. Thus Nizam Ali's long reign ended in making the Hyderabad State completely dependent on the English. In consequence, the Hyderabad State has survived the wreck of the other native principalities, and exists still as a dependent protected State.

No Addresses, Vote of. In December, 1647, after the king's flight to the Isle of Wight, the Parliament summed up their demands in four bills. The king on Dec. 28 declined to assent to these bills, having on the 26th come to an arrangement with the Scots. On the king's refusal the House of Commons resolved, by a majority of 141 to 92, that no further addresses should be made to the king by that House; that no addresses or applications to him by any person whatsoever should be made without leave of the Houses under the penalties of high treason; that no messages from the king should be received, and that no one should presume to bring or carry such messages (Jan. 3, 1648). The Lords agreed to these resolutions with only two dissentients (Warwick and Manchester) out of sixteen present (Jan. 15).

Nominees, The Assembly of, is the name given by some historians to the Parliament which met in 1653, and is generally known as "Barebones' Parliament."

Non-Compounders, The, who gained their name about 1692, were a section of the Jacobite party who were willing to aid in the restoration of James II. without imposing any conditions on him whatever. They consisted chiefly of Roman Catholics, with some Protestant Non-jurors, such as Kettlewell and Hickes. They were all-powerful in the court of St. Germains during the years that followed the Revolution, and their leader, Melfort, ruled the councils of James. We find them much disgusted by the Second Declaration which James issued in 1693 by the advice of Middleton, the leader of the Compounders. On the dismissal of his rival, Melfort and his party guided the Jacobite councils abroad. As the parties ceased after some years to come into collision, the title was gradually dropped.

Nonconformists is a name generally given to all Protestants who refuse to conform to the doctrine, discipline, or worship imposed by law on the Church of England, and who have organised religious associations of their own on a different basis. The mediæval Church system, more intolerant of schism than even of heresy, was incompatible with the existence of Nonconformity. The Reformation necessarily gave scope for freedom of discussion and difference of opinion. At the accession of Queen Elizabeth the constitution of the English Church was definitely settled. The followers of the Continental Reformers found much in the Reformed Church to which they took very strong exception. [Puritans.] But the early Puritans were discontented Conformists, and not Nonconformists. The laxness of the ecclesiastical administration during the early part of the reign of Queen Elizabeth allowed many who objected decidedly to the Act of Uniformity to retain their cures without really carrying out the Act. Even Cartwright, who attempted to superimpose a presbyterial organisation on the existing ecclesiastical system, was in full communion with the Church. The attempt to enforce discipline which was marked by the publication of Parker's Advertisements in 1566 was followed by the first definite secession. Thirty-seven out of one hundred and forty beneficed clergy in London were driven from their cures for refusing to wear the surplice. Two deans and many country clergy were similarly deprived. Despite the exhortations of Knox, Beza, and Bullinger, a large number of these "assembled as they had opportunity, in private houses and elsewhere, to worship God in a manner which might not offend against the light of their consciences." Others took refuge in Holland. Those who remained in England formed separate congregations of the Independent type. From their leader, Robert Brown, they received the name of Brownists. From another leader they were called the Barrowists. [Independents.] They remained the only important Nonconforming body for nearly a century. Practically the only other Nonconformists were the Anabaptists. Stray foreign members of this revolutionary sect had atoned for their opinions at the stake between the reigns of Henry VIII. and James I. But neither they nor the Family of Love, a mystical branch of the same communion, were at all numerous. The constant emigration, especially of the Independents, to New England, kept down

their numbers: yet it is remarkable that, despite the constant irritation to which they were subjected, but few of the Puritans seceded. Down to the Civil War, they continued, as a whole, members of the Church; and, though the high monarchist doctrines of the Caroline bishops and the need of the Scottish alliance forced the bulk of the Parliamentary leaders to accept Presbytery, the Book of Discipline, and the General Assembly, the flux of opinion during the whole of the period of the Civil War makes it hard to draw the line between Conformist and Nonconformist. Presbyterians, Independents, and Baptists, along with the old clergy who accepted the "Engagements," could be Conformists under the Established Church of Cromwell; while Quakers, Fifth Monarchists, and rigid Anglicans were united in a Nonconformity that was hardly tolerated. The Restoration destroyed a system which the historian of Puritanism admits "to have never been to the satisfaction of any body of Christians." The Act of Uniformity (May 17, 1662) imposed on all the beneficed clergy the duty of reading publicly the amended Book of Common Prayer, and of declaring their unfeigned assent to everything contained in it; to receive episcopal ordination if they had it not already; and to abjure the Covenant. Nearly two thousand ministers gave up their cures rather than submit to such conditions. With their secession the history of Nonconformity in England really begins. Despite the series of stringent statutes by which Clarendon and the High Church Parliament made Nonconformity penal, the chief Dissenting Churches now received their organisation. The older bodies, the Independents and Baptists, simply returned with augmented membership to their former condition. A powerful Presbyterian Church was added to the Nonconforming bodies, which included not only the zealots of the Covenant, but liberal Low Churchmen like Baxter, whom a conciliatory policy would have easily retained. The swarm of minor sects which the religious anarchy of the Commonwealth had created still continued. The Quakers were the most important of these who did not ultimately become extinct. A few Socinian congregations had already been established, despite the ban of all parties alike.

In 1662 the Corporation Act deprived the Dissenters of some of their most valued rights as citizens. In 1664 the First Conventicle Act made the meeting of five Nonconformists for religious worship an offence punishable, for the first time by fine and imprisonment, and for the third by slavery in the American plantations. In 1665 the Five Mile Act strove to make it impossible for Nonconforming ministers to earn a living, and hard for them to escape being sent to gaol. In 1673 the Test Act imposed a sacramental qualification on all officials, which most Nonconformists could not conscientiously take. Still, even in this black period, when the gaols were full of men like Baxter and Bunyan, traces of more liberal feeling, such as Bishop Wilkins's abortive attempts at comprehension, were not wanting. The politic attempt of the crown to unite the Nonconformists with the Catholics against the Church—which marked the various Declarations of Indulgence—signally failed. Nearly successful with the Exclusion Bill, the Nonconformists—this time in alliance with the whole Church party—signally triumphed in the Revolution of 1688. Their period of direct persecution was now over. The Comprehension Bill indeed, which was to do justice to the descendants of the ejected of 1662, was a failure. But the Toleration Act gave "ease to scrupulous consciences" by allowing those who took new oaths of allegiance and supremacy, and a declaration against popery, to worship freely after their own manner, and exempted them from the penalties for absenting themselves from church, and holding illegal conventicles, and even permitted Quakers to affirm instead of swearing. But meetings were to be held with open doors, ministers were to approve the thirty-six out of the Thirty-nine Articles which concerned doctrine, and Papists and Socinians were excluded from the Act. This imperfect measure of toleration, in conjunction with the practice of occasional conformity, which opened up municipal and other offices, were at the time enough for practical purposes. The attempts of the High Churchmen under Anne to revoke its benefits were not successful. The Schism Act, and the Act against Occasional Conformity, were with difficulty passed. But on the accession of George I. began the long reign of Latitudinarian Low Churchmanship that saw in the Nonconformist a strong support of the Whig party. Though Walpole refused to stir up High Church hostility by repealing the Acts of Charles II., it became the custom from the accession of George II. to pass an annual Act of Indemnity to those who had broken the Test and Corporation Acts, which made them partially inoperative. In 1718 the repeal of the Occasional Conformity and Schism Acts, and failure to repeal parts of the Test and Corporation Acts, marks the spirit of the compromise. In 1727 the Presbyterians, Independents, and Baptists were loosely organised into a body known as the Three Denominations, which enjoyed some legal recognition and exceptional privileges. But the general decay of religious fervour which marked the eighteenth century fully affected the Nonconformists. The Presbyterians gradually drifted into Unitarianism in doctrine, and almost into Congregationalism in organisation. Nearly all missionary fervour had abated when the Wesleyan movement arose during the reign of George III. The ecclesiastical connections and Arminian

theology of Wesley retarded his influence upon the Nonconformist bodies for a long time; and it was not till after his death that the "people called Methodists" could be regarded as distinct from the Church from which they sprang. The influence of Whitefield was perhaps more direct. But before the end of the century the Evangelical movement had given new life to the Nonconformist churches. The increased interest in religious matters, and the spread of the habit of churchgoing largely increased the numbers of all the great religious bodies; a process which was continued during the nineteenth century. Another remarkable feature of the religious history of the eighteenth century was the vast growth of Nonconformity in Wales, not only through the Methodist movement, which developed independently the similar movement in England, but also through the enormous increase of the older Nonconformist communions in that country. The growth of a strong body of Presbyterian Nonconformists from the Church of Scotland, as the result of a series of schisms on the question of church patronage, must also be mentioned. In Ireland alone, where the two Protestant denominations—the Irish Church and the Presbyterians—correspond roughly to the English and Scotch settlers, was there a comparatively slight development of Nonconformity.

Side by side with the numerical increase of Nonconformity, a series of remedial laws gradually removed the disabilities and inequalities which still attended Dissent, even after the days of the Toleration Act. In 1779 the subscription imposed by the Toleration Act on the Dissenting clergy was abolished. In 1792 the Scottish Episcopalians were relieved from the severe restraints in which their disloyalty had involved them. But Fox's attempt to relieve the Unitarians in the same year failed. At last, in 1828, the Test and Corporation Acts were repealed. The Dissenters' Marriage Act of 1836 allowed the solemnisation of Nonconformist marriages in their own chapels. In 1868, after a long agitation, compulsory Church rates were abolished. In 1869 the Irish Church was disestablished. In 1870 the University Tests Acts opened to the whole nation the old universities. In 1880 the Burials Act allowed Nonconformist burials in the parish churchyards. It was only after so long a series of struggles that the religious liberties of the Nonconformists were finally established. [PURITANS; METHODISTS, &c.]

Neal, *History of the Puritans*; Calamy, *Nonconformists' Memorial*; Bogue, *History of Dissenters*; Dr. Stoughton, *Religion in England*; Rees, *History of Welsh Nonconformity*; Abbey and Overton, *The English Church in the Eighteenth Century*; Tyerman, *Life of Wesley*; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*; May, *Const. Hist.*; Lecky, *Hist. of Eng. in the Eighteenth Century*. For the early Nonconformists see also the article PURITANS.

[T F. T.]

Non-Jurors, THE, comprised a considerable minority of the clergy of the Church of England who refused to take the oath of allegiance to William and Mary at the Revolution. They were about four hundred in number, and included the Primate Sancroft, and four others of the "Seven Bishops," Ken, of Bath and Wells, White, of Peterborough, Lloyd, of St. Asaph, Turner, of Ely, and several eminent divines, of whom Jeremy Collier and Charles Leslie were perhaps the most celebrated. They based their objections on the doctrine of non-resistance, maintaining that by the "powers that be" St. Paul meant the powers that "ought to be;" but their writings were more numerous than solid, and Dr. Johnson entertained no unfounded contempt for their reasoning powers. Very few of the laity followed them, as the Protestant Jacobites were not required to take the oath of allegiance as a qualification for attending divine service, and, being in the position of shepherds without sheep, the non-juring clergy sank into idle habits, or took to secular professions. In 1690 the issue of a form of prayer and humiliation by the Jacobite press, at a time when a French invasion was daily expected, aroused the utmost indignation against the non-juring bishops, but they issued a reply solemnly denying any knowledge of the publication. In the following year, after Bishop Burnet had made an ineffectual attempt to conciliate them on dangerously liberal terms, the sees of these bishops were filled up, Sancroft being superseded by Tillotson. The ex-Primate, who bore his deprivation with far less dignity than Bishop Ken, thereupon drew up a list of divines which he sent to James with a request that two might be nominated to keep up the succession. James chose Hickes and Wagstaffe. This hierarchy at first caused some alarm to the government, especially when the Non-jurors were found to be implicated in the various Jacobite conspiracies, and they suffered considerably both after 1715 and 1745. Soon, however, schisms broke out within the little body, some having leanings towards the Greek Church, some towards Rome, others being rigidly orthodox in their Anglicanism. By 1720 the communion had broken into two main sections, of which that headed by Spinkes dissented only on the question of the oaths and prayers for the reigning sovereign, while Collier introduced a *new communion office* of Roman Catholic tendencies. There were also minor divisions. Nevertheless the Non-jurors, who counted among their numbers William Law, the author of *The Serious Call*, and Carte the historian, were not finally extinguished until the beginning of the nineteenth century. Gordon, the last bishop of the regular body, dying in 1779, and Borthe, the last of the Separatists, in 1805. There were also Presbyterian Non-jurors in Scotland. These declined to acknowledge William and Mary, first because they were

not of their covenant, secondly, because they had spared King James. Calling themselves the Reformed Presbytery, they continued to thunder against William and his successors; and, though they split up into factions, there was still in 1780 a considerable number who resolutely declined to own the government by paying taxes or accepting municipal offices. At length they became so few as to be unable to keep up meeting-houses, and were called Non-hearers. [JACOBITES; SANCROFT.]

Lathbury, *Hist. of the Non-Jurors*; Macaulay, iii., ch. xiv. and xvi.; and iv., ch. xvii.; and Lecky, i., ch. i. [L. C. S.]

Norfolk, PEERAGE OF. [HOWARD, FAMILY OF.]

Norfolk, THOMAS MOWBRAY, DUKE OF (*d.* 1400), was the son of John Mowbray and Elizabeth, granddaughter and heiress of Thomas of Brotherton, Earl of Norfolk. He was created Earl of Nottingham in 1383, and Earl Marshal in 1386. He was one of the Lords Appellant of 1387, but afterwards joined the king and helped to execute his father-in-law, the Earl of Arundel. He was Governor of Calais, and to his charge Gloucester was entrusted in 1397, where he died, probably murdered by Mowbray, who in the same year was created Duke of Norfolk. In the next year he quarrelled with the Duke of Hereford, and each accused the other of treason. It was decided that the matter should be fought out at Coventry, but before the duel commenced, the king stopped the proceedings and banished both the combatants, Norfolk for life, and Hereford for six years. Norfolk set out on a pilgrimage to Jerusalem, and died at Venice.

Norfolk, JOHN HOWARD, 1ST DUKE OF (*d.* 1485), was the son of Sir Robert Howard by Margaret, daughter and heiress of Thomas Mowbray, Duke of Norfolk. He took part in Talbot's expedition to Gascony, and fought in the battle of Castillon. He was much favoured by Edward IV., who made him treasurer of the household, and in 1478 captain-general at sea. He accompanied the Duke of Gloucester in his expedition to Scotland in 1482, and on Richard III.'s accession to the throne was made Duke of Norfolk and Earl Marshal. He steadily adhered to Richard, and was killed whilst fighting for him at Bosworth. Norfolk was warned of treachery the night before the battle by a paper which he found pinned to his tent with the following rhyme upon it:—

"Jockey of Norfolk, be not too bold,
For Dickon thy master is bought and sold."

Norfolk, THOMAS HOWARD, 2ND DUKE OF (*d.* 1524), was the son of John Howard, Duke of Norfolk, who was killed at Bosworth Field while fighting on the side of Richard III. Like his father, he fought under Richard's banner at Bosworth, and, being taken prisoner, was lodged for a period in the Tower, his newly-acquired title of Earl of Surrey being declared forfeited. He transferred his allegiance to Henry VII.; and he was entrusted as the king's lieutenant with the important duty of tranquillising the northern districts of England. In 1497 Surrey was directed to provide against the expected Scottish inroads. His rapid march to Norham, undertaken at the request of Fox Bishop of Durham, compelled James IV. to make a hasty retreat into his own kingdom. Under Henry VIII., Surrey became a trusted member of the royal ministry; he also still further distinguished himself in the field by his decisive victory over James IV. at Flodden (q.v.) in 1513; and by the complete check he succeeded in giving in 1523 to the Scotch invasion under Albany, the consequence of which last success was a peace of eighteen years between the two countries. In 1522 he was placed in command of the English expedition despatched to France for the purpose of acting against that kingdom in conjunction with the Imperialist forces. Circumstances were, however, not favourable to any decisive engagement, and Surrey's hostile proceedings were limited to a general ravaging of the coast of Britanny. Surrey had his dukedom and the earl-marshalship restored to him in 1514, and was made Lord Treasurer and Knight of the Garter.

Norfolk, THOMAS HOWARD, 3RD DUKE OF (*b.* 1473, *d.* 1554), was a distinguished soldier and statesman under Henry VIII. and his two immediate successors. His first public appearance in the field was at Flodden, where he fought under his father. Subsequently, on becoming Duke of Norfolk in 1524, he took a prominent part in the proceedings of the king's Council as the political opponent of Wolsey, and the acknowledged leader of the English nobility. His tact and firmness enabled him to put down the Suffolk riots in 1525. On Wolsey's fall in 1530, Norfolk became Henry's chief minister. As the recognised head of the conservative party in Church matters, and the chief representative of the older nobility, he was deputed by Henry to negotiate with the rebel leaders in the Pilgrimage of Grace. He was instrumental in passing the statute known as the Six Articles. In October, 1542, he was in command of the English army in Scotland, on the occasion of the hostilities between the two countries which ended in the Scottish disaster of Solway Moss. In December, 1546, however, the influence of the king's brother-in-law, Lord Hertford, who had taken Cromwell's place as leader of the reforming party, was strong enough to bring about Norfolk's arrest on a charge of treason. A suspicion of pretensions to the throne was a fatal one for Henry to conceive of any of his

nobles, and Norfolk would have shared the fate of his gifted son, the young Earl of Surrey, who was executed on the same groundless charge of treason (Jan. 21, 1547), had not the king's own death preceded the day appointed for his execution. All through the reign of Edward VI., however, he was kept a close prisoner, and was only restored to liberty on the accession of Mary to the throne. He presided at the trial of the Duke of Northumberland, and took an active part in the suppression of the rising under Sir Thomas Wyatt.

Norfolk, Thomas Howard, 4th Duke of (*b.* 1536, *d.* 1572), grandson of the third duke, was one of the most powerful nobles in England under Elizabeth, and a Catholic in politics, though in creed he professed himself an Anglican. Whilst in command of the Army of the North, during the Scotch campaign of 1560, he incurred the suspicion of the queen, who feared his popularity. In 1568 Norfolk was appointed president of the commission of inquiry at York to examine the charges brought against Mary of Scotland. It was at this time that the idea first arose amongst the Catholic nobles of a marriage between the duke and the Queen of Scots. This marriage, urged on by Murray and Maitland, was extremely distasteful to Elizabeth, to whom Norfolk declared that nothing would induce him to marry one who had been a competitor for the crown. He subsequently, however, gave his adhesion to the scheme, and, in conjunction with others of the queen's Council, such as Leicester, Sussex, and Throgmorton, he joined the plan of marrying Mary on condition that she outwardly conformed to the rites of the Church of England. Elizabeth, however, remained averse to the match. A plot formed against Cecil was discovered, and Norfolk, who had been intriguing with Spain for an attack on the commercial interests of England, renounced Protestantism, and threw himself into the arms of the Catholic lords in the north. In October, 1569, however, Norfolk was arrested and sent to the Tower, but regained his liberty the following year by giving a written promise not to pursue the scheme of the marriage. The duke, however, quickly found himself involved in a fresh Catholic conspiracy, known as the Ridolfi Plot (q.v.). In Sept., 1571, some letters which fell into Cecil's hands caused Norfolk to be lodged in the Tower. He was brought to trial in the following January. The charge against him was that of compassing the queen's death—(1) by seeking to marry the Queen of Scots; (2) by soliciting foreign powers to invade the realm; (3) by sending money to the aid of the English who were rebels, and of the Scotch who were enemies to the queen. The duke denied all the charges, but was found guilty of high treason, and, after some delay caused by the unwillingness of Elizabeth to sign the warrant, was executed June 2, 1572.

Burleigh Papers; Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.*; Stowe, *Annals*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*

Norham, The Conference of (June, 1291), took place at Norham, on the Tweed, between Edward I. and the English barons on the one side, and the competitors for the crown of Scotland, together with some of the representatives of the Scotch Estates, on the other. Edward offered to settle the dispute for the Scottish crown, only asking as a reward for his services the acknowledgment of his overlordship on the part of the Scotch. The conference was dissolved for three weeks in order that the Scotch representatives might consult the rest of the nation, and, at the end of that time, reassembled at the same place. Edward's title to the superiority over Scotland was not disputed; the competitors all acknowledged his authority, and, after some inquiry into their various claims, the conference was adjourned for a year, the question not being settled until Nov., 1292.

Norman Conquest, The. It might, perhaps, be more accurate to describe the passage of history that goes by this name as the conquest of the English crown by a Norman duke, whom a curious train of accidents and circumstances had tempted into the position of a candidate for the regal dignity, but who had to assert the right to offer himself, not, strictly speaking, against the men of England, but against a rival candidate that had stolen a march upon him. It was certainly an event that involved several consequences galling to the national temper, as well as ruinous to some and injurious to many of the inhabitants; but it was not a conquest of the country in the ordinary sense—the land and people were not conquered by a single alien race, and made subject to another land and people, as was Ireland in earlier and India in later times. A splendid foreign adventurer brought the country to such a pass that its chief men had no choice but to elect him king. This event does not essentially differ in its one radical characteristic from that of the ascent of William of Orange to the throne—in degree, in circumstances, in nature and extent of consequences it is in marked contrast to the later conquest of the crown, but it is not without strong features of resemblance. The conditions of which this conquest was the outcome were the usual historical mixture of seeming accident and personal character; these began to combine towards the event that was to be their product about 1052. In that year the royal stock of Cerdic and of Egbert—from which the unforced choice of the nation had hitherto never swerved—appeared to be approaching extinction; it was as good as certain that the reigning king, the saintly Edward, would die childless, whilst the only

other immediate scion of the stock that might be available, Edward, called the Outlaw—Edmund Ironside's sole surviving son—was an exile in Hungary. Moreover, the lately all-powerful family of Godwin, which might possibly have supplied material for a new royal house, had just, to its last male member, been disgraced and driven from the kingdom. The ordinary and extraordinary possibilities were apparently exhausted. Now, in the eleventh century such a conjuncture could hardly fail to breed ambitious thoughts in an able and enterprising kinsman—albeit by the female and alien side only—of the existing king's, a young man whose spirit was uplifted by great achievements at home, and who knew that King Edward had, from early associations, a preference for the stranger race to which he belonged. This kinsman was William the Bastard. At the end of the second of two wars that Ethelred the Unready had waged with a Norman duke, the English king had (1002) married Emma, daughter of Duke Richard I. King Edward was an offspring of this marriage. Thus, not only did the ruling houses of England and Normandy become connected, but also the fugitive Athelings of the former found an asylum with the latter, and the one of them that lived to be chosen king learned to love the ways and men of the land of his education better than those of the land of his birth. His eye, therefore, must have fallen with favour on the foremost man of the race he cherished, the great-grandson of his Norman grandfather. And under Edward's fostering care a purely Norman interest was already fast growing up in England: Norman adventurers in considerable numbers were settling in the kingdom and reaping an abundant harvest of lands and preferments, ecclesiastical and civil. Canute's success, too, had shown that the great prize was not beyond the reach of an utter stranger. Moved doubtless by such considerations, in 1052 William seized the occasion of the expulsion of the family of Godwin to cross the Channel on a visit to his cousin Edward, who probably then gave him the assurances of support which William afterwards represented as a promise of the succession to the crown. The crown was not Edward's to bestow, but his persuasions and influence might do much towards fixing the choice of the Wise Men after his death. Yet, if we are to take the word of the *Chronicle*, when Edward came near his dying hour, he recommended another candidate, Harold, the eldest living son of Godwin: for William was not long returned home when Godwin and his sons forced their restoration. The Norman interest in England was depressed, and in course of time Harold had made himself the first man of the English people. In him, too, ambitious thoughts must have arisen. What looks like an effort on Edward's part to avert the conflict, failed; in 1057 he recalled Edward the Outlaw, only to enable him to die in England. And the Outlaw's only son, Edgar, though not too young to be elected at a less critical time, appears for the moment to have been lost in the shadow of the two mighty antagonists. About 1064 a misadventure of Harold's gave William a decided advantage over his future rival. Cast ashore on the territory of Guy of Ponthieu, Harold was delivered from the captivity that necessarily followed by the interference of William, who was Guy's immediate lord, and was obliged to share his deliverer's hospitality till he had complied with the conditions that his host exacted. These are not certainly known; but probably were that Harold should marry William's daughter, and support his claim to the English crown. It is said—and the story may be true—that to add a greater awfulness to Harold's oath, a heap of relics had been secreted under the sacred things on which Harold was made to swear. But the oath had no power to bind the aspiring Englishman. Within two years Edward died (Jan. 5, 1066), and on the next day Harold, presumably after some form of election, was crowned king by Aldred, Archbishop of York, in the newly-consecrated abbey church of Westminster. A few days later tidings of this event came to William, who at once resolved to dispute the possession of the great prize with the man that had sworn to befriend him in his suit, but had now snatched it from him. He first challenged Harold to fulfil the alleged compact; and receiving either no answer at all or an answer that pleaded several excuses for non-fulfilment, he set about making extensive preparations for an expedition against the new king. At Lillebonne he won his somewhat reluctant barons to a participation in the enterprise; he gained the willing assistance of the trading class among his subjects; he denounced Harold as a perjurer over Europe; by pledging himself liberally he secured the sympathies and in a sense the apostolic benediction for his undertaking of Pope Alexander II., who even sent him a consecrated banner and a ring with a hair of St. Peter; he invited volunteers from other lands; and from Flanders, Anjou, Touraine, and Britanny men thronged to his standard. The north-western corner of Europe was awakened to an unwonted enthusiasm by his ardour and loud trumpeting of the merits of his cause. In forwarding his design, Lanfranc of Pavia, and William, the son of the self-sacrificing Osbern, were especially helpful. Forests were felled to build him innumerable ships. By these exertions a great host of mixed composition, given, at the highest, as 60,000, at the lowest as 14,000, was, while it was yet summer, collected, first at the mouth of the Dive, and then at St. Valery upon the Somme, where a trans-

port fleet, whose lowest estimate is 696, lay ready to receive them. After a long and harassing delay, due to thwarting winds, the expedition was at last allowed to lift anchor on Sept, 27, and next day it appeared off the coast of Sussex. The moment was eminently favourable. Harold's fleet, which had lain there all the summer to guard the approaches to the land, had been forced from its post by the exhaustion of its provisions; and the Norman host disembarked at Pevensey unobstructed. Indeed, the moment was doubly favourable. Harold and the choicest defenders of his kingdom had, on the very eve of the dread hour, been called northwards to repel a fatally-timed invasion of his brother Tosti and the Norwegian king, Harold Hardrada; and two days before William left St. Valery, had vanquished and slain them both at Stamford Bridge. Coast and southern shires alike were thus bare of defence, and William was free to act as he thought best fitted to serve his ends. He led his host to Hastings, raised defensive works there, and proceeded by a systematic destruction of the houses and ravage of the fields that were within his power, to provoke Harold to stake the issue on a single battle. Harold did not disappoint him. On being told of his rival's landing, he gathered round him his housecarls and marched with a well-nigh incredible swiftness from York to London, mustered to his standard all the available strength of Wessex and his brothers Gyrth and Leofwine's earldoms, then led his men rapidly to the hill of Senlac (now Battle); and, arriving on October 13th, threw up earth-works, built palisadings, and awaited the onset of the invaders. On the following morning (Saturday, Oct. 14), this onset was given, and after an entire day's fighting, as fierce and obstinate as any recorded in the annals of warfare, the sun set on the slaughter of Harold, his brothers, and the flower of his force, and the hopeless rout of the rest. The completeness of the result is ascribed by some to the impatience of Harold, whose eagerness to rescue the invaded soil, or close with his antagonist, made him give battle with but a fraction of his strength, and, by others, to his brothers-in-law, the Earls Edwin and Morcar, who held their levies aloof from the struggle till it was too late. But it looked as if the terrible day had merely cleared from William's path his most formidable competitor; the surviving leaders of the nation were not yet persuaded to elect him to the kingdom. They chose the boy Edgar instead, and made ready to continue the struggle. Thereupon William took his way by Romney, Dover, and Canterbury towards London, scattered a body of Londoners who tried to check his progress, and set fire to Southwark. But finding the capital still insubmissive, he went with his army to Wallingford, crossed the river there, and moved on London from the west. This advance brought the Wise Men that directed the resistance to their knees; they decided to offer William the crown; and meeting him at Berkhampstead with Aldred of York at their head, they announced to him the choice they had made. Yet William did not accept the proffered crown till he had consulted with his Norman nobles, and been advised by them to do so. He then despatched a part of his army to London to begin the construction of a fortress there, and following leisurely with the main body, was, on Christmas Day, crowned in the great Minster by the hands of Archbishop Aldred. An unpleasant incident marred the ceremony. The approving shouts of the English within the church, mistaken for cries of onslaught by the Normans without, made these set the neighbouring houses on fire, and a scene of wild riot and disorder ensued. The crown was now conquered; and shortly afterwards, at Barking in Essex, the full obedience of the country seemed to be conquered also. Thither came the great men of the north, Edwin, Morcar, Waltheof, Copsi, and others, and made formal acknowledgment of William as their king. The Conquest might now be thought complete. From the vast estates of Harold, his brothers, and other partisans, William rewarded his followers; but he either left undisturbed or confirmed in their possessions and offices those who had not fought against him or had submitted. To outward appearance the only material change was a Norman instead of an English king, and the addition to the higher and official ranks of the population of a contingent of foreign nobles, each with a foreign following. All was quiet; and the king, having deputed the government to his brother Odo, now Earl of Kent, and his friend Fitz-Osbern, now Earl of Hereford, returned home with his army in March, 1067. But the work of conquest proved to be only half done. Owing, it may be, to the harsh or inefficient rule of the regents, armed risings broke out all over the country; and William came back to find that the west and north had still to be subdued. In 1068 he marched upon Exeter, which had placed itself in the hands of Harold's mother and sons, took it after an honourable resistance, and thus brought under his sway the western counties. The northern lands, which were also in rebellion, were awed into transitory obedience by a movement upon Warwick; William entered York, and a Norman force under De Comines went on to Durham. The sons of Harold, after a vain attempt on Bristol, and a defeat in Somerset, sailed away. Again the prospect cleared. But again it turned out to be illusive. In 1069 the north was once more in arms; the Normans in Durham were slain to a man; and York was besieged by Gospatric and Edgar the Atheling. For a moment rebellion subsided before William's arrival at York, but only to

renew its fury after his departure. The west, the Welsh border, and parts of the Midlands also sprang to arms; Gospatric, Edgar, Waltheof, and Edric the Wild took part in the outbreak; a large Danish expedition that had just landed joined the insurgents; York was stormed, and almost every man of its Norman garrison was put to the sword. Leaving the other centres of insurrection to the industry of his lieutenants, who did not fail him, William took in hand those of the north, and quelled them one by one. The Danes disappeared; Edgar fled; Gospatric and Waltheof submitted, and were replaced in their earldoms. The chastisement, probably cruel, of the country folk that William deemed necessary, grew in the narratives of later writers into a pitiless laying waste of all northern England, into a clearance from this region of every form of life. From this representation we may withhold our belief till evidence sufficient to establish so comprehensive a crime be produced. An arduous march to Chester in the first months of 1070, and the occupation of that city, finished the campaign, and with it the process of conquest. When William dismissed his troops at Salisbury in March, 1070, the work was practically done. Isolated attempts had still to be crushed, but the Conqueror's hold on the kingdom was now secure.

The earliest effect of the Conquest resulted from the struggle to complete it; for the fresh services therein rendered by his foreign followers to William were rewarded by the fresh forfeitures that the conflict generated. The ranks of the great landowners were thus stocked in large majority by foreigners; and the English titled and untitled nobility were for centuries largely of foreign origin. The rulers of the land, the men who administered affairs in Church and State, were for some generations taken almost exclusively from the same class; William was either afraid to trust Englishmen, or did not find among them the human qualities he sought. But few direct radical changes came of the Conquest; the laws and customs of the English were left unaltered; the groundwork of the political system continued the same—compurgation, ordeal, view of frankpledge, fyrd, witenagemot, all survived in their entirety; to every Englishman his full sum of rights and capacities remained. But two consequences of the event led to important changes: the tenure of land was feudalised, and a new system and new principles of law were planted side by side with the old. The former process created in time a thorough revolution in the tenure of land, in the relation of the king to the land, and the relation of the landowners to the king; while the latter, though applicable only to men of foreign origin, insensibly influenced and very largely transformed the native usages. "And this," says Dr. Stubbs, "ran up into the highest grades of organisation; the king's court of counsellors was composed of his feudal tenants; the ownership of land was now the qualification for the witenagemot instead of wisdom; the earldoms became fiefs instead of magistracies; and even the bishops had to accept the status of barons." Among the miscellaneous effects are prominently noticeable the union of the various divisions of the kingdom, which had not yet learnt to hold loyally together, into a single homogeneous state and people; the establishment of a strong central government and a vigorous execution of the laws; the separation of the ecclesiastical from the civil administration; the closer connection of the English Church with the Roman see, and its expansion into an imposing grandeur hitherto unknown; the breaking down of the national isolation, and the final entrance of England into the family of European peoples. Great importance is given by some writers to the moral discipline that the Conquest brought; we may perhaps regard the Norman and Angevin sway as the rugged school that fitted the nation for constitutional rule and self-government.

The history of England and Normandy before and during the reign of William, and the circumstances of the Conquest, are told in detail in the great work of Professor Freeman, *The Norman Conquest of England*. [J. R.]

Normans, The. The Normans were simply Northmen or Scandinavians advanced some stages further in civilisation by a few generations of residence in the land of a more humanised people and the neighbourhood of settled states. Their marvellous efficiency in their palmy days is probably explained by their having kept their native hardiness and hardihood of character—their moral muscularity, as we may call it—and their bold spirit of enterprise unimpaired by the culture, the turn for art and taste for the finer pursuits, that they acquired by living in Gaul. Their new experience merely added intellectual keenness, deftness, and brilliancy of stroke to their resources for action; the old stimulating forces, their courage and their endurance, remained. Their ferocity had become valour, and their bodily strength the mastery of circumstances. That they owed the qualities which made their practical capacity to the good fortune that planted them on French soil, is suggested by the totally different history of their kinsfolk who had taken up their abode in other lands. The marauding bands of Norwegian pirates that had been roaming about and forming settlements along the Seine in the ninth and tenth centuries were at last admitted to an authorised participation in the soil by an agreement that Charles the Simple made, in 912, at St. Clair, on the Epte, with their most formidable leader, Rolf the Norseman. Thus taken within the pale of Continental civilisation, they rapidly profited by their

advantages. They became Christians; they discarded their own, and adopted the French language; they cast aside their semi-barbarous legal usages, and took those of the Frank cultivators of the soil over whom they dominated; they learned or discovered improved modes and principles of fighting; they acquired new weapons—the shield, the hauberk, the lance, and the long-bow; they became masterly horsemen; they developed an impressive style of architecture, and built churches and monasteries; they founded bishoprics—in a word, they soon furnished themselves with the whole moral, spiritual, and practical garniture of human conduct then available, with additions and improvements of their own. Their territory had increased by taking in both kindred settlements and the lands of neighbouring peoples, till, from a vaguely described "land of the Northmen," it became historic Normandy. Yet this wonderful growth was compatible with a political condition which was often not far removed from anarchy. The aristocratic class that the free-living, hot-natured pirate leaders had founded, and the unrestrained passions of the dukes replenished from generation to generation, were ever on the watch for an opportunity to break loose from all rule, and govern themselves and the native tillers of the soil that lay beneath them at their own sole discretion. Nor did the sense of moral obligation keep pace with the other elements of progress; a connection free from the marriage tie was held no shame; bastardy brought no taint. But, in spite of these defects, the Normans made themselves the foremost race in Europe; there are few other things in history so striking as the contrast between the smallness of their numbers and the frequency and greatness of their achievements. During the eleventh century, in the Eastern Empire and in Spain, in Italy and in England, men of the Norman race gained renown and the lordship of spacious lands, became kings and princes, and determined the course of history. "The twelve tall sons of Tancred of Hauteville" had grown into a kind of proverbial phrase suggestive of what it is in the power of man to do. Their craving for movement and adventure sought relief in pilgrimages; and as they always went armed, to enable them to resist lawless attacks, they were ready for any chance of showing their prowess they might fall in with, and they fell in with a good many. Their career in Italy and Sicily in the eleventh and twelfth centuries is even more astonishing, and in not a few of its features more honourable, than their better-known exploits in Britain.

Freeman, *Norman Conquest*; Hallam, *Middle Ages*. [J. R.]

North, Frederick, Lord, afterwards Earl of Guilford, was the eldest son of the first Earl of Guilford (*b.* 1733, *d.* 1792). He entered Parliament first as member for Banbury in 1754, and in 1759 was named a Lord of the Treasury through the influence of his relative, the Duke of Newcastle. In 1766 Chatham made him Joint-Paymaster of the Forces along with George Cooke, and it was to this singular conjunction that Burke specially alluded when he said that "it did so happen that persons had a single office divided between them, who had never spoken to each other in their lives until they found themselves, they knew not how, pigging together, head and points, in the same truckle-bed." On the death of Charles Townshend in 1767 he accepted the office of Chancellor of the Exchequer, and became leader in the House of Commons. On the fall of the Grafton ministry the king at once sent for Lord North, and found him so useful a servant that he retained his services for twelve years. Those years formed a most eventful period, for during them the Wilkes question was fought out, and the American colonies were for ever lost to the empire. To Lord North cannot fairly be imputed all the mistakes of that ministry. He was essentially weak and yielding, and was constantly overruled by the king, where his own better sense would have led him to adopt a different course. As early as the spring of 1778 we find Lord North expressing his wish to resign: a wish which he repeated at intervals during the next four years, and which he was only prevented from carrying into execution by the king's almost piteous entreaties to him to remain in office to carry out the court policy. At length the surrender at Yorktown gave the final blow to his ministry, and in the spring of 1782 he insisted on resigning. Then followed the short Rockingham ministry, which collapsed on the death of Lord Rockingham, and was succeeded by Shelburne's ministry, which in turn gave way to the celebrated Coalition ministry, in which North and Fox were strangely united as Secretaries of State. But the universal distrust which such a formation roused, and the secret influence employed by the king to thwart its measures, brought it to a conclusion in December, 1783. When Pitt began his long tenure of office Lord North retired into private life. In 1790 he succeeded to the earldom on the death of his father, and died two years afterwards.

Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*, v., vi., vii.; Walpole, *Memoirs of George III.*; Junius, *Letters*; Trevelyan, *Early Years of Fox*; Brougham, *Historical Sketches*; Macaulay, *Essays on Chatham and Pitt*; Massey, *Hist. of Eng.* [W. R. S.]

North, The Council of the, was instituted in 1536 by Henry VIII., originally for the purpose of trying persons connected with the Pilgrimage of Grace. The court was held at York, and had jurisdiction over all the counties north of the Humber. Long after

all traces of the insurrection had disappeared the court remained, and was one of the illegal jurisdictions revived and made instruments of oppression under the earlier Stuarts. It took the place in the north of the Star Chamber in the rest of England, and could inflict any punishment short of death. It was abolished by the Long Parliament in 1641.

Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng., 1603—1642*; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*, chaps. viii. and ix.

North Foreland, The Battle of the (July 25, 1666), was fought between the English and Dutch fleets, the former being commanded by Prince Rupert and the Duke of Albemarle, the latter by De Ruyter. The Dutch were totally routed.

North Sea Outrage, The, took place on the night of Oct. 21, 1904. The Russian Baltic Fleet on their way to the Far East under Admiral Rojdestvensky, when passing down the North Sea, fired upon a Hull fishing fleet under the delusion, it was alleged, that they were Japanese torpedo-boats. The steam trawler *Crane* was sunk, other boats were injured, two men killed, and a number seriously wounded. Urgent representations were at once made by the British Cabinet to the Russian Government, demanding immediate explanation and reparation. An International Commission of Inquiry was held, its first meeting taking place on Nov. 22, 1904, and its final one on Feb. 25, 1905. In the following month the Russian Government paid £65,000 as an indemnity to the Hull fishermen.

North-West Frontier Province, a province of British India, constituted in 1901, formed out of the district of Hazara, on the eastern side of the Indus, and several districts on the western side. It has an area of 16,466 square miles. The Province was constituted in order to provide more immediate control over the frontier tribes.

North-West Provinces, The (since 1901 the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh), were the acquisitions of Lord Wellesley, and were so named because at the time they formed the north-west frontier of India. "They comprehended the country lying between the western part of Behar, the eastern boundary of Rajpootana and the Cis-Sutlej States, and the northern line of the provinces included in the Central India agency. They touched the Himalayas, included Rohilcund, and ran into the central provinces below Jhansi. Within their limits were the imperial cities of Delhi and Agra, the great Hindoo city, Benares, the important station and fortress of Allahabad, the flourishing commercial centres of Mirzapore and Cawnpore."

Northampton, The Battle of (July 10, 1460), was fought during the Wars of the Roses (q.v.). In 1459 the Yorkist lords had fled in confusion from Ludford, and Parliament had attainted them. In the summer of 1460 they returned to England, landed in Kent, and speedily raised a large army, with which they entered London. Henry VI. was at Coventry, and thither the confederate lords marched; the Lancastrians advanced to meet them, and took up a position on the banks of the Nene close to Northampton. Here they were attacked by the Yorkists, and, after an obstinate resistance, totally routed. The Duke of Buckingham, the Earl of Shrewsbury, and many others were slain on the Lancastrian side; the king was taken prisoner, and the queen obliged to take refuge in Scotland. Henry was subsequently compelled to acknowledge York heir to the throne.

Northampton, Henry Howard, Earl of (*d.* 1614), the son of Henry, Earl of Surrey, and the brother of Thomas, fourth Duke of Norfolk, was created an earl by James I., 1603. He has incurred the infamy of having betrayed the secrets of his patron, the Earl of Essex, to the Privy Council, and will be remembered in history as a man of shameless principles, who for various selfish reasons changed his religion no less than five times. Under James I. he rose rapidly to honour, being made Warden of the Cinque Ports, and Lord Privy Seal; he was a commissioner at the trial of his enemy, Sir Walter Raleigh, and was subsequently concerned in the murder of Sir Thomas Overbury, and though he had inherited "the talents, the taste, and the accomplishments of his father," was in reality, as Mr. Tytler justly calls him, "a monster of wickedness and hypocrisy."

Northampton, William Parr, Marquis of (*d.* 1571), the brother of Queen Catherine Parr, was named one of the councillors appointed under the will of Henry VIII., 1547, to assist the executors in the government during the minority of Edward VI. During the rebellion in Norfolk, in 1549, he was for part of the time in command of the royal troops, but owing to his incapacity was superseded by Warwick. On the accession of Mary he was sent to the Tower for the support which he had accorded to Northumberland, but was subsequently pardoned. In 1554 Northampton was implicated in Wyatt's rebellion, and was again imprisoned, but was shortly afterwards released, and in the next reign became one of Elizabeth's councillors.

Northbrook, Thomas George Baring, Earl of (*b.* 1826, *d.* 1904), was educated at Christ Church, Oxford. He was successively private secretary to Mr. Labouchere at the Board of Trade, to Sir George Grey at the Home Office, to Sir Charles Wood at the India Board, and at the Admiralty till 1857, when he was returned for the House of Commons

at Penrhyn and Falmouth, which constituency he continued to represent till he became a peer at the death of his father in 1866. He was a Lord of the Admiralty from May, 1857, to Feb., 1858; Under Secretary of State for India from June, 1859, to Jan., 1861; Under Secretary for War from the latter date till June, 1866. On the accession of Mr. Gladstone to power in 1868 he was again appointed Under Secretary for War; and was Governor-General of India from Feb., 1872, until 1876. In Mr. Gladstone's second ministry (1880) he was First Lord of the Admiralty, and in July, 1884, was appointed High Commissioner in Egypt.

Northcote, Sir Stafford Henry, Bart. (*b.* 1818, *d.* 1887), educated at Eton and Balliol, and called to the bar at the Inner Temple in 1840, was returned for Dudley in the Conservative interest in 1855. He was returned for Stamford in 1858, and for North Devon in 1866. He was private secretary to Mr. Gladstone when the latter was President of the Board of Trade, and was Financial Secretary to the Treasury from January to June, 1859. He was appointed President of the Board of Trade in Lord Derby's third administration (1866); and was Secretary of State for India (1867—68). He was elected Governor of the Hudson's Bay Company (1869), and presided over the Congress of the Social Science Association held at Bristol in the same year. Subsequently he was a member of the commission which arranged the Treaty of Washington. In 1874 he took office as Chancellor of the Exchequer under Mr. Disraeli, and when his chief retired to the House of Lords he became leader of the House of Commons. On the fall of the Beaconsfield ministry he became leader of the Opposition in the House of Commons, but on the accession of Lord Salisbury's Ministry, in 1885, went to the House of Lords as the Earl of Iddesleigh, and became First Lord of the Treasury, exchanging this office for that of Foreign Secretary in 1886, and dying suddenly on the 12th of January, 1887.

Northmen. [Danes.]

Northumberland, Henry Percy, 1st Earl of (*d.* 1408), served in France in the wars of Edward III.'s reign. He was made Warden of the East Marches, and in 1378 captured Berwick. He was frequently employed by Richard II., but his espousal of the cause of Henry of Lancaster in 1398 caused the king to declare his estates forfeited. On Henry's landing in 1399 Northumberland was one of the first to join him, and when Henry became king he received large grants of land. In 1402 he and his son defeated the Scots at Homildon Hill, but about this time they grew discontented with the king, either offended at Henry's negligence in ransoming their kinsman, Edmund Mortimer, or at the king's claim to deal with the prisoners taken at Homildon, or from having suspicions of his intentions towards them. At all events Hotspur joined Glendower, and was defeated at Shrewsbury, while his father, who was marching to his aid, was compelled to submit, but was very soon forgiven by the king. In 1405 Northumberland joined other nobles in a fresh conspiracy against Henry, and on the plot being betrayed fled to Scotland. In 1408 he again took up arms, and met the royal troops at Bramham Moor, in Yorkshire, where his force was dispersed and himself slain.

Pauli, *Geschichte von England.*

Northumberland, John Dudley, Duke of (*b.* 1502, *d.* 1553), was the son of Edmund Dudley, the extortionate minister of Henry VII. Created Lord Lisle by Henry VIII., he distinguished himself in naval warfare with the French, as Lord High Admiral (1545), and was named by the king one of the executors to carry on the government during the minority of Edward VI., being shortly afterwards created Earl of Warwick. In 1547 he again distinguished himself at the battle of Pinkie, and two years later was instrumental in crushing the rebellion of Ket. About this time he attached himself to the Protestant party, from motives of self-interest chiefly, and on the fall of Somerset (1549), assumed the office of Protector, two years later being made Duke of Northumberland. After the execution of Somerset (1552), Northumberland obtained complete ascendency, not only over the Council, but also over the young king, whose favour he won by his pretended zeal for Protestantism; though at the same time he contrived to conciliate to a certain extent the Emperor and the Catholic party. The ill-health of Edward VI. in 1553 made it evident that he had not long to live; and Northumberland, partly from ambition, and partly from the knowledge that, if Mary succeeded her brother, his own ruin was inevitable, formed the design of getting the succession altered in favour of Lady Jane Grey, whom he shortly afterwards married to his son, Guildford Dudley. He had little difficulty in persuading the king to enter into his project; the privy councillors he had more trouble with, but eventually the will in Lady Jane Grey's favour was signed, and the duke, relying on the Protestant party and on French aid, thought the success of his plot secured, and it was even hinted that he hastened Edward's end by poisoning. On the king's death (July 6, 1553), Northumberland at once caused Lady Jane to be proclaimed, and announced to her that she was queen; but, contrary to his expectation, the feeling of the country was against the usurpation, and almost the whole of England declared in favour of Mary. The duke was arrested at Cam-

bridge (where, seeing the failure of his scheme inevitable, he had proclaimed Mary) by the Earl of Arundel, who conveyed him to London. He was tried in Westminster Hall, by a court presided over by the Duke of Norfolk, and was condemned to death, being executed on Tower Hill (Aug. 22, 1553). Before his execution he confessed himself a Roman Catholic—"a needless and disreputable disclosure," remarks Mr. Turner, "of a masked and unprincipled mind."

Stow, *Annals*; Sharon Turner, *Hist. of Eng.*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Lingard, *Hist of Eng.*; Tytler, *Hist. of Edward VI. and Mary.*

Northumberland, Thomas Percy, 7th Earl of (*d.* 1572), was the nephew of the sixth earl, and son of Sir Thomas Percy, who was attainted in the reign of Henry VIII. As one of the leaders of the Catholic party in England, the earl was regarded with suspicion from the very commencement of Elizabeth's reign, and his implication in the Catholic intrigues of 1562 with Philip did not improve his position at court. A few years later Northumberland warmly espoused the cause of the Queen of Scots; and entered into a conspiracy with the Earl of Westmoreland, Leonard Dacre, and others, for her release from Tutbury Castle, where she was in confinement. In Oct., 1569, the queen summoned the rebel lords to appear in London, but they refused to obey her commands, and rose in arms. The energetic measures of the queen's ministers compelled the rebel earls to withdraw across the border without having gained more than some very temporary successes; and Northumberland—who, it is said, would have sought pardon from Elizabeth, had it not been for the brave spirit of his wife—was then given up to Murray by Hector Graham of Harlaw, and imprisoned in Lochleven Castle, with William Douglas as his gaoler. After a captivity of two years and a half, his wife attempted to ransom him, and convey him to Flanders; but Elizabeth, fearing that his liberty might prove prejudicial to her interests, prevailed upon Douglas and the Earl of Morton to give him up to the English governor at Berwick (Lord Hunsdon) for £2,000. In spite of strenuous efforts made by Lord Hunsdon to obtain his pardon, he was beheaded at York (Aug. 22, 1572) without a trial, as an attainted traitor.

Stow, *Annals*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*

Northumberland, Henry Percy, 8th Earl of (*d.* 1585), brother of Thomas, seventh earl, whom he succeeded (1572), was in 1559 sent to Scotland on a mission to the Congregation; and in the following year took part in the siege of Leith. In 1569, on the rising in the north, and the disaffection of his brother, the earl, then Sir Henry Percy, took no part in the insurrection, though he is said to have been implicated in the subsequent plot of Ridolfi. In 1583 he was arrested and sent to the Tower on a charge of complicity in the conspiracy of Francis Throgmorton, who had implicated him in his confession. On June 20, 1585, he was found shot through the head in his bed. The earl was said at this time to have committed suicide, and this view is held by Mr. Froude. Lingard, however, and others, have considered that he was murdered.

Northumberland, Henry Percy, 9th Earl of (*d.* 1632), distinguished himself in the Low Countries under the Earl of Leicester. He warmly espoused the interests of James during the last days of Queen Elizabeth, and was by him sworn of the Privy Council. He was subsequently charged with complicity in the Gunpowder Plot, and although the accusation could not be proved, was deprived of his offices, fined £30,000, and imprisoned for fifteen years. "This unfortunate nobleman," says Miss Aikin, "was a man of considerable talents; the abundant leisure for intellectual pursuits afforded by his long captivity, was chiefly employed by him in the study of mathematics."

Aikin, *Court of James I.*

Northumbria, the most northern of the great old English states, included as its normal limits the whole of the territory between the Firth of Forth on the north, and the Humber on the south. The sea bounded it on the east, while on the west the Pennine Range, with its northern continuation, the Ettrick Forest, divided it from the British kingdoms of Cumbria and Strathclyde. But considerable districts to the south of the Humber were at one time included within its boundaries, while the western frontier was necessarily constantly shifting, and was gradually, although slowly, pushed farther back.

Like the other so-called "Heptarchic" kingdoms, Northumbria consisted originally of several separate settlements, though the absence of so definite a tradition as that in the south makes it harder to ascertain their limits and history. In the north a Frisian settlement seems to have been made on the shores of the Firth of Forth, which Nennius calls the Frisian Sea (see on this subject Mr. Skene's *Celtic Scotland* and *Frisian Settlements on the Firth of Forth*), but of this state we have practically no knowledge. The rest of Northumbria was colonised by Angles. Bernicia, the district north of the Tees, had for its first king Ida, who is said to have come from the north, and to have built as his capital Bamborough, named after his wife, Bebba. He gained many victories over the Britons, the confused tradition of which is, perhaps, preserved in the oldest Welsh poetry (see Skene's *Four Ancient Books of Wales*). He reigned twelve years (547—559), and was succeeded by several sons in succession, of whose history nothing is known. In 593 his grandson, Ethelfrith, son of Ethelric, became king. He

was a man of energy and ambition. His marriage with the daughter of Ella, who in 560 had established another Anglian kingdom in Deira, the district between the Tees and the Humber, was the excuse for the expulsion of Edwin, the son of that monarch, and the union of Bernicia with Deira. Thus Ethelfrith became the first king of the Northumbrians. His defeat of the Scots at Degsastan (603), and of the Welsh at Chester and Bangor-Iscoed (607), gave further strength to the new kingdom. But Edwin of Deira had found a powerful protector in Redwald of East Anglia, the "Bretwalda," and in 617 Ethelfrith was slain on the banks of the Idle in an attempt to subdue his chief rival for the sovereignty of Britain. Edwin now became King of the Northumbrians. His marriage with Ethelburga, daughter of Ethelbert of Kent, led to his conversion to Christianity in 627. In a solemn Witenagemot the Northumbrians accepted the new religion, and Paulinus, the queen's chaplain, became first English bishop of York, the old capital of Deira, and now of Northumbria. The victories of Ethelfrith had prepared the way for the overlordship over South Britain which Edwin seems now to have assumed. He is fifth on the list of Bretwaldas, and Bede says "that he ruled both over English and Britons," and that his dominion included the two Monas—Anglesey and Man. With him the Northumbrian supremacy, which lasted for the greater part of the century, really begins. But he found in Penda of Mercia, and in Cadwallon, the great Welsh king, formidable competitors. In 633 their combined forces defeated and slew Edwin at Heathfield. All Northumbria was for a whole year subject to the conquerors, who seem to have aimed at lessening its power by splitting it up again into its original divisions of Bernicia and Deira. But in 634 Oswald, son of Ethelfrith, returned from his refuge in Iona, drove out the Britons and Mercians, reunited the two kingdoms, and laboured for the introduction of the Columban type of Christianity with a zeal that merited his canonisation. Yet in 642 he, too, was slain by Penda at the battle of Maserfield. His brother, Oswiu, who succeeded him, was compelled to yield Deira to Oswin, son of Osric, his cousin. In 651 Oswiu contrived to compass the death of his rival, but the jealousy of Penda provided Deira with another king in Oidilwald. But in 654 the victory of Winwidfield over the Mercians, weakened by the defection of Oidilwald, Penda's dependant, led to the final triumph of Oswiu. Penda perished on the field. Bernicia and Deira were again united. Oswiu became undisputed lord of the English, as well as master of Strathclyde Welsh, Picts, and Scots. In alliance with Theodore of Tarsus he settled the ecclesiastical constitution of England, and his declaration in the Synod of Whitby (664) for the Roman in preference to the Scottish Churches was critical in determining the course of the future history of Britain. He was the most powerful of all the Northumbrian monarchs, but with him departed the glory of his country. His son and successor, Egfrid (670—685) wasted, in efforts to convert a real supremacy over the Picts into a thorough conquest, the resources that Oswiu had used so well. The death of Egfrid on the fatal field of Nectansmere (685) was followed by the revolt of the Picts, Scots, and Strathclyde Welsh. His long quarrel with Wilfrid of York had convulsed the internal relations of the country. The rise of Mercia now gave the English states a new master. The next king was Aldfrid (685—705), an illegitimate brother of Egfrid, who had in exile been a pupil of the Scottish monks, and was called the "learned king." He was the patron of the great literary movement which had begun with Caedmon and Benedict Biscop, and which long outlasted the political importance of Northumbria. During the eighth century Northumbria is only remembered as the home of Bede, Alcuin, Archbishop Egbert, and other great scholars. Meanwhile a series of revolutions, seditions, and tumults had brought the Northumbrian monarchy to the verge of dissolution. No less than fourteen obscure kings ascended the throne between the death of Alcfrid and 796; of these "at least thirteen ended their reign by extraordinary means." Eadwulf (705) was dethroned after a reign of two months. Osred, son of Alcfrid, was slain by his kinsfolk (716). Cenred, after a two years' reign, came to a calamitous end (718). Osric, his successor, was slain in 731. Ceolwulf, the next king, abdicated, and became a monk (737), as did his uncle's son Eadbert in 758, after an almost unprecedented reign of twenty-one years. Oswulf (758) was slain by his own household after a year's reign. Of his successor, Moll Ethelwald (758—765), we are only told that he "lost his kingdom." The solemn deposition of Alcred (765—774) by the Witan was an important precedent for later times. Ethelred, son of Ethelwald (774—778) was driven into exile. Elfwald (778—789) was slain by conspirators. Osred (789—792) was deposed, and exiled, but returned, and was murdered, whereupon Ethelred was restored, only to be killed by his turbulent people in 794 during a great famine that was accompanied by portents, and succeeded by a destructive Danish inroad. Osbald, a noble, became king for twenty-seven days, but Eardulf was then called from exile to the throne. In 806 he was driven into exile, but was restored by papal influence. When he died is uncertain. The chroniclers now cease to give a regular succession of the Northumbrian kings. The Danes had reduced the kingdom to an extremity of disorder. The Mercian overlords had few difficulties with the decrepid state. In 827 the Northumbrians became the vassals of Egbert without so much

as a battle. In 867 the Danes took advantage of the deposition of King Osbryht, and the election of a prince not of the royal blood, to take possession of York. In 875 inroads for plunder were exchanged for definite conquests, and next year Halfdane, the Danish leader, divided Deira amongst his willing followers. Thus ingloriously the kingdom of Edwin came to an end. A line of English ealdormen long continued to reign in Bamborough over Bernicia, but they were cut off from the great West Saxon monarchy by Danish Deira. The gradual subjection of Halfdane's successors to the Basileus of Winchester, the incorporation of the Bamborough earldom, the reassertion of Northumbrian local feeling in the great earldom of Canute, the grant of the Lothians to the King of Scots, the final conquest of Northumbria by William I., from which time alone we can date its extinction as a separate district, are the chief events of later Northumbrian history.

Bede, *Historia Ecclesiastica*; Simeon of Durham, *De Gestis Regum Anglorum*, and the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, give most information among the original authorities. J. R. Green, *The Making of England* and the *Conquest of England*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Palgrave, *English Commonwealth*, and Skene, *Celtic Scotland*, are the most important modern works. [T. F. T.]

KINGS OF NORTHUMBRIA.

Ethelfrid	593—616
Edwin	616—633
Oswald	634—642
Oswiu	642—670
Egfrid	670—685
Alfrid	685—705
Eadwulf	705
Osred	705—716
Cenred	716—718
Osric	718—731
Ceolwulf	731—737
Edbert	737—758
Oswulf	758—759
Ethelwald Moll	759—765
Alured	765—774
Ethelred	774—778
Elfwald	778—789
Osred	789—792
Osbald	794
Eardulf	794—806

Norton, FLETCHER, LORD GRANTLEY (*b.* 1716, *d.* 1789), was born at Grantley, near Ripon. After being called to the bar, he was in turn appointed king's counsel, Attorney-General for the County Palatine of Lancaster, and Solicitor-General. In 1763 he became Attorney-General, but went out with the Grenville ministry in 1765. While in that office he had to encounter the difficult question of general warrants; and his impetuous recklessness did not smooth the way for his colleagues. Upon the resignation, in 1769, of the chair of the House of Commons by Sir John Cust, Sir Fletcher was elected to fill the vacancy. Through the excited years of Lord North's administration, Norton filled the office of Speaker with some ability, and a fearless indifference to consequences. In 1780 he paid the penalty of his independence by being rejected when proposed for re-election as Speaker. When, in 1782, the Marquis of Rockingham came into power, Sir Fletcher Norton was raised to the peerage as Baron Grantley.

Manning, *Speakers;* Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*

Norton, RICHARD, a zealous Catholic of the north, took part in the Pilgrimage of Grace, and in 1569, though a very old man, was an active supporter of the rebel Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland, whom he joined with his sons. His son Christopher formed a plan to carry off Mary Stuart from Bolton Castle, but was foiled in its execution; and subsequently took an active part in the northern rebellion of 1569, and was in consequence executed at Tyburn.

Norway, MAID OF, is a designation for Margaret, daughter of Eric II. and Margaret of Norway. After the death of Alexander III. she was proclaimed Queen of Scotland, and was betrothed to Edward, son of Edward I. of England, but died on her voyage (1209).

Norwich has by some been identified with the Venta Icenorum of the Romans, but this is improbable. It is more likely an English city. It was burnt by the Danes, under Sweyn, in 1003. After the Conquest a strong castle was built there, and it was made an episcopal see. A serious riot occurred in Norwich in 1272, and in 1381 the insurgents, headed by John Litster, attacked the city and plundered it. Once again, in 1549, it suffered from a popular revolt, when the city was captured by Robert Ket and his associates.

Norwich, THE BRIDAL OF (1075), was the occasion of the organisation of a powerful conspiracy against William the Conqueror. The refusal of the king to allow Ralph Guader, Earl of Norfolk, to marry the sister of Roger Fitz-Osbern, Earl of Hereford, was disregarded, and a plot formed at the wedding-feast to depose William, and bring back the country to its condition in the time of the Confessor. The conspiracy was detected before any attempts could be made against the king, and the conspirators either fled or were heavily punished.

Nottingham was taken by the Danes in 868, and confirmed to them by the Peace of Wedmore. It was restored and re-fortified by Edward the Elder, 922. In 1067 William the Conqueror reconstructed and strengthened the castle. It was taken and burnt twice during the wars between Stephen and Maud. In 1461 it was the scene of the proclamation of Edward IV. In 1485 it was the head-quarters of Richard III. before the battle of Bosworth. In the Great Rebellion it was the place where Charles I. set up his standard, Aug. 22, 1642. The castle was dismantled, by Cromwell's orders and re-built in 1680. In 1811—12 Nottingham was the scene of formidable "Luddite" riots, and of a Reform riot in October, 1831.

Nottingham, Thomas Mowbray, Earl of (*d.* 1405), was the son of Thomas Mowbray, Duke of Norfolk, the adversary of Henry Bolingbroke. He joined Henry on his landing in 1399, and was made Earl Marshal. In 1405, a dispute with the Earl of Warwick being decided against him, he left the court in chagrin, and joined Scrope and others in a conspiracy against Henry IV. Through the treachery of Westmorland, he was seized and beheaded.

Nottingham, Heneage Finch, Earl of (*b.* 1621, *d.* 1682), was called to the bar in 1645, but his Royalist sentiments prevented his coming prominently forward till the Restoration, when he was appointed Solicitor-General. He conducted the prosecution of the regicides with great fairness and judgment. In 1670 he became Attorney-General, and in 1673 Lord Keeper, which title he exchanged for that of Lord Chancellor in 1675. He held the Great Seal till his death in 1682, having in 1681 been created Earl of Nottingham. He figures in Dryden's *Absalom and Achitophel* under the name of Amri. "From his persuasive powers," says Mr. Foss, "he acquired the titles of 'the silver-tongued lawyer' and 'the English Cicero,' and from his graceful action that of 'the English Roscius.'"

Foss, *Lives of the Lord Chancellors.*

Nottingham, Daniel Finch, Earl of (*b.* 1647, *d.* 1730), entered early into public life. In 1679 he was placed on the Admiralty Commission. Under James II. he rigorously opposed the abrogation of the Test Act. In 1687 he entered into negotiations with Dykvelt, envoy of the Prince of Orange. He and Danby were representatives of the Tory party in those proceedings. He followed Sancroft's ideas on the settlement of the Revolution question, and advocated a regency to be exercised in James's name and during his life, but gradually abandoned the idea before the opposition of the Commons. He was appointed Secretary of State under William and Mary, thereby acquiescing in the king *de facto*, and bringing a large body of Tory supporters to the ministry. He was soon involved in quarrels with his Whig colleague, Shrewsbury. In 1689 he carried his Toleration Bill, by which Nonconformist divines were allowed to preach after signing thirty-four out of the Thirty-nine Articles. He also moved a Comprehension Bill, but was compelled to drop it on account of the opposition it encountered. On the departure of William for Ireland, he was placed on the Council of Nine. The resignation of Shrewsbury had made him sole Secretary of State. It was to his timely discovery of the intended invasion, and his vigorous measures to confirm the loyalty of the fleet, that the victory of La Hogue was in great part due. At the close of that year (1692) he bitterly inveighed against the subsequent mismanagement which had neutralised that victory. Nottingham and Russell became mortal enemies. A vague vote of censure was passed on the former in the Commons by a majority of one, but he was warmly supported by the Lords. William, wishing to reserve for himself the services of Nottingham, induced Russell to accept a place in the household. But on the appointment of Russell as First Lord of the Admiralty, Nottingham had to resign. In 1694 he vigorously opposed the establishment of the Bank of England. On the accession of Anne, he became Secretary of State. But his ideas were quite at variance with the schemes of Godolphin and Marlborough. In 1704 he declared that the ministry must be purged of the Whig element, and resigned. In opposition he raised the cry of the "Church in danger." In 1707 he proposed a motion to the effect that the English Church was threatened by the Union. He was struck off the Privy Council. As Harley neglected to give him office (1710), he joined the Whigs. They agreed to support his Occasional Conformity Bill if his Tory followers would oppose all ideas of peace. He therefore proposed and triumphantly carried a resolution "that no peace was honourable if Spain or the West Indies were allotted to any branch of the house of Bourbon." He was placed on the Privy Council by George I., but in 1716, disapproving of the condemnation of the leaders of the Jacobite rebellion, he was dismissed, and virtually quitted public life.

Burnet, *Hist. of his Own Time*; Mackay, *Memoirs*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*; Stanhope, *Reign of Queen Anne.*

Nova Scotia, now the most easterly province of the Dominion of Canada, was discovered by John Cabot in 1497. In 1598 it was partially colonised by a French expedition under the Marquis de la Roche, and in conjunction with New Brunswick, received the name of Acadia. In 1602 Acadia was granted by Henry IV. of France to a Huguenot nobleman, but in 1614 the English made a descent from Virginia, and destroyed the whole of the French settlements. In the year 1621 the country was granted by James I., under the title of Nova Scotia, to William Alexander, Earl of Stirling, whilst four years later, in order to encourage emigration, the order of Baronets of Nova Scotia was created. Sir William Alexander, however, sold the country to the French, but on the outbreak of the war between France and England in 1627, he, in conjunction with Sir William Kirk, expelled the French, but restored their settlements to them on the conclusion of peace in 1631. The claim of England to Nova Scotia was again successfully put forward by Cromwell, but in 1667 it was ceded to France by the terms of the Treaty of Breda. In 1689 it was again taken by the English under Sir William Phipps, but re-

stored by the Treaty of Ryswick in 1697. In 1710 the capital, Port Royal, was captured by General Nicholson, and, in spite of various efforts made by the French to dislodge him, was held by him until the whole of Nova Scotia was formally ceded to England by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713. Though subject to frequent disturbances, Nova Scotia remained uninvaded until 1744, when De Quesnel, the French Governor of Cape Breton, attempted to take Annapolis, as the capital, Port Royal, was then called. After the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748) nearly 4,000 emigrants— chiefly disbanded solbiers— went out to Nova Scotia, and established the town of Halifax. The French did not, however, give up hopes of recovering Nova Scotia, and, in alliance with the Indians, continued to harass the new settlers. In 1756, apparently without the orders of the home government, 18,000 French Acadians were expelled by the local authorities for refusing to take the oath of allegiance. They were probably a source of possible danger to British supremacy, though desire to secure their lands perhaps co-operated. Two years later the Nova Scotians received a constitution, providing a house of assembly, a legislative council, and a governor representing the British crown. From this time the condition of the country began rapidly to improve, and its prosperity was also materially increased by the influx of a large number of American loyalists during the War of Independence. Disputes and discontent in the legislature were of frequent occurrence, just as in Canada, and in 1840 Mr. Thomson (afterwards Lord Sydenham), Governor-General of Canada, was commissioned to inquire into the alleged grievances, and in consequence of his report the executive council was remodelled and the legislative council was increased by the addition of several members of the popular party. In 1858 Lord Durham included Nova Scotia in his contemplated scheme of a union of the British North American provinces, but was recalled before he could carry out his plan. In 1867 Nova Scotia became a province of the Dominion. [CANADA.]

Martin, *British Colonies*; Col. Haliburton, *Hist. of Nova Scotia*; Creasy, *Constitutions of Britannic Empire*. For the Acadian question see Parkman, *Montcalm and Wolfe*; E. Richard, *Acadia*.

Novel Disseisin. [ASSIZE.]

Nuncomar was a high-caste Brahmin, who intrigued for the deposition of Mohammed Reza Khan from the dewanny of Bengal, hoping to obtain his place. Disappointed of this, and encouraged by the enmity of the Council, he brought various charges of peculation against Hastings. Hastings, in return, had him accused, and he was hanged for forgery.

Nunneries. The large majority of English nunneries before the Dissolution (1536—40) belonged to the Benedictine order. The following is a list of the most important: Shaftesbury (Dorset), according to tradition, founded by Alfred, which was so wealthy that Fuller tells us it was a proverb with the country folk "if the Abbot of Glastonbury might marry the Abbess of Shaftesbury, their heire would have more land than the King of England;" Barking (Essex), said to have been founded by Erkenwald, Bishop of London, 677, which had for its first abbess, Ethelburga, afterwards canonised; Amesbury (Wilts), founded (980); St. Mary (Winchester); Malling (Kent); Mergate (Bedfordshire); Catesby (Northamptonshire); Clerkenwell, founded 1100; Godstow (Oxfordshire), founded 1138; Holywell (Middlesex); St. Helen's (London), founded at the beginning of the thirteenth century; Stratford-at-Bow (Middlesex); Chatteris (Cambridgeshire); Polesworth (Warwickshire); Sheppey (Kent); Wherwell (Hants).

The Cistercian houses were usually small: among the most important were Tarrant (Dorset) and Swire (Yorks). The great nunnery of Dartford, founded 1355, was disputed between the Augustinian and Dominican orders, but was held by the latter at the Dissolution. Syon (Middlesex), almost the wealthiest house in England, was held by Brigittine nuns (a branch of the Augustinians, reformed by St. Bridget of Sweden); Syon House was, in 1604, granted to the Earl of Northumberland.

The Minoresses, or Poor Clares (the female Franciscans), held four houses in England. The greatest was that in London, where they were placed by Blanch of Navarre, wife of Edmund of Lancaster, about 1293. This nunnery outside Aldgate has given its name to the Minories. The only other house of importance was at Denny (Cambridgeshire).

Dugdale, *Monasticon*. [W. J. A.]

Nyasaland Protectorate, British (until 1907 officially designated British Central Africa), lies along the southern and western shores of Lake Nyasa, and extends towards the Zambesi. Area, 43,608 square miles. The Protectorate is administered under the Colonial Office by the Governor, assisted by executive and legislative councils, both consisting of nominated members.

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Oakboys, THE, was the name given to the Western Protestant tenants in Ireland, who, complaining chiefly of exorbitant county cess, collected in bodies in 1764, houghed cattle, and burnt farms. They never became formidable.

Oates, Titus (*b.* 1649, *d.* 1705), was educated at Merchant Taylors' School and St. John's College, Cambridge. He took holy orders and was presented to a small living. A charge of perjury being brought against him he was forced to give up this position, and was for a short time chaplain in the navy. He was soon dismissed, and then became Protestant chaplain in the Duke of Norfolk's household at Arundel. In association with a fanatical clergyman, Israel Tonge, he devised the story of the Popish Plot (1678), which was readily accepted by the popular fears. Everywhere it was rumoured that Protestantism was in danger and Oates communicated to the authorities that the Catholics were plotting to kill the king and massacre Protestants with the assistance of a French army. Various incidents just then happened which confirmed Oates's story, and he became a hero. He was rewarded with a pension of £900 a year, and a suite of apartments was devoted to his use at Whitehall. In 1685 Oates was convicted of perjury, and sentenced to stand in the pillory, be whipped at the cart's tail, and then imprisoned for life. After the Revolution (1688), Parliament declared Oates's trial to be illegal, and ordered his release, granting him a pension of £300 a year. His attempts to regain notoriety after this were unsuccessful. [Popish Plot.]

Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Burnet, *Hist. of his Own Time.*

Oath, The Coronation. [Coronation.]

Oaths, Parliamentary, were first imposed in the year 1679, when it was enacted that no member could sit or vote in either House until he had taken in its presence the several oaths of allegiance, supremacy, and abjuration, severe penalties being imposed on any one who should neglect the ceremony. This measure was re-enacted in 1700 and 1760, but in 1829 the Catholic Relief Act provided an especial form of oath for Roman Catholics. In 1866 the Parliamentary Oaths Act substituted one oath for the three previously in use, which in 1868 was altered with the idea of including all religious denominations, the form being, "I, A. B., do swear that I will be faithful, and bear true allegiance to Her Majesty Queen Victoria, her heirs and successors, according to law. So help me God." By the law of 1866 a penalty of £300 was imposed on members of both Houses for voting before they had taken the oath, and in the House of Commons the seat is vacated as if the member were dead. In the Upper House, however, a bill of indemnity is usually passed. Standing orders also provide at what hour the oath is to be taken. The most remarkable refusals to take the oaths were those of Sir H. Monson and Lord Fanshaw in 1688, and of Mr. O'Connell, in 1829, before the Relief Act was passed, but in neither instance was the objection entertained. The case of the Jews was brought up by claim of Baron Rothschild in 1850, to take the oaths, omitting the words "on the true faith of a Christian" in the oath of abjuration. A resolution was carried, however, that he was ineligible, nor was Alderman Salomons more successful in the following year. After the question had been discussed in several successive sessions, an Act was passed in 1858 by which a Jew was allowed to omit the obnoxious words, and a resolution to that effect became a standing order in 1860. The Parliamentary Oaths Act of 1866 finally placed Jews on an equality with other members, by omitting the words altogether from the form of oath. The right of Quakers, Moravians, and Separatists to make an affirmation instead of taking the oath, was first contested by John Archdale in 1693, but unsuccessfully. Several statutes were, however, passed to that effect in the reigns of Anne, George I., and George II., and upon a general construction of these statutes, Mr. Pease, a Quaker, was allowed to affirm in 1833. In the same year Acts were passed allowing Quakers, Moravians, and Separatists, and those who had ceased to belong to those persuasions, to make an affirmation instead of taking the oaths; and this concession was confirmed by the Parliamentary Oaths Acts of the following reign. In 1880 Mr. Bradlaugh, who had been elected for Northampton, claimed to make an affirmation under the Evidence Amendment Act of 1869 and 1870. The report of a select committee being adverse, he presented himself to take the oath, but it was refused. In 1883 the government introduced an Affirmation Bill, but it was thrown out in the Commons. After the General Election of 1885 Mr. Bradlaugh took the oath without challenge, and in 1888 an Act was passed, at his instigation, giving members the choice between taking the oath and making affirmation.

Oaths in Courts of Law are imposed both upon jurymen and witnesses. They may be traced back to a very remote date, and are intimately connected with the much-vexed question of the origin of trial by jury. The law of Ethelred II. directed that the twelve senior thegns in each wapentake should be sworn not to accuse any falsely. Though this is an isolated piece of legislation, we find that in England, as among the other Germanic races, an oath was habitually imposed in the courts upon the parties to a suit and their compurgators, and upon the witnesses who were called in if it was held that the oaths of the former were inconclusive. By the system of sworn recognition introduced by the Normans, which they derived probably from the Frank capitularies, oaths were also enforced, and though first applied to civil cases, this system was extended by the Assize of Clarendon to criminal cases as well. It is needless to discuss here the

gradual divergence of the three elements of the jury system, the grand jury, the petty jury, and the witnesses, and it is enough to say that when their separate functions became defined (*circa* Edward III. to Henry IV.) oaths were still imposed upon all three. The later aspects of the question of oaths in courts of law chiefly concern the claims to exemptions from taking the oath that have been put forward from time to time. As in the case of the Parliamentary oath, the three classes of persons affected are those who believe in God but are not Christians, Quakers and kindred sects, and Atheists, and the legislation concerning them falls chiefly within the reign of Queen Victoria. In 1838 it was provided that anyone not professing the Christian religion might take the oath in any form they consider binding; hence Jews employ the words "so help me, Jehovah," and Mohammedans swear by the Koran. Quakers were permitted to make an affirmation instead of taking the oath, in 1833, and this privilege was confirmed by subsequent legislation. In 1854 it was provided, chiefly for the benefit of those who belonged to no recognised religious sect, and consequently did not come under the former relief Acts, that if any person called as a witness should be unwilling to be sworn from conscientious motives, he might make a solemn affirmation, and the same privilege was granted to jurors in 1867. These enactments were consolidated in the Evidence Amendment Acts of 1879 and 1880. In 1887 a further Act was passed, allowing any one to affirm who pleads that an oath is contrary to his religious belief, or that he has no such belief.

May, *Parliamentary Practice* and *Const. Hist.*; Forsyth, *Hist. of the Jury*; Tyler, *Origin and Hist. of Oaths*; and Stephens's *Commentaries*.

[L. C. S.]

O'Brien, William Smith (*b.* Oct. 17, 1803, *d.* June 18, 1864), was the second son of Sir Edward O'Brien, of Cahimoyle. His eldest brother, Sir Lucas O'Brien, who was a Tory, became in 1855 Lord Inchiquin, as heir of the Marquis of Thomond. Smith O'Brien was educated at Harrow and at Cambridge, and in 1828 became the Tory representative of Ennis. He was an energetic opponent of O'Connell. From 1835 to 1849 he represented Limerick, and in 1846 he openly joined the Young Ireland party, led by Meagher and Mitchel. His descent from Brian Boru, and the claims he imagined himself to have to the Irish crown, seemed to a certain extent to have turned his brain. His idea was to establish an Irish Republic with himself as president. In 1848 he opposed in Parliament the Security Bill then proposed, and he was afterwards tried under that very bill in Ireland, but the jury disagreeing, it became necessary to allow him to go free. The treasonable character of his plans was, however, becoming clear, and an attempt was made to arrest him. He now left Dublin, and began haranguing the peasantry of the south. At last, on July 25, he assembled a large body in arms, and led them on the 29th against the police at Bonlagh Common. O'Brien escaped after the fight, and a reward of £800 failed to lead to his apprehension. On August 5, however, he was recognised at Thurles, as he was quietly taking a ticket for Limerick, and lodged in Kilmainham gaol. On September 21 he was tried at Clonmel by a special commission, and sentenced to death. But his punishment was commuted to transportation. Unlike his fellow-conspirators, he refused a ticket-of-leave, and was sent to Norfolk Island. In 1856 he received a free pardon, and returned to Ireland. He died at Bangor in Wales, and the transportation of his remains from thence to Ireland led to a Nationalist demonstration. In private life he was one of the most truthful and kind-hearted of men.

O'Briens, The Sept of, the most powerful clan in Munster, their chief stronghold being the city of Limerick, claimed descent from Brian Boru. In 1543 Murrough O'Brien was made Earl of Thomond for life. He became a Protestant, and displayed more than the usual eagerness for Church lands; he sent a paper to England called the "Irishman's Request," asking for Oxford and Cambridge men to convert the people. Ultimately all his dignities fell to his nephew, Ronagh, whom, in accordance with the Irish custom of tanistry, he had supplanted. The fourth earl was a distinguished soldier, and fought against the Spaniards at Kinsale. The family became extinct in 1741.

Burke, *Extinct Peerages*.

Obscene Publications Act. In 1857, Lord Campbell, then Chief Justice, passed an Act (20 & 21 Vict., c. 83), to suppress the traffic in obscene publications, prints, pictures, and other articles.

Occasional Conformity, The Bill Against, was designed to prevent Dissenters from complying with the provisions of the Test Act (q.v.) only so far as to qualify themselves for office or membership of a corporation. It was introduced for the first time in 1702 by three Tory members, one of whom was Henry St. John, and provided that anyone who attended a dissenting meeting-house after having taken the sacrament and test for offices of trust or the magistracy of corporations should be immediately dismissed, and heavily fined. This unjust measure passed the Commons, but was rejected by the Lords, though Queen Anne put great pressure on that House to pass the bill. A similar fate attended it in the following year, and again in 1704, when the more violent Tories, led by Nottingham, proposed to carry it through their opponents by "tacking it" to the Land Tax Bill. In 1711, however, Nottingham and his "Dismals" formed an unprincipled coalition with the

Whigs, the terms being that the latter should support the Occasional Conformity Bill, and it accordingly became law, the money fine being reduced from £100 to £40. This discreditable Act continued in force until 1719, when General Stanhope introduced a measure under the cunning title of a "Bill for strengthening the Protestant Interest," by which the Occasional Conformity Act and the Schism Act were abolished, but from which he was forced to exclude the Test Act.

Stanhope, *Hist. of Reign of Anne*, and *Hist. of Eng.*, vol. i., ch. 9 ; 10 Anne, cap. 2.

Ochterlony, Sir David (*b.* 1758, *d.* 1825), after having served in the Carnatic under Hastings and Coote, first appears prominently as Colonel Ochterlony in the capacity of Resident at Delhi (1803), after the conquest of Scindia's French troops. In this capacity he conducted the defence of Delhi in the most gallant manner, when Holkar besieged it on his return from Malwa in 1804. In 1814 he was given the command of the division destined to act against Umur Singh in the Goorkha War. Driving Umur Singh from point to point he at last shut him up in Malown. He was raised to the rank of a major-general, and had conferred upon him the Grand Cross of the Bath, being the first of the Company's officers to attain to that honour. In 1816, Sir David took command of the army for the second Goorkha campaign, and brought it to a successful conclusion. After the war he was appointed British Resident in Malwa and Rajpootana, and as such had in 1823 to deal with the disputed succession at Bhurtpore. The Governor-General, Lord Amherst, disapproved of Sir David's measures, and he was reprimanded. He thereupon resigned. The treatment he had received broke his heart, and he retired to Meerut, where he died within two months.

O'Connell, Daniel (*b.* Aug. 6, 1775, *d.* 1847), was the son of an Irish gentleman of very ancient family. He studied at Louvain, St. Omer, and Douai ; was driven from the Continent by the French Revolution, and went to London to read for the bar. In spite of the opposition of his family he came forward (Jan. 13, 1800) as a determined opponent of the Union, soon became the leader of the Catholic party, and in 1823 founded the Catholic Association. In 1825, he was prosecuted for saying, "that he hoped some Bolivar would arise to vindicate Catholic rights," but the grand jury ignored the bill. It was at his instigation that, in the year 1826, the Catholics began to show their power at elections. In 1828, he himself stood against Vesey Fitzgerald, and by means of the 40s. freeholders won the Clare election, his opponent retiring after five days' polling. His influence in the same year was strong enough to prevent a collision between the Catholics and the Orangemen, which seemed impending. The Emancipation Bill followed, but O'Connell having been elected before was still excluded from Parliament. He presented himself at the bar of the House (May 15, 1829), and pleaded with great ability to be allowed to sit ; his application was refused, and a new writ issued, but he was returned unopposed and allowed to take his seat. He was now called the "Liberator" in Ireland, and was adored by the people. In 1831, he was forced to plead guilty to a charge of holding illegal meetings ; although he was not punished, his influence was shaken at the time. He in vain opposed the Coercion Act of 1833, but did much service to the Whigs in promoting the cause of Reform. Afterwards, O'Connell and his "tail," as his followers in Parliament were derisively called, were for some time able to exercise great influence in that assembly, for he held the balance between Whigs and Tories. In 1838, however, he had to submit to a reprimand from the Speaker for accusing a member of perjury. In 1840, he revived the Repeal agitation, and in 1843 uttered language that was considered treasonable at the monster meetings he convened. But when government forbade the meeting at Clontarf on October 7, he failed to make good his words, and the Young Ireland party, among whom were the most talented of his followers, separated from him. O'Connell and his more immediate followers were arrested and prosecuted for conspiracy. A jury, entirely composed of Protestants, found him guilty, and he was sentenced to a year's imprisonment, and to a fine of £2,000. The English House of Lords by three to two reversed this decision (1844). This was hailed with enthusiasm, but the Repeal agitation was nevertheless crushed. O'Connell lived for some years longer, but his health was giving way. On Feb. 8, 1847, he delivered his last speech in the Commons, and died soon after at Genoa. In England he was scarcely looked upon as a serious personage, and derisive epithets such as the "big beggarman" were constantly applied to him. But in Catholic Ireland the influence obtained by his character, his energetic championship of the cause of his co-religionists, and his powers as a popular orator, was unprecedentedly great.

May, *Const. Hist. of Eng.* ; *Annual Register* ; O'Connell's *Speeches*, edited by his son ; Pauli, *Geschichte von England seit 1815* ; J. McCarthy, *Hist. of Our Own Times* ; M. Macdonagh, *Life*.

O'Connell Centenary, The (August 5, 1875), was celebrated by processions and banquets in Dublin. It led to a furious quarrel between the Home Rulers and the Nationalists, which brought the banquet in the evening, presided over by the Lord Mayor of Dublin, to an untimely end ; part of the guests wishing Mr. Gavan Duffy, and not Mr. Butt, to be associated with the toast of the "legislative independence of Ireland."

O'Connor, Arthur, heir expectant to Lord Longueville, an intimate friend of all the English Whigs, was one of the United Irishmen from 1796. In that year he was with Lord Edward Fitzgerald in France, and concerted with Hoche for an invasion. In 1797 he was imprisoned in Dublin Castle, but was soon released. Though the government was aware of his treason, it was unable to produce its information. O'Connor now established virulent papers like the *Press* and the *Northern Star*, advocating assassination. On Feb. 27, 1798, while on his way to the French Directory, as envoy of the Irish insurrectionary party, he was arrested at Margate, and brought before the Maidstone assizes. All the most distinguished members of the Opposition, however, came forward as witnesses to character, and he was acquitted. He returned to Ireland, but was arrested on another charge, and kept in prison. In 1798 Lord Cornwallis gave him and his confederates a pardon on condition of a full confession of his treason. This he did in a tone of bravado before a committee of the Lords. He was then sent to Fort George, and kept there till the Peace of Amiens. The American government refused to receive him, and he went to France.

Froude, *English in Ireland*; Musgrave, *Hist. of the Rebellion.*

O'Connor, Feargus. [Chartists.]

O'Connor, Roderick, King of Connaught, and last native King of Ireland (*d.* 1198), was the son of Turlough O'Connor. In 1161 he attempted to succeed to his father's power, but was unable to recover it till O'Loughlin, of Ulster, died (1166), and he was then recognised in the north at least as Lord of Ireland. [For his struggles with Dermot and the English, see article on Ireland.] In cruelty he was fully equal to Dermot; thus he put to death a son and grandson of that king, who were his hostages. It was by his command, too, that the eyes of all his own brothers were put out. When Henry II. came over to Ireland in person, all he could obtain from O'Connor was the latter's consent to receive his envoys, De Lacy and Fitz-Aldhelm. In 1175, however, he concluded a treaty with Henry through ambassadors at Windsor. He thereby acknowledged himself as Henry's vassal, and promised to pay tribute. In return the English king recognised him as overlord of all Ireland which was not in the hands either of the king himself or of his Norman barons. Revolt of his sons embittered his later years, and in 1189, after a fierce civil war, he perforce resigned the crown to his eldest son, and retired to a monastery, where he died at the age of eighty-two.

Moore, *Hist. of Ireland*; Giraldus Cambrensis, *Expugnatio Hibern.*, and *Topographia Hibern.*; *The Chronicle of the Four Masters.*

O'Connors, The Sept of the, was long supreme in Connaught. [O'Connor, Roderick.] Feidlim, Roderick's successor, was recognised as chief after a fierce civil war, in which he triumphed by the aid of the De Burghs. In the invasion of Edward Bruce, the O'Connors at first sided with the English, but soon after they changed sides, and the slaughter at Athenry in 1316 put an end to their existence as a great clan. [Connaught.]

Moore, *Hist. of Ireland*; Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.*

Octennial Bill (1768). In 1761 an agitation for a Septennial Bill had begun in Ireland, where, till then, a Parliament was of necessity dissolved only by the king's death. In 1761 a bill to this effect was passed, but though returned from England, an error of the draftsman served as an excuse to the Irish Parliament for rejecting it. In Oct., 1767, the agitation, however, recommenced, chiefly because the bill had not been mentioned in the speech from the throne. In 1768 it was finally introduced as an Octennial Bill, and passed.

October Club, The (1710), was composed," says Hallam, "of a strong phalanx of Tory members, who, though by no means entirely Jacobite, were chiefly influenced by those who were such." "It had long been customary," says Mr. Wyon, "for the members of a party, when some important measure was before Parliament, to meet at a tavern for the purpose of concerting a plan of action. The society was termed a club." Soon after the beginning of 1710, a few of the extreme Tories began to hold a series of meetings at the "Bell," in Westminster. "The password of this club—one of easy remembrance to a country gentleman who loved his ale—was October." The October Club soon set itself to work to undermine the power of Harley, whose moderation they scorned. It was from thence that the Jacobites looked for supporters in the last years of Queen Anne's reign. The Bolingbroke faction belonged to the October Club. They took great delight in vindictive attacks on the Whigs, especially on Sunderland.

Odal, or Udal, Right, is a tenure of land that still prevails in the Orkney and Shetland Islands, and which before the growth of feudalism was the ordinary tenure of the Teutonic races. [Alodial Land.] Its distinctive feature lies in the fact that land held by this right is held absolutely, and not dependent upon a superior. Odal right is thus antagonistic to feudalism, which recognised service as the only title to land.

Odo, Archbishop of Canterbury 942—958, was the son of one of the Danish chieftains who had taken part in the invasion of 870. Odo was attracted by the preaching of a Christian missionary, and embraced the Christian faith. He was adopted by Arch-

bishop Athelm, and in 926 was made Bishop of Ramsbury. In 942 Dunstan's influence gained Odo the archbishopric. The archbishop-elect at once declared his intention of becoming a monk, thus placing himself at the head of the party of reform in the Church, whose object it was to encourage monasticism, introduce the Benedictine rule, and enforce celibacy amongst the clergy. During the reign of Edred this party had the ascendency, but his successor, Edwy, seems to have joined the party of the secular clergy. Odo and Dunstan declared that Edwy's marriage with Elgiva was unlawful, and after a great deal of violent dispute, Edwy consented to divorce her. The story of Odo's cruel persecution of Elgiva is in all probability absolutely mythical. [DUNSTAN.]

William of Malmesbury; Hook, *Archbishops of Canterbury.*

Odo, Bishop of Bayeux (*d.* 1097), was the half-brother of William the Conqueror, whom he accompanied and greatly assisted in his invasion of England. In 1067, during William's absence in Normandy, he acted as regent of the kingdom in conjunction with William Fitz-Osbern. Their harsh and oppressive rule contributed to the risings of the English in various parts of the country, which disquieted the early part of William I.'s reign. However, in 1073 he was again appointed regent, and helped to crush the rebellion of the Earls of Hereford and Norfolk. He was munificently rewarded, raised to the second rank in the kingdom, and given the earldom of Kent and several rich manors. He now aimed at the papacy, but his ambitious projects were cut short by the king, who had him arrested as Earl of Kent, and committed to prison, where he remained till William's death. Though he was released and restored to his earldom and estates by Rufus, he joined Robert in his invasion of England. Being taken prisoner he was compelled to quit the country, and retired to Normandy, where he acted as minister to Robert, and accompanying him on the Crusade died, it is said, at the siege of Antioch.

Ordericus Vitalis, *Hist. Eccles.*; Freeman, *Norman Conquest.*

O'Donnell, BALDEARG, the descendant of an ancient Celtic race, was in the service of the Spanish government when he heard that his countrymen had risen against the Revolution settlement of 1688. The Spanish king refused him permission to join them. He thereupon made his escape, and after a circuitous route through Portugal he landed at Kinsale. His appearance excited great enthusiasm; 8,000 Ulster men joined him, and he came to the assistance of the garrison at the first siege of Limerick. After the defeat of the Irish at Aghrim it was hoped that he would come to the defence of Galway. But he studiously held aloof. Soon afterwards he joined the English army with a few of his devoted followers, and on several occasions did valuable service to William.

Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*

O'Donnell, HUGH, called Red Hugh (*d.* 1602), was son and heir of Rory O'Donnell, Earl of Tyrconnel. In 1587 he was treacherously seized by order of Sir John Perrot, and kept a prisoner at Dublin as a hostage for his father's good behaviour. He, however, escaped after three years' captivity, and at once joined Hugh O'Neil. In 1601 he commanded the O'Donnells, who marched with O'Neil to raise the siege of Kinsale, and their defeat there is said to have been, in part at least, due to his impetuosity. In 1602 he sailed to Spain with a long train of followers, and was received by the court with great distinction, but died soon afterwards.

Moore, *Hist. of Ireland.*

O'Donnell, RORY, Earl of Tyrconnel (*d.* 1608), was brother of Red Hugh O'Donnell. In 1603 he gave up his Irish title, and received a grant of his lands and the earldom from James I. In 1607, however, he seems to have conspired with O'Neil, Earl of Tyrone, and with him at all events he went abroad, where he died, after being attainted, in 1608.

O'Donnells, THE SEPT OF THE, were powerful in Ulster, where the O'Neils were their hereditary foes and rivals. Calwagh O'Donnell was captured by Shane O'Neil, together with the Countess of Argyle, his wife, in 1560, and remained a prisoner till 1564, and even then he had to purchase his release by the loss of a large part of his lands. In James's reign, however, he regained his possessions, and became Earl of Tyrconnel. Soon afterwards, being involved in a plot, he fled, and, with his family, became prominent at the Spanish court.

Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*

Offa, King of Mercia 757—796, was of the royal house of Mercia, though not nearly related to Ethelbald, the last sovereign in the direct line of descent. He drove out the usurper Beornred, and quickly made himself master of the kingdom. Under him Mercia became the greatest power in Britain. He thoroughly subdued Kent by his victory at Otford in 775, inflicted in 777 a great defeat on Wessex at Bensington, and annexed Oxfordshire to Mercia. He frequently defeated the Welsh, and pushed the boundaries of Mercia westward. To protect his frontiers he constructed from the Wye to the Dee a dyke, the remaining traces of which still bear his name. To strengthen his power he got leave from the Pope in 786 to establish at Lichfield an archbishopric independent of the see of Canterbury. The murder of Ethel-

bert of East Anglia is one great blot on Offa's character. On the whole he appears to have been a wise and humane ruler, and to have encouraged learning. He drew up a code of laws which has unfortunately perished. He was very liberal to the Church both at home and abroad, and founded many monasteries, among which was the great abbey of St. Albans.

Anglo-Saxon Chron.; Matthew Paris, *Vitæ duorum Offarum*; Lappenberg, *Anglo-Saxon Kings*; J. R. Green, *The Making of England*.

Offaley, Thomas, Lord (*d.* 1536), was the eldest son of the ninth Earl of Kildare (q.v.). On a report of his father's death in the Tower he renounced his allegiance and revolted. He was totally defeated near Naas, and sent to England as a prisoner, where he and five of his uncles were hanged at Tyburn.

Oglethorpe, General James Edward (*b.* 1698, *d.* 1785), after serving in the army with distinction, was returned to Parliament as member for Haslemere (1722). He was celebrated for his philanthropy, and founded the colony of Georgia, and an asylum for debtors.

Olaf (Anlaf), Haroldson (or St. Olaf) (*d.* 1930), was brought up in the kingdom of Novgorod, and at an early age put to sea on a buccaneering expedition. He next appears as the friend of the Norman dukes, and fought as Ethelred's ally in England. Finding that Canute had his hands full in England, he resolved to make an attempt for the crown of Norway, and, leaving England, was successful in establishing himself there. Canute, when he found himself secure in England, set out with a magnificent fleet, largely manned by English, to assert his supremacy, which Olaf had denied. The Norwegian king fled before him into Sweden, where he managed to secure the help of many outlaws and broken men. With them, and a faithful knot of personal friends, he returned to Norway to regain his throne. At the battle of *Sticklestead*, he was defeated and slain (1030). His body was hastily buried, but was later taken up, being found incorrupt, and buried in great state in a shrine at Trondhjem (Drontheim). Many English churches are consecrated to him. Tooley Street, in London, still preserves his name in the old Danish quarter.

Snorro Sturleson, *Heimskringla*; Skulason, *Olafs Saga* apud *Scripta Hist. Islandorum*; Saxo Grammaticus, *Hist. Danica*, lib. x.; Maurer, *Bekehrung des Norwegischen Stammes*.

Olaf (Anlaf), Trygwason (*d.* 1000), was the son of a Norwegian sea-king of royal blood, and was probably born in the British Isles. The accounts of his early days, which originate in a Latin chronicle, now lost, are not to be trusted. His first appearance in English annals is probably 988, when Watchet was harried, and Gova, the Devonish thane, slain, and many men with him; but in 993 we are told how he came with 450 ships to Stone, and thence to Sandwich, and thence to Ipswich, harrying all about, and so to Maldon. Here he was met by Brihtnoth, the famous ealdorman, whom he defeated and slew. Next year, with Sweyn, the Danish king, he laid siege to London, but failed to take it. They then harried, burnt, and slew all along the sea-coasts of Essex, Kent, Sussex, and Hampshire. On receipt of £16,000 they agreed to a peace, and Olaf promised never again to visit England save peacefully. Next spring he went to Norway and wrested the kingdom from Earl Hacon; here he ruled for five years, during which time he established Christianity in the various districts of Norway and her colonies. He disappeared mysteriously after a battle that he had lost; rumours of his living at Rome and the Holy Land as a hermit were long rife in the North.

Anglo-Saxon Chron.; Snorro Sturleson, *Heimskringla*; Maurer, *Bekehrung des Norwegischen Stammes*, 1856.

Oldcastle, Sir John, Lord Cobham (*d.* 1417), was a member of the royal household and a personal friend of Henry V. He was the leader of the Lollards. In 1413 the clergy determined to strike a blow at them by indicting Oldcastle. He refused to appear before Convocation, and was excommunicated. At last, compelled to attend before a spiritual court at St. Paul's, he yet refused to recant his opinion, and re-asserted many of his former statements, declaring, among other things, that "the Pope, the bishops, and the friars constituted the head, the members, and the tail of antichrist." Thereupon he was pronounced a heretic, and imprisoned in the Tower. Making his escape, he was expected to put himself at the head of a large body of followers, who assembled in St. Giles's Fields; but Henry's promptitude prevented the rising, and Oldcastle escaped from London. In 1415 he attempted to excite a rebellion, and in 1417 he was captured in the Welsh Marches, and put to death as a heretic and a traitor. "Perhaps we shall most safely conclude," says Dr. Stubbs. "from the tenor of history, that his doctrinal creed was far sounder than the principles which guided either his moral or political conduct." Sir John Oldcastle married the heiress of the barony of Cobham, and in her right was summoned to Parliament as Lord Cobham, by which name he is often known. [Lollards.]

Old Sarum is generally regarded as the Roman Sorbiodunum. The Saxons in 552 captured it from the Britons, and named it Searesbyrig. In 960 a Witenagemot was held at Old Sarum, and the barons were assembled here by William in 1086. From the reign of the Conqueror till the thirteenth century it was the seat of a

bishop; but the town then followed the church, which was rebuilt in the plain; and hereafter it has continued to be almost deserted. Nevertheless, it sent two members to Parliament, and it was for Old Sarum that William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, first sat (1735). In 1832 it was disenfranchised by the Reform Bill.

Olive Branch Petition, The (July, 1775), was the ultimatum on the part of the American colonies prior to the War of Independence. It was a petition drawn up by Congress, urging the king to direct some mode of reconciliation. Respectful and conciliatory, the petition proposed no terms or conditions, though it was generally understood that the colonies would insist on the repeal of the obnoxious statutes, and would require some solemn charter regulating the relations of the two countries in the future. The petition was entrusted to Richard Penn, joint proprietor of the influential colony of Pennsylvania. But on his arrival in London in August, "no minister waited on him or sent for him, or even asked him one single question about the state of the colonies." The king would have nothing to do with the petition or its bearer. The American envoys foresaw too clearly that the result of the refusal would be bloodshed; but Lord Dartmouth only expressed the popular misconception of the gravity of the situation, when he said that if he thought the refusal would be the cause of shedding one drop of blood he would never have concurred in it. [George III.]

Bancroft, *Hist. of American Revolution*, ii., c. 49; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*, vi., c. 52.

Omdut-ul-Omrah, Nabob of the Carnatic, on the death of Mahomet Ali (1795) succeeded to the throne and debts of his father. During his administration the prosperity of the country was rapidly declining, and the resources of government were threatened with extinction. He was, however, surrounded by European money-lenders, and enabled to pay the English subsidy, and thus defer the crisis for a short time. Lord Hobart, Governor of Madras, proposed that the mortgaged districts should be ceded to the Company in lieu of the subsidy. This the Nabob refused, and also a similar proposition by Lord Mornington in 1799. On the outbreak of hostilities with Tippoo, Lord Wellesley demanded a war contribution of three lacs of pagodas; this was promised, but not paid. Various propositions of cession were made in lieu of subsidy, but all were refused. Meanwhile the Nabob had continued the intercourse and correspondence with Tippoo which his father had begun in violation of the Treaty of 1792, and at the capture of Seringapatam proofs of this were discovered. Before, however, any action was taken the Nabob died (1800).

Welles'ey Despatches: Mill, *Hist. of India;* Wilks, *Mysore.*

Omichund was a wealthy banker of Moorshedabad, who became acquainted with the plot which Meer Jaffier had arranged with Clive for the destruction of Surajah Dowlah. He demanded £300,000 as a bribe for silence. Clive therefore caused two treaties to be made out between Meer Jaffier and the English—the real one on white paper, in which Omichund was not mentioned, and the other, the false one, on red, containing a promise to pay him this sum. Clive and the committees signed both, but Admiral Watson refused to sign the false one. Clive therefore forged his signature. When Omichund became aware of the deception he lost his reason.

O'Neil, Conn, Earl of Tyrone (*d. circa* 1559), joined the Geraldines in their rebellion, and for a long time maintained himself against the English forces. In 1542 he consented to resign his title of "The O'Neil," and, being refused the earldom of Ulster, went over to England, and was made Earl of Tyrone; his favourite, though illegitimate, son Matthew being elevated at the same time to the peerage as Lord Dungannon and the earldom entailed on him. But he could not maintain his power, and a furious struggle broke out between Matthew's son and his uncle Shane, in which the latter triumphed.

O'Neil, Hugh, Earl of Tyrone, called "the arch rebel" (*d.* 1616), was the son of Matthew, Baron of Dungannon, who was himself the base son of Conn O'Neil, the first Earl of Tyrone. He first appears as commander of a troop of horse on the queen's side against Desmond. In 1585 the rank and title of Earl of Tyrone is acknowledged to be his, and, on his appeal to the queen, he is also invested with the lands attached to the earldom. He married the daughter of Sir H. Bagenal, but was suspected of having carried her off by force. Afterwards he was the ally of Red Hugh O'Donnell, but, nevertheless, he still temporised while he sought to obtain help from Spain. In 1595 he at last threw off the mask, and, assuming the royal title of "The O'Neil," allied himself with the neighbouring clans. After some fighting, he seemed ready to submit, and was pardoned in April, 1598. He was soon in arms again, however, and in August he overthrew Sir H. Bagenal in person at the battle of Blackwater. Ulster, Connaught, and Leinster in consequence rose. The queen, now thoroughly alarmed, sent over the Earl of Essex as Lord-Lieutenant. He brought with him ample powers, and an army of 20,000 foot and 2,000 horse, the largest Ireland had seen. The two leaders met at a ford on the borders of Monaghan and Louth; a truce was arranged, and Essex consented to submit O'Neil's demands to the queen. They included complete freedom of religion and the

restoration of all forfeited land to the O'Neils, the O'Donnells, and to Desmond. Essex soon after left Ireland, and Lord Mountjoy succeeded him as commander of the English forces. The rest of the country gradually submitted, but O'Neil still held out in hopes of foreign succour. In 1601, 5,000 Spaniards at last landed at Kinsale, and some 2,000 more at Castlehaven. Kinsale was at once besieged by Lord Mountjoy and the Earl of Thomond. O'Neil, joined by O'Donnell, and by Captain Tyrel with the 2,000 Spaniards from Castlehaven, marched to raise the siege. Against his own better judgment, he engaged the English forces on Dec. 23, 1601, and was defeated with a loss of 1,200 killed. In crossing the Blackwater on his retreat, he suffered another severe loss and was himself dangerously wounded. The Lord-Deputy then followed him into Tyrone, took his forts, ravaged the country, and even broke to pieces the old stone seat on which the O'Neils had been from time immemorial inaugurated as chiefs. When all hopes of Spanish succour came to an end, Mountjoy induced the queen to accept O'Neil's submission, which he made at Mellefont, being reinstated in his earldom of Tyrone. James I. at first treated him very kindly, but, when the English shire system began to be introduced and the penal laws began to be carried out, Tyrone conspired with Tyrconnel and the Spaniards. In 1607 he fled to Rome, where he died in 1616. By the death of his sons soon after, this branch of the O'Neils became extinct.

Froude, *Eng. in Ireland*; Moore, *Hist. of Ireland*; Camden, *Annales rerum Anglicarum et Hibernicarum*; Moryson, *Hist. of Ireland*, 1635.

O'Neil, Owen Roe (*d.* 1649), had been an officer in the Spanish service, but returned to Ulster, and in July, 1642, assumed the command. He was soon hailed as "The O'Neil," though he was not in the direct line of descent. The Council entrusted him with the command in Ulster; but he was not at first very successful, and had to appeal to them for help. But, on June 5, 1646, he won the splendid victory over Monroe's Scots and English at Benburb. He was opposed to the reconciliation between Ormonde and the Catholics, and, in 1649, went so far as to come to an agreement with Monk; but, after Rathmines, the English Parliament refused to agree to this treaty, and he then proceeded to join Ormonde. Before he could effect his purpose, however, he died.

Lecky, *England in the Eighteenth Century*; Froude, *English in Ireland*; Warner; Carte, *Hist. of the Life of James, Duke of Ormonde.*

O'Neil, Shane (*d.* 1567), was the legitimate eldest son of Conn O'Neil. By Henry VIII.'s patent the earldom of Tyrone, as granted to Conn, was to descend to Matthew, his base son, and his heirs. Matthew had before Conn's death fallen by Shane's hand, but his son was supported by England. Shane O'Neil, however, got recognised as The O'Neil by a large part of the clan, and held out in rebellion against the Earl of Sussex, his personal foe. An attempt to set up O'Donnell against him led to that chief's capture (1560). On Shane being anxious for peace, he was induced to visit England, where he was well received by Elizabeth, but not allowed to return. When, however, in 1561, the young Earl of Tyrone was murdered by one of his kinsmen, Shane was allowed to depart, and at once succeeded to all his nephew's power. In 1564 the Lord-Deputy made an attempt at a meeting with Shane at Dundalk to induce him to liberate O'Donnell, who was still his prisoner. This he finally did, but on terms sufficiently humiliating for England and its ally. Soon after he concluded a treaty with Sir Thomas Cusacke, in accordance with which he submitted; he was, however, allowed to call himself The O'Neil till an English title should be found for him, and the garrison of Armagh was withdrawn. This treaty he observed very faithfully, and, in accordance with the wishes of the English, he attacked and for the time destroyed the Island Scots in 1564. When Sir H. Sidney came over as Lord-Deputy, he refused to restore O'Donnell's lands, and ravaged the Pale; in consequence he was attacked, and in 1567 all his forts were taken, and his clan abandoned him. He fled to the Scots, but was murdered.

Moore, *Hist. of Ireland*; *Sidney Papers*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*

O'Neil, Sir Phelim (*d.* 1653), a relation of the last Earl of Tyrone, was one of the leaders in the Ulster rising of 1641. He was a weak man, and the only one among the leaders who seems to have really allowed and encouraged outrages. Early in 1642 he announced that he was entrusted with a royal commission. He also began to style himself The O'Neil. In July, 1642, however, the command dropped from his feeble hands, and Owen Roe O'Neil, his successor, expressed in strong terms horror and disgust at his conduct. In 1653 he was tried before the High Court of Justice at Kilkenny, presided over by Fleetwood, and, together with some 200 others, convicted and executed.

Froude, *Eng. in Ireland*; Carte, *Hist. of the Life of James, Duke of Ormonde.*

O'Neils, The Sept of the, was the regal race of Ulster, descended from the ancient race which governed Ireland before the days of Brian Boru. In Edward Bruce's invasion their chief resigned his title to the crown. The regal title of The O'Neil was, however, always borne by their chief when he was in arms against England. In Elizabeth's time Conn O'Neil (q.v.) submitted (1542), and became Earl of Tyrone, being refused the earldom of Ulster.

Moore, *Hist. of Ireland.*

Orange Free State, The, a tract of country originally settled by Boer emigrants from Cape Colony, was in 1848 proclaimed British territory, under the title of The Orange River Sovereignty. The Boer farmers rose in revolt, but were dispersed by Sir Harry Smith at Boomplaats (Aug. 29). Subsequently British troops had to protect the farmers from the Basutos, but, sooner than be saddled permanently with this responsibility, the British Government decided to let the farmers look after themselves, and by the Convention of Bloemfontein (1854) created The Orange Free State. In 1871 relations between the British Government and the Free State were strained owing to the discovery of the diamond fields. The Free State declared that the actual fields were part of its territory; it was argued on the other side, that they had been acquired by the British by purchase from a Griqua chief, named Waterboer. Eventually President Brand laid the matter in person before the Colonial Office. Griqualand West remained British, but £100,000 was paid to the Free State as compensation. During the hostilities with the Transvaal Boers in 1881 the Free State remained neutral; but on the outbreak of the Boer War (1899) it threw in its lot with the Transvaal. The country was formally annexed by Great Britain on May 24th, 1900, and was re-named the Orange River Colony. Crown-colony government was established in 1902, and five years later responsible government was granted. In 1909 the colony was made a province (called the Orange Free State), and now forms a portion of the Union of South Africa (q.v.).

Orangemen, The, was a term which began to be used as early as 1689, and was applied to the upholders of Revolution principles. On Sept. 21, 1796, the first Orange lodge was instituted by the Peep o' Day Boys. The lodges multiplied, their chief object at that time being to disarm the Catholics, who indeed had no right to keep arms. By 1797 they could muster 200,000 men. Many noblemen and gentlemen joined them, and it was their influence which counteracted that of the United Irishmen in the north. In 1825 they were dissolved by the Association Bill. In 1836 they, however, again numbered 145,000 members in England and 125,000 in Ireland. The Duke of Cumberland was Grand Master, and the Orangemen were suspected of a wish to change the succession in his favour by force of arms. Consequently, after a parliamentary inquiry, their lodges were broken up. In 1845 they were again revived, and many faction fights followed in Ireland. In 1869 great excitement was created by the arrest of their Grand Master for violating the Party Processions Act. More recently they have been active in their opposition to Home Rule.

Ordainers, The Lords, consisted of earls, barons, and bishops, appointed in March, 1310, to hold office till Michaelmas, 1311, and to draw up ordinances for the reform of the realm. A precedent for the appointment of such a commission was found in the proceedings of the Oxford Parliament of 1258, and in both cases it is noticeable that the Commons had no share in the matter. The Ordainers were twenty-one in number, viz., seven bishops, eight earls, and six barons.

Ordeal. This name, once written *ordál* and *ordèl*, etymologically signifies a distribution into "deals" or parts, then a discriminating, and then a deciding (Ger. *Urtheil*), and was given to a peculiar method of reaching the facts in criminal cases that made a feature of the Anglo-Saxon judicial system. Though represented as an inheritance from Pagan times, it is described as "a reference to the direct judgment of God," and would seem to have been allowed as an alternative to those who failed in or shrank from the process by compurgation or by oath. "If he dare not take the oath," says an old law, "let him go to the triple ordeal." But the recorded details will not warrant a positive statement. We only know that under certain circumstances, while the court, sheriff, bishop, thegns, &c., declared the law, the ordeal was expected to reveal the facts. The ceremony took place in church. After three days of severe discipline and austere diet, having communicated and made oath that he was innocent, the accused person, standing between twelve friends and twelve foes, when a special service had concluded, plunged his arm into boiling water, drew out a stone or lump of iron, and had his arm bandaged by the priest. This was the ordeal of water. Or he was called on to seize a bar of iron that had lain on a fire till the last collect of the service had been read, carry it for three feet, and hasten to the altar, when the priest promptly applied the bandages. This was the ordeal of iron. If in three days' time the priest could say the arm was healed, the sufferer was pronounced guiltless, if not, he was judged as one convicted of God. Minor or less accredited ordeals were the *corsned*, or eating of the consecrated or accused morsel, and the casting of the subject, bound, into deep water. If the former did not choke, if the latter threatened to drown, it was taken as a proof of innocence. Walking on burning ploughshares also appears as an ordeal, but seldom, if ever, save in incredible stories, as in that told of Emma, Canute's widow.

Ordeal continued after the Conquest. The Conqueror allowed it to Englishmen when challenged by Normans in place of the newly-introduced trial by battle. "*Domesday*," Prof. Freeman tells us, "is full of cases in which men offer to prove their rights . . . by battle or by ordeal." In the Assize of Northampton (1176) it is ordered that men presented

before the king's justices for the darker crimes should "go to the judgment of water." But it fell into disrepute; the Church withdrew her countenance from it; other processes, notably the crude forms of the jury system, grew into favour; the Lateran Council of 1215 abolished it. This sealed its doom in England as elsewhere; a letter of Henry III.'s to the itinerant justices in 1218 is usually accepted as marking its final extinction.

Palgrave, *English Commonwealth*; Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.* [J. R.]

Ordericus Vitalis (*b.* 1075, *d.* 1145) was of mixed parentage, his father being a native of Orleans and his mother an Englishwoman. He was born in England, but spent most of his time at Lisieux, in Normandy. He wrote an *Ecclesiastical History*, chiefly concerned with the affairs of Normandy, and he is on the whole the most valuable authority for the reigns of William the Conqueror and his son. The first part of his work deals with the history of the Church from the beginning of the Christian era to the year 855; the second part gives the history of the monastery of St. Evroul; and the third part is a general history of events in Western Christendom from Carlovingian times down to the year 1141.

The best edition is that published at Paris by Le Prevost, and a translation will be found in Bohn's *Antiquarian Library*.

Orders in Council are orders by the sovereign with the advice of the Privy Council. They have been issued in times of emergency. In 1766 an embargo was imposed on the exportation of corn, because of a deficient harvest and the prospect of a famine. Napoleon I.'s Berlin decree, declaring the whole of the British Islands to be in a state of blockade, called forth, on Jan. 7, 1807, an Order in Council prohibiting all vessels, under the penalty of seizure, from trading to ports under the influence of France. Further orders bearing upon the same question were issued on Nov. 11 and 21 of the same year. On April 26, 1808, by a new Order in Council, the blockade was limited to France, Holland, a part of Germany, and the north of Italy. The legality of Orders in Council has been frequently questioned. They have, however, been authorised by statute in various matters connected with trade and the revenue; and the International Copyright Act, 7 and 8 Vic., cap. 12, contains a clause empowering the crown by Order in Council to extend the benefits of that Act to works first published in any state that gives a like privilege to the productions of this country.

Ordinance is a form of legislation opposed to a statute. An ordinance has been defined as "a regulation made by the king, by himself, or in his council, or with the advice of his council, promulgated in letters patent or in charter, and liable to be recalled by the same authority." The essential difference between an ordinance and a statute lay in the fact that the former did not require to be enacted in Parliament, and might be repealed without Parliament. Moreover, the ordinance is the temporary Act of the executive; the statute, the permanent Act of the legislature. From the earliest days of Parliament a great deal of jealousy was felt on account of the ordaining power of the king and his council. It very frequently happened that an ordinance practically repealed or materially modified what had been enacted by statute; and in 1389 a petition was presented by the Commons praying that no ordinance be made contrary to the common law, the ancient customs of the land, or the statutes made by Parliament. The sovereign still possesses the power, which must be given to the executive, of legislating by ordinance in certain cases. But these ordinances, or Orders in Council, as they are termed, are only made with the consent of Parliament, are in most cases laid before the two Houses, and may be abrogated by Act of Parliament.

Ordovices, The, were an ancient British tribe who occupied the north of Wales and Anglesey.

Oregon Question, The. The treaty of 1783 between the United States and England had omitted to define the frontier between Canada and the United States eastwards from the great lakes, and also westwards from the Rocky Mountains, leaving open the disposal of the vast district lying between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific. In November, 1818, a convention was concluded between the two governments containing this stipulation, that "whatever territory may be claimed by one or other of the contracting parties on the north-west coast of America, to the west of the Rocky Mountains, as also all bays, harbours, creeks, or rivers thereon, shall be free and open to the ships, citizens, and subjects of both powers, for ten years from the date of the signature of the present convention." This convention was renewed Aug. 6, 1827, for an indefinite period, with the understanding that either party might rescind the stipulation by giving twelve months' notice. The boundary question was thus left still in abeyance. Numerous difficulties occurred, and in 1846 the American legislature gave notice that the existing convention would terminate in twelve months. A great deal of indignation had previously been excited in England by President Polk's inaugural address in 1845, in which he distinctly claimed Oregon as part of the United States, and asserted that the Americans would maintain their right to it by force of arms if necessary. This speech was replied to by Sir Robert Peel in a spirited address to the House of Commons. England at once transmitted a proposition for a settlement, and this

was eventually accepted by the United States. The territory was then equitably divided between the two countries by the Oregon Treaty of 1846. The north-west frontier was defined along the main land to the coast, but there were some minor points which were not defined with sufficient precision. Hence a dispute arose later as to the ownership of the little island of San Juan (q.v.), which was decided against England by arbitration in 1872.

Ellenborough, *Diary*; Martin, *Life of the Prince Consort*; Molesworth, *Hist. of Eng.*

Orford, Earl of. [Russell; Walpole.]

Orkney and Shetland, the northernmost county of modern Scotland, consists of two groups of islands, of which the Orkneys are the southernmost. There are faint traces of their having been originally inhabited by Picts. If Nennius could be believed (*Mon. Hist. Brit.*, p. 56A) it was the original settlement of that nation. In A.D. 86 Agricola took possession of the Orkneys, but it is improbable that the Romans ever effected a definite occupation. When in 682 the Pictish king, Brude MacBile, devastated the Orkney Islands, he must have waged war against some civil foes. But the real history of the northern islands begins with the Scandinavian settlements. Their position exposed them to Viking outrages, and invited the settlement of the hardy Norsemen, who fled beyond sea from the tyranny of Harold Harfagr. In 874 Thorstein the Red, son of a Norse King of Dublin, had already conquered both Orkney and Shetland, and Caithness and Sutherland. But within ten years Harfagr himself sailed to Orkney, added it to his empire, and constituted it an earldom in favour of Rognwald, who handed it over to his brother Sigurd. Jarl Sigurd soon added to his government Caithness and Sutherland, if not districts still further south. It is unnecessary to enter into the detailed history of the Jarls of Orkney, of their wars with the Scots, in the Hebrides, and in Ireland. Their district was frequently split up into two portions, held by different members of the reigning family. The Scottish kings claimed some indefinite suzerain rights over Caithness, but Orkney paid scat or tribute to Norway alone. Some of the more valiant of the earls conquered the whole of the districts north of the Spey, but the evidence of language no less than of history shows that "Suther land" was the southernmost point of the district permanently occupied by the Norsemen. Unlike the Hebrides, the jarldom of Orkney was not only conquered, but colonised. The original inhabitants were nearly extirpated. To this day the language of the district is English, the nomenclature Norse, the laws and constitution purely Scandinavian. The udal tenure and the Norse poor law are but things of yesterday in Orkney. After the introduction of Christianity by Olaf Tryggvason in 997, Orkney became the seat of a bishopric, and Shetland later of an archdeaconry, which were included in the province of Trondhjem. But the obedience of the Bishop of Caithness was more doubtful. Earl Thorfinn (1014—1064), the founder of the cathedral of Kirkwall, was almost the last of the great conquering Jarls of Orkney. His conquests lapsed on his death. His sons, Paul and Erling, who joined Harold Hardrada's expedition to England in 1066, ruled jointly, and were the founders of two lines of earls. The son of Erling was the famous St. Magnus. Malcolm Canmore by his marriage with Thorfinn's widow brought the whole district into some relation with the Scottish crown. But in 1093 both Orkneys and Western Isles were conquered for a time by Magnus Barefoot of Norway, but on his death in 1104 the native jarls regained their practically supreme authority. In 1196 William the Lion definitely subjected Caithness to his throne. In the next century the earldom of Caithness was divided between the Angus and Moray families. At a later period the Sinclairs got possession of it. The islands remained under the nominal suzerainty of the Kings of Norway, and, after the Danish conquest, of the Kings of Denmark. In 1470 they were handed over to James III. as security for the portion of his wife, Margaret of Denmark. At the same time the bishopric was transferred from the province of Trondhjem to that of St. Andrews. The pledge was never redeemed, and at last, on the marriage of James VI. with Anne of Denmark, the pretensions of the Danish kings were more formally ceded. The islands were constituted into a Scottish county, though it was not until the Reform Act of 1832 that Shetland had any voice in returning Parliamentary representatives. The land gradually got into the hands of Scottish proprietors, but the bulk of the population remained Norse, though that language died out with the cessation of the political connection.

Anderson's edition of the *Orkneyjingar Saga*; Skene, *Celtic Scotland*; Robertson, *Scotland under her Early Kings*; Torfaei, *Orcades*; Barry, *Hist. of Orkney*; Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*.

[T. F. T.]

Orleans, The Siege of (1428—29), was commenced by the Duke of Bedford in October, 1428. The English were at this time masters of the whole country north of the Loire, and were anxious to extend their conquests across that river. For this purpose it was necessary that Orleans should be taken, as it commanded the valley of the Loire. The size of the city rendered a strict blockade almost impossible, while a considerable French force harassed the besiegers. The battle of Patay, which was fought in February, 1429, seemed to deprive the besieged of all hope of succour, and the fall of Orleans was certain, when the sudden rise of Joan of Arc, and the enthusiasm she created.

aided by the skill of Dunois and other generals selected by her, entirely changed the aspect of affairs. Led by the heroine of Domremy, the French succeeded in entering Orleans in April, and on May 8 the English raised the siege and retired, being defeated with considerable loss ten days later at Patay. Sir E. Creasy places the siege of Orleans among the decisive battles of the world, and certainly its results were very considerable. The raising of the siege was the turn of the tide; after this the English lost town after town, fortress after fortress, till at last, of all their great French possessions, Calais alone was left to them.

Monstrelet, *Chroniques*; Michelet, *Hist. de France*, vol. v.

Orleton, Adam, Bishop of Winchester (*d.* 1345), was made Bishop of Hereford in the year 1317, and translated to Winchester in 1333. In 1323 he was accused of high treason before Parliament. He refused to recognise the jurisdiction of a lay court, and was supported by all the other prelates and many of the barons. Edward II. summoned a council of laymen and had Orleton tried before them. A verdict of guilty was returned, and his property sequestrated. Before long, however, he was reconciled with the king; but he never forgot the insult, and in 1326 he took the lead among the bishops in support of Isabella and Mortimer. He played a very important part in the events which led to Edward's deposition and murder, and is largely responsible for both these acts.

Ormonde, James Butler, 4th Earl of (*d.* 1452), was Lord-Deputy in Henry IV.'s reign. In Henry V.'s reign he was Lord-Lieutenant, and succeeded in keeping the natives out of the Pale (q.v.). In 1423 he was superseded. In 1440, however, he again became Lord-Lieutenant, and remained so till 1446.

Lodge, *Portraits.*

Ormonde, James Butler, 5th Earl of (*d.* May 1, 1461), was created Earl of Wiltshire in 1449, and was knighted by Henry VI. In 1453 he became Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, and got tonnage and poundage granted to him on condition of guarding the seas. He was an ardent Lancastrian, and fought against the Earl of Warwick at sea. At Wakefield, he was one of those who captured the Duke of York. In 1461, however, he was taken prisoner at Towton, and beheaded at Newcastle (May 1, 1461). Together with his brothers he was attainted in Edward IV.'s first Parliament; his brother, the sixth earl, was, however, soon afterwards restored in blood.

Ormonde, Thomas Butler, 7th Earl of (*d.* 1515), succeeded his brother, the sixth earl. The act of attainder was finally reversed by the first Parliament of Henry VII., and he was summoned to the English Parliament as Baron Ormonde of Rochford, in 1495. In 1515 he died, without male issue. Through his daughter, his English barony passed to the Boleyns, and they were created Earls of Ormonde as well. But on the death of Thomas Boleyn without male issue, in 1539, the earldom was restored by Henry VIII. to the Butlers.

Lodge, *Portraits*

Ormonde, Thomas Butler, 10th Earl of (*d.* 1614), was in 1559 Lord High Treasurer of Ireland, which office he held till his death. He was a staunch Protestant, having been educated at the English court; this embittered his feud with the Earl of Desmond (q.v.). In 1580 he was appointed Governor of Munster, and the duty was imposed on him of destroying his old foe, the Earl of Desmond. In January, 1580, he advanced into the country of the Fitzgeralds, destroying all before him. It is said that in one year his forces killed 836 malefactors, and 4,000 other people. So relentless was his policy that Munster was a desert when he left it. During the remainder of his life Ormonde continued a firm supporter of the English supremacy.

Ormonde, James Butler, 1st Duke of (*d.* 1688), was the most powerful nobleman in Ireland. In 1641, when the rebellion broke out, he was made lieutenant-general of the king's forces. In consequence of his victory over Lord Mountgarret at Kilrush in April, 1642, he became a marquis. He soon after defeated General Preston, but the position of the king in England being critical, he obeyed the royal orders, and concluded with the rebels the peace called the Cessation. Soon after he was made Lord-Lieutenant, but being unable to hold his own, he honourably chose rather to give up Dublin to the Puritans than to the natives, and surrendered it to Colonel Jones, and in 1647 he concluded a regular treaty with the Parliamentary commissioners. On hearing, however, of Charles I.'s execution, he took out a new commission as Lord-Lieutenant from Charles II., and soon found himself at the head of all the Irish forces, excepting only O'Neil's troops; however, his attempt to besiege Dublin was frustrated by the battle of Rathmines (Aug. 2, 1649), and soon after he left the kingdom. After the battle of Worcester, he remained with Charles II. in his exile. On the Restoration he became Lord Butler and Earl of Brecknock in the English peerage, and in 1661 Duke of Ormonde in Ireland. He was again Lord-Lieutenant from 1661 to 1668, and again from 1677 to 1682. His losses in the king's service were estimated at £900,000. His reputation for loyalty, ability, and integrity stood very high, and he held aloof from the immorality of Charles's court. His latter years were clouded by his fears for James II., and they

probably hastened his end. His eldest son, Lord Ossory, had fallen by the hand of an assassin in 1680. This son was nearly as popular as his father, and had greatly distinguished himself in the Netherlands.

Burnet, *Hist. of his Own Time*; Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion*; Carte, *Life of Ormonde*.

Ormonde, James Butler, 2nd Duke of (*b.* 1665, *d.* 1745), was grandson of the first Duke of Ormonde. On the death of his grandfather, he was elected Chancellor of the University of Oxford. On the arrival of William in England, he deserted James II. in company with Prince George of Denmark, and was present at the coronation of William and Mary. He was present at the battle of the Boyne, at Steinkirk, and at Landen, where he was taken prisoner. In 1696 he voted for the attainder of Fenwick. In 1700 large grants of land were made him by the Commons. On the outbreak of the War of the Spanish Succession, he was sent with an expedition to Cadiz, together with Sir George Rooke. In 1703 the duke became Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, on the resignation of Rochester, and was reappointed in 1710. His policy of favouring the Catholics and opposing the Irish Parliament made him very popular in Ireland. On the dismissal of Marlborough he was appointed to command the troops in Flanders. He was ordered to undertake no offensive operations against the French, in view of the proposed treaty; but he could not refuse to join Eugene in the siege of Quesnoy. On the declaration of an armistice (June, 1712), the English troops were ordered to separate from Eugène. After the accession of George, it was resolved to impeach him for acting in concert with Marshal Villars. He fled to France. Bolingbroke ascribes the ruin of the Pretender's cause in 1715 to the flight of Ormonde and the death of Louis XIV. The duke soon started for the coast of Devonshire, hoping to find that county in a state of rebellion. But his agent had betrayed his plans; and there was every appearance of the most profound peace. On his return he quarrelled with Bolingbroke, and induced James Edward to dismiss him. In 1719, Alberoni, the Spanish minister, fitted out a fleet, with 5,000 soldiers under the command of Ormonde. He was to join it at Corunna as "Captain-General of the King of Spain." But the ships were scattered by storm. He spent the remainder of his life chiefly in retirement at Avignon. In 1740, on the outbreak of war, Ormonde went once more to Madrid, but could gain no promises of help. In 1744 Charles Edward neglected to summon him to join his intended invasion of England, until all chance of success was over for the year. "Ormonde," says Stanhope, "unlike Bolingbroke, having taken his part, steadily adhered to it in evil fortune, and never returned to his native country. He was certainly a man of very amiable temper, and no mean accomplishments; and with no blot on his character unless incapacity and utter want of vigour are to be looked on as such."

Bolingbroke, *Letter to Wyndham*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*

Orsini Question. On Jan. 14, 1858, Felix Orsini and his gang attempted the assassination of the Emperor of the French by means of explosive bombs. As these men came from London, where they had made their preparations, great indignation was excited in France that shelter was afforded to such a crew of ruffians. Count Walewski, Minister of Foreign Affairs, wrote to Count Persigny, French ambassador at London, on the subject with some acrimony, inveighing against the defective laws of England, which allowed the right of asylum to protect such assassins. The French ambassador made representations to the English government, and Lord Palmerston, recognising the justice of the representations, introduced a bill for the punishment of conspiracy to murder. Unfortunately, however, certain French officers had thought fit to give vent to their indignation against England in their congratulations to the Emperor, and entreated him to allow them to "demand an account of the land of iniquity which contains the haunts of the monsters, who are sheltered by its laws." The result was that in spite of Count Walewski's endeavours to remove the bad impression, the spirit of England was roused and Lord Palmerston's measure was regarded as an unworthy concession to the menaces of the French army. It was thrown out on a division, and Lord Palmerston resigned. His successor, Lord Derby, took up a stronger position, and returned a firm answer to Count Walewski's note. A satisfactory reply was received, and the matter terminated in a friendly and honourable manner.

Ashley, *Life of Lord Palmerston*; McCarthy, *Hist. of Our Own Times*.

Orthes, The Battle of (Feb. 27, 1814), was fought at the close of the Peninsular War, and gained one of the strong positions which Soult had taken up in the south of France. Two days before the battle, Beresford forced the passage of the Gave de Pau, below Orthes. On the next day, Soult learnt this, and took up a strong position on a ridge, which was in part covered with woods, and presented a concave front to the allies. The ridge was crossed by the main road from Orthes to Dax, and was protected in front of its centre by some swampy ground, at the further side of which was an old Roman camp, which was occupied on the day of the battle by the light division. Wellington's plan was to turn the French right, while Hill, skirting the French left, should seize the road to St. Sever; thus Soult would have no line of retreat, and would be shut up in Orthes. The

attacks of Roc and Picton on the French right on the morning of the 27th completely failed; but Wellington ordered a concentrated assault to be made on the French left and centre. Wading through the marsh, the troops were not noticed until they drove in the skirmishers, and carried all before them. The confusion soon became general, and the French fell back. Hill meanwhile had forced the ford at Souars, and was now in possession of the Pau road. There was thus open to Soult only a narrow road to Sault de Navailles. Of this he determined to avail himself, and conducted the retreat with such skill and order that the French were able to seize a small ridge, before Hill could occupy it. Wellington, being wounded, was unable to superintend the pursuit himself, which was not carried on so vigorously as it might have been. As it was, however, Soult lost an enormous number of stragglers, many of whom fell into the hands of the allies.

Napier, *Peninsular War;* Clinton, *Peninsular War.*

Osgod Clapa was a Dane in the service of Hardicanute. It was at the marriage of his daughter with Tovi the Proud that Hardicanute died. On the accession of Edward the Confessor he was made *Staller*, or Master of the Horse, but seems to have been suspected of intrigues with Magnus, and was accordingly banished in 1046. Clapham, in London, is supposed to be named from his mansion.

Florence of Worcester, *Chronicle.*

Osred II., King of Northumbria (788—789), was the son of Alred; he succeeded on the murder of Alfwold, but held the kingdom scarcely a year when Ethelred (q.v.) returned, and compelled him to abdicate. He was obliged to assume the tonsure, and subsequently to seek refuge in exile.

Anglo-Saxon Chronicle; Simeon of Durham.

Ostmen, or **Eastmen** (Norse, *Austmathr*), was the name generally applied to the Scandinavian settlers in Ireland. Towards the end of the eighth century the exceptionally disturbed condition of Ireland, where the power of the *ard ri* (over-king) had been reduced to nothing, and sept constantly waged war against sept, invited the Viking rovers to plunder and settle on its coasts. In 795 the first recorded invasion took place. For the next half century the invaders sought plunder only. But about 850 they formed permanent settlements along the whole east coast. Dublin, whose suburb Oxmanstown still preserves the name of the Ostman, Wexford, Waterford—both purely Norse names—Limerick even, in the remotest part of the island, became the centres of Norse jarldoms. With characteristic facility, the new-comers soon mixed with the natives. Besides the pure races—the Dub-gaill, or black foreigners, and Find-gaill or fair foreigners, as various branches of the Norsemen were called—the mixed race of Gall-goidel soon became equally famous as pirates, warriors, and mariners. They constantly spread devastation along the shores of Britain. The Welsh coast, from its proximity, was especially often attacked by them. But they also had close relations with the Norsemen more to the north. A son of a King of Dublin first conquered Orkney; and names like Njal give weight to the theory that Iceland was largely settled by Irish Danes, or at least had constant dealings with them. The Danish kings of Dublin were especially powerful. At last the vigour of the Viking states began to abate. The Ostmen were compelled to acknowledge the overlordship of great English kings, like Edgar. They became too much mixed up with the clan system of the Irish to retain their old characteristics. A great Celtic reaction set in, which culminated in the decisive victory of the famous Brian Boroimhe at the battle of Clontarf in 1014. (*See* Skene, *Celtic Scotland*, i. 386.) The power of the Norseman was broken, though the weakness of the conquerors left Dublin a Danish city until the arrival of Strongbow. Their conversion to Christianity still farther weakened the old Viking prowess. Their bishoprics, connected with Trondhjem in early times, were in striking contrast to the clan system of the Irish Church. The anxiety of these Norse bishops to avoid amalgamation with the latter by acknowledging the supremacy of Canterbury, is strikingly brought out by the relations of Lanfranc with the Archbishop of Dublin. (Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, iv. 529.) At last the remnants of the Ostmen readily assimilated themselves to their kinsfolk the Norman lords and soldiers who conquered the greater part of Ireland in the reign of Henry II. Except for their influence in the place-names of the island, and on the growth of the towns, they left few permanent traces in the later history of Ireland.

Chronicles of the Picts and Scots, edited by Skene; *Wars of the Goidhel and the Gael* (Rolls Series); Dasent, *Burnt Njal;* Worsaæ, *Danes and Norwegians in England, Scotland, and Ireland.* [T. F. T.]

Ostorius Scapula, Roman Governor in Britain (47—51), conducted the successful campaign against Caractacus. The subsequent rising of the Silures taxed his energies, and is said to have occasioned his death.

Oswald, King of Northumbria (634—642), was the son of Ethelfrith. After his father's death, he retired to Scotland, where he remained till the death of his elder brothers gave him the claim to the throne. He defeated Cadwallon at Heavenfield, near Hexham, and obtained the sovereignty both of Bernicia and Deira. He ranks as the sixth

Bretwalda, and is said to have reigned over Angles, Britons, Picts, and Scots. He re-established, with the help of St. Aidan, Christianity in Northumbria, and his virtues receive high praise from Bede. He perished at Maserfield in battle against Penda of Mercia. By his subjects he was regarded as a martyr, and miracles were said to be wrought by his relics.

Bede, *Hist. Eccles.*; *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle.*

Oswestry is a town in Shopshire of considerable antiquity. It derives its name from Oswald, King of Northumbria, 642. The remains of a castle said to date from the Norman Conquest are there, situated on a hill to the west of the town.

Oswy, or **Oswiu,** King of Bernicia (*b.* 612, *d.* 670), was the son of Ethelfrith. On the death of his brother Oswald, he succeeded to Bernicia and the Bretwaldaship, while Deira went to his nephew, Oswine. In 651 Oswy murdered his nephew, but failed to conquer the whole of Deira. During the early part of this reign, Northumbria was exposed to frequent attacks from Penda of Mercia, who was, however, defeated and slain by Oswy in 655. For a short time after this, Oswy ruled over the whole of Mercia, but was eventually compelled by Wulfhere to retire within the boundaries of his own kingdom. Oswy's reign is also important for the union of the Churches in England, the Scottish missionaries being obliged to submit to the authority of the Archbishop of Canterbury. His reign was most prosperous, and his kingdom was greatly enlarged by victories over the Picts.

Bede, *Hist. Eccles.*; *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*; Lappenberg, *Anglo-Saxon Kings.*

Otadeni, or **Ottadeni,** The, were an ancient British tribe occupying the coast from the Tyne to the Firth of Forth, including a large part of Northumberland, with the present counties of Berwick and East Lothian, and part of Roxburghshire.

Otford, The Battle of (773), was fought between Offa and Alric of Kent, and resulted in a victory for the former, and the submission of Kent to Mercia.

Otho, one of the chaplains of Pope Honorius III., was sent over to England as nuncio in 1225, partly to plead for Falkes de Breauté, in which he was unsuccessful, and partly to raise money for the Pope by obtaining a grant of two prebends in each cathedral. This monstrous demand was refused, and in 1226 Otho left England, to return in 1237 with full legatine powers. He now acted with great moderation, arranged some difficulties with Scotland, reformed the Church, and attempted to abolish pluralities. But his rapacity was unbounded, and when he left England in 1241, it was said that he had then drained the country of more money than he had left in it.

Ottawa is the capital of Canada. It was named Bytown, after Colonel By, until 1854, when it was incorporated as a city under its present name. In 1865 it was made the Canadian capital and seat of the legislature. The Parliament Houses are reckoned amongst the finest buildings in America.

Otterburn, The Battle of (Aug. 19, 1388), was fought between an invading force of Scotch troops, headed by the Earls of Douglas and Murray, and an English force, led by the Percies. The Scotch army was divided into two portions, which marched into England by different routes. The smaller division, after being repeatedly threatened by the English, besieged the town of Otterburn, in Northumberland, where they were attacked in an entrenched position by Hotspur with a force of 9,000 men. Although the Scots were numerically far inferior, their victory was decisive; both the Percys (Hotspur and Ralph) were taken prisoners, and about 2,000 of the English were slain. The battle of Otterburn has been commemorated in ballad poetry under the name of Chevy Chase. "The battle of Otterburn," says Mr. Burton, "has this much significance in history, that it marks the fading from the defenders of Scotland of the dread of immediate absolute conquest by England."

Froissart; Burton, *Hist. of Scotland.*

Otterburne, Thomas of (*d. circa* 1421), a Franciscan, wrote a *Chronicle of English History* from the earliest times to the year 1420. This work is of some value for the reigns of Henry IV. and V., and has been published by Hearne.

Oude, at one time a province of the Mogul Empire, became connected with England during the governor-generalship of Warren Hastings, through the Treaty of Benares and the transactions with regard to the Rohillas. The treaty began that defensive alliance which gradually tended to subject the Vizier to the English, and which, in 1801, after various cessions of territory, placed him in an isolated position, surrounded by the English territories, without the necessities of defence. The sovereigns, in consequence, gave themselves up to extravagance, debauchery, and misgovernment, in spite of the repeated protests and threats of the English. Gazee-ud-deen, on his accession in 1814, assumed, by the advice of Lord Hastings, the title of King of Oude, and no longer recognised the authority of the Mogul. In 1856 Lord Dalhousie annexed the country by the order of the Directors, the king becoming a state prisoner.

Oudenarde, The Battle of (July 11,

1708). This was one of the great battles in the War of the Spanish Succession. Finding that the war was becoming unpopular both with the English and Dutch, Marlborough resolved on a decisive blow. The French, numbering 100,000, under the Duke of Burgundy, a prince of the blood, who was jealous of Vendôme, the second in command, were attempting to take Oudenarde, a fortress on the Scheldt. Marlborough, having been joined by Eugène, in command of the allies, amounting to little more than 80,000, advanced towards them, and they promptly raised the siege. Although the French outnumbered the allies, they were under the disastrous disadvantage of being led by commanders with different views; and when, accordingly, the armies met, they were utterly routed. They lost 3,000 men and had 7,000 taken prisoners, besides ten pieces of cannon and 4,000 horses. The allies lost nearly 2,000 men.

Coxe, *Marlborough; Marlborough Despatches;* Stanhope, *Reign of Queen Anne;* Martin, *Hist. de France.*

Oulart, Skirmish at. On May 27, 1798, during the Irish Rebellion, 8,000 insurgents were defeated here. Of some 200 of the North Cork Militia, all but five were killed. Father Murphy led the rebels.

Outlawry, *i.e.*, exclusion from the protection and benefit of the law, has been from very early times the punishment which has attended flight from justice, or refusal to appear before a legal tribunal. In the laws of Edgar it is even enacted that a person refusing obedience to a decision of the hundred, shall, after being fined three times, become an outlaw, unless the king allows him to remain in the land. An outlaw was said to "bear a wolf's head," and therefore to be lawfully slain by any who met him. But as early as the thirteenth century some doubt seems to have been felt as to the expediency of so summary a procedure. Thus Bracton laid it down that though an outlaw might be killed if he defended himself or ran away, so that it was difficult to take him, when once taken his life was in the king's hands, and any one then killing him must answer for it as for any other homicide. Yet Fleta, under Edward II., declares that an outlaw may be killed anywhere with impunity, and the case which Coke refers to, in order to prove that under Edward III. such an act was declared by the judges unlawful, shows really that the old principle was still recognised. But as manners softened, the question ceased to be of practical importance, though the legal doctrine was still doubtful as late as Philip and Mary. The most important consequence of outlawry was the forfeiture of chattels for all cases, with the addition, in cases of treason or murder, of the forfeiture of real property; for other offences, of the profits of land during the outlaw's lifetime. Outlawry in civil cases for refusal to appear in court was abolished by 42 and 43 Victoria. In criminal cases it is practically obsolete, and no longer necessary, since extradition treaties have become general. It may be added that outlawry does not lie against a peer except for treason, felony, or breach of the peace.

Schmid, *Gesetze der Angelsachsen;* Stephen, *Commentaries,* iii. [W. J. A.]

Outram, Sir James (*b.* 1803, *d.* 1863), saw active service in Afghanistan (1838), and subsequently acted as Resident at Hyderabad, Satara, and Lucknow. In 1842 he was appointed commissioner to negotiate with the Ameers of Scinde, in which capacity he differed from Sir C. Napier as to the latter's conduct. In 1856 he became chief commissioner of Oude. His name is inseparably connected with the defence of Lucknow, and he ranks as one of the saviours of India during the Indian Mutiny. In 1856 he commanded during the Persian War, and became in 1858 a baronet, and lieutenant-general.

Kaye, *Sepoy War.*

Overbury, Sir Thomas (*b.* 1581, *d.* 1613), was educated at Queen's College, Oxford, became a student at the Middle Temple, and was knighted in the year 1608. Overbury earned distinction as a poet, traveller, and writer, and became the friend and confidential adviser of Robert Carr. The king became jealous of his influence, and wished to remove him from the court, whilst at the same time his opposition to Rochester's proposed marriage with Lady Essex made Rochester wish to get him out of the way for a time. James offered Overbury a diplomatic post abroad, which Rochester encouraged him to refuse, and the king for this refusal committed Overbury to the Tower (April 21, 1613). Rochester merely wished to keep Overbury quiet. Lady Essex seized the opportunity to get rid of him altogether, and at length succeeded in getting him poisoned (Sept. 15, 1613). On Dec. 20, the same year, took place the marriage of Lord Rochester, now created Earl of Somerset, to the divorced Countess of Essex. Early in 1615 the fact that Overbury had been poisoned came to the knowledge of Sir Ralph Winwood, the king's ambassador in the Low Countries, and was by him revealed to the king. Four of those concerned in the plot were executed, and the earl and countess were tried before the Lord High Steward's court (May, 1616). Both were declared guilty, but pardoned by the king, and, after 1623, released from their confinement in the Tower.

Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng.* (Mr. Gardiner believes Somerset not guilty); Spedding, *Studies in Eng. Hist.;* Amos, *The Great Oyer of Poisoning;* Rimbault, *The Works of Sir Thomas Overbury;* *State Trials.* [C. H. F.]

Overkirk, General (*d.* 1708), was one of the Dutch favourites of William III.,

whose life at the battle of St. Denis he saved. On the accession of William he became Master of the Horse. He took an active share in William's battles in Ireland, and received grants of Irish land. On the outbreak of the War of the Spanish Succession he shared with Opilan the command of the Dutch troops.

Burnet, *Hist. of his Own Time;* Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*

Owen, Robert (1771-1858), first came into notice as managing partner in a cotton mill at New Lanark, near Glasgow, where he instituted a system of profit-sharing among the operatives, together with other excellent institutions of an educational and philanthropic kind. The success of these led him to come forward as a social and economic reformer, from about 1816 onwards. He was one of the earliest promoters of factory legislation, and devised many schemes of social reform, the best known of which are (1) the model communities of a socialistic type founded in America and elsewhere, which however, proved failures; and (2) the system of "labour exchanges" (1832), which was to abolish poverty by enabling every producer to exchange his products without the use of money, their value being expressed in terms of the hours of labour taken up in producing them. His work has, however, borne fruit in Distributive Co-operation, which was suggested by the provision store he started for his workpeople at New Lanark.

Oxford, The City of, is mentioned as the seat of a school or college as early as 802. It was taken by Edward the Elder in 912, and became one of the most important of the West Saxon towns. It was captured by the Danes under Sweyn in 1013, and was several times the seat of the Witenagemot under Canute. It was stormed by William the Conqueror in 1067, and the castle built about 1070. The castle was occupied by the Empress Maud in 1142, and captured by Stephen on her escape. The treaty between Henry II. and Stephen was made at Oxford (Nov. 7, 1153). In 1258 the Mad Parliament met there, and the Provisions of Oxford were drawn up. In the Civil War it was the head-quarters of Charles I. after Oct., 1642. The king established his mint there in 1643, and held a Parliament in 1644.

Oxford, John de Vere, Earl of (*b.* 1409, *d.* 1461), fought in the French wars, and was one of the ambassadors who negotiated peace with France. He was a staunch Lancastrian, and on the accession of Edward IV. he was attainted and beheaded on Tower Hill.

Oxford, John de Vere, Earl of (*d.* 1513), son of the above, was restored to his earldom in 1464, but on the restoration of Henry VI. joined the Lancastrians. After the battle of Barnet he fled to France, and getting together some ships, maintained himself by piracy. He afterwards seized on St. Michael's Mount in Cornwall, where he was besieged for some months. He at last surrendered and was imprisoned at Hamnes, in Picardy. Here he remained till 1484, when he induced the governor of the castle to espouse the cause of Henry of Richmond, whom he accompanied to England, and assisted at Bosworth. He was rewarded by Henry VII., with whom he was in high favour.

Bacon, *Henry VII.*

Oxford, Edward Vere, 17th Earl of (*b.* 1550, *d.* 1604), one of the haughtiest and most overbearing of the nobles of Elizabeth's reign, was one of the commissioners at the trial of Mary Queen of Scots in 1586. He subsequently did good service for England in fitting out, at his own expense, ships for the defence of the country against the proposed Spanish invasion (1588).

Oxford, Provisions of (1258), were the schemes of reorganisation and reform forced on Henry III. by the Mad Parliament of Oxford in 1258. A commission of twenty-four persons was appointed, twelve nominated by the king, and twelve by the barons. By the advice of these commissioners, the king was to draw up means for the reform of the civil administration, the Church, and the royal household. When the Parliament met, the barons brought forward a schedule of grievances which they desired the commissioners to remedy. The Provisions of Oxford themselves supply the machinery by which these grievances might be redressed. The twenty-four commissioners met, and each twelve selected two out of the other twelve, and these four nominated fifteen who were to form a council for advising the king and to hold three annual Parliaments. With them the barons were to negotiate through another committee. There was also another committee of twenty-four, whose business it was to inquire into financial matters; while the original twenty-four were to undertake the reform of the Church. The commissioners drew up the Provisions of Westminster (q.v.), and drove the foreigners out of the country. This government lasted till 1261, when Henry repudiated his oath, and the Pope issued a bull absolving him. [Montfort, Simon de.]

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.* and *Select Charters.*

Oxford, University of. [Universities.]

Oyer and Terminer is the name given to a commission granted by the crown to judges and others, "to hear and to determine" cases of treason felony and trespass. By virtue of this commission, judges deal with criminal cases in the various circuits. The words oyer and terminer are derived from the French *ouïr*, to hear, and *terminer*, to determine.

P

Pacifico, Don, was a Jew, a native of Gibraltar, and consequently a British subject, resident at Athens. In April, 1847, his house was attacked and burnt by the mob. The Hellenic authorities took no steps to prevent the outrage, and refused to indemnify Don Pacifico, who claimed heavy damages. Lord Palmerston demanded instant compensation; and on the refusal of the Greeks to satisfy this claim, or that raised in the case of the *Fantome*, and of Mr. Finlay [Finlay Question], a British fleet was ordered to enter the Piraeus, and seize the shipping there belonging to Greek owners. The Hellenic government appealed to France and Russia. Negotiations took place between the governments of England and France, in the course of which a serious quarrel between the two powers was with difficulty avoided. Finally the claims were settled by arbitration, and Don Pacifico received about one-thirtieth of the sum he demanded. Lord Palmerston's coercive measures towards the Hellenic government formed the subject of animated debates in both Houses of Parliament. In the House of Lords a vote of censure was carried against the government by a majority of thirty-seven. In the Commons, however, a vote of confidence was carried by forty-six, after a remarkably brilliant speech from Lord Palmerston.

Ann. Reg., 1847; *Hansard's Debates*; McCarthy, *Hist. of Our Own Times.*

Paget, William, Lord (*b.* 1505, *d.* 1563). Born of humble parents, he attracted the notice of Bishop Gardiner, and rising rapidly, was knighted, and became one of the secretaries of state in 1543, and in that capacity negotiated peace with France in 1546. He was appointed one of the council of regency by the will of Henry VIII., with the office of chief secretary, and supported Somerset in setting aside that arrangement and assuming the office of Protector. In 1549 Sir William Paget was sent on a mission to the Emperor Charles V., to persuade him to join England in a war with France; and, though unsuccessful, he was on his return raised to the peerage as Lord Paget of Beaudesert. In a statesmanlike letter, written from Germany, he attempted to inspire the wavering councils of the Protector with prudence and vigour in dealing with the rising in the west of England, but to little purpose. The see of Lichfield lost the greater part of its lands in order to furnish him with an estate. On the fall of Somerset, to whom he had been consistently faithful, Paget was thrown into the Tower, and deprived of his appointments (1551), but was pardoned in the following year. On the accession of Mary he became one of her most trusted advisers, and was made Keeper of the Seals. He was throughout in favour of moderation, and had no sympathy with those who wished for the establishment of the Inquisition, and the execution of the Princess Elizabeth. Lord Paget was one of the promoters of the marriage between Mary and Philip of Spain, and was disposed to regard the friendship of Charles V. as highly necessary for England. On the accession of Elizabeth, he resigned the seals; but though he did not enjoy the confidence of the queen, he continued from time to time to give her advice. During the last years of his life, he advocated an alliance with Henry IV. of France in preference to the friendship of Spain.

State Papers during the Reign of Henry VIII. (Record Commission); Strype, *Memorials*, vol. iv.; Hayward, *Life of Edward VI.*

Paget, Thomas, 3rd Lord (*d.* 1590), the second son of Lord Paget of Beaudesert, was a zealous Catholic, and a supporter of Mary Queen of Scots and the Jesuits. He was attainted and compelled to take refuge abroad, on suspicion of being concerned in Throgmorton's plot.

Paine, Thomas (*b.* 1737, *d.* 1809), was the son of a Norfolk staymaker. He lived first at Sandwich and then in London, practising various trades with indifferent success. In 1774 he emigrated to America, where he became editor of the *Pennsylvania Magazine*, and in 1776 published his famous pamphlet, *Common Sense*, which was followed by a periodical called the *Crisis*, written for the purpose of keeping up the flagging spirits of the colonists. Paine was rewarded by Congress by the appointment of Secretary to the Committee of Foreign Affairs, and in 1781 was sent to France in company with Colonel Laurens to negotiate a loan for the United States. He visited France a second time in 1787, and went from thence to England, where, in 1791, he published the *Rights of Man* in reply to Burke's *Reflections on the French Revolution*. The government thereupon resolved to prosecute him for his attack upon the Constitution, and in spite of Erskine's brilliant defence, he was found guilty. Paine had already anticipated his sentence by retiring to France, where he was returned to the National Convention by the electors of Pas-de-Calais. "The foreign benefactor of the species," as Carlyle calls him, voted with the Girondists, and advocated the banishment rather than the execution of the king. His moderation procured for him expulsion as a foreigner from the Convention by the Jacobins, and imprisonment. In 1794, however, he was released on the intercession of the American government, and resumed his seat. The *Age of Reason*, composed during his imprisonment, was a defence of Deism, written in extremely gross taste. Paine returned to

America in 1802, and spent the rest of his life in obscurity.

State Trials, xxii., 357; Cobbett, *Life;* Cholmers, *Life;* Moncure D. Conway, *Life;* Paine's *Works*, edited by Mendum (Boston, 1856). New edition by Conway.

Pains and Penalties, Bills of, are analogous to bills of attainder, from which they differ in the fact that the punishment is never capital, and does not affect the children. [Attainder; Impeachment.]

Pakenham, Sir Edward (*d.* 1815), was a brother-in-law of the Duke of Wellington, and one of his most trusted subordinates. He distinguished himself greatly in the Peninsular War, playing an important part in the victory of Salamanca (1812). During the war with America, which began in 1812 he commanded the expedition sent against New Orleans. The place was vigorously defended by General Jackson, and in the disastrously unsuccessful assault (Jan. 8, 1815) Pakenham lost his life.

Pakington, Sir John (*d.* 1727), was a high Tory, and member for the county of Worcester during the reigns of William III. and Anne. He preferred a complaint against William Lloyd, Bishop of Worcester, and his son, for using their influence in the elections against him, and proved his case, the House censuring their conduct as "unchristian." Sir John Pakington was throughout his life a violent partisan; his speech against the union with Scotland was hooted down because of its ungenerous insinuations, and he was equally headstrong in his opposition to the Occasional Conformity Bill. There does not appear to be the slightest ground for the idea that he was the original of Sir Roger de Coverley. He was the ancestor of Sir John Pakington, created Baron Hampton (*d.* 1880), who held various posts in Lord Derby's ministries, and who, in 1866, disclosed to his constituents the secret of the famous "Ten Minutes' Bill."

Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.;* Wyon, *Hist. of Queen Anne.*

Palatine, Counties, are so called from the fact that their lords had royal rights, equally with the king in his palace (*palatium*). The earl of a county palatine could pardon treasons, murders, and felonies; while all writs were in his name, and offences were said to be committed against his peace, and not against that of the king. Palatine counties originated in the time of William I., who practically created three—Chester, Durham, and Kent—whilst Shropshire had, until the time of Henry I., palatine rights. These counties were selected as being especially liable to attack—Chester and Shropshire from the Welsh Marches, Kent from France, and Durham from Scotland. The disturbed state of the borders rendered it an easy task for an earl, who was as powerful as a sovereign in his own territory, to extend his frontiers at the expense of his enemies. Kent ceased to be a palatine earldom after the death of Odo of Bayeux, whilst Pembrokeshire and Hexhamshire, in Northumberland, were made counties palatine. Henry I granted royal rights over the Isle of Ely to the Bishop of Ely, and in the year 1351 Lancaster was created a palatine earldom. "The palatine earldom of Chester," says Bishop Stubbs, "had its own courts, judges, and staff of officers, constable, steward, and the rest; it had its parliament, consisting of the barons of the county, and was not until 1541 represented in the Parliament of the kingdom." The other counties palatine, with the exception of Lancaster and Chester, which were held by the crown, and of Durham, were assimilated to the rest of the country during the sixteenth century. The palatine jurisdiction of Durham remained with the bishop until 1836, whilst the jurisdiction of the Palatine Courts at Lancaster, with the exception of the Chancery Court, were transferred to the High Court of Justice by the Judicature Act of 1873.

Pale, The. That part of Ireland which was *de facto* subject to English law began to be called the "Pale" in the fifteenth century. It was in earlier times distinguished from Celtic Ireland as "the English land." The Pale was surrounded by a belt of waste marches, beyond which lay the lands of the Irish enemy. From the invasion of Edward Bruce, in 1315, until the Geraldine rebellion in the sixteenth century, the extent of "the English land" steadily diminished. Bruce harried the Pale mercilessly in 1316 and 1317. The small English freeholders were forced to follow the Lord-Deputy in his "hostings." Their abandoned farmsteads were robbed and burnt by English and Irish alike. They fled in great numbers across the seas, in spite of the most strenuous legal prohibitions. The Statute of Kilkenny (1367) openly acknowledges the division of Ireland into a Celtic and an English territory, and attempts to isolate them from each other by decreeing savage penalties against Celtic intruders into the Pale, and English colonists adopting Irish customs. But the law was soon a dead letter. The statute of Edward IV., c. 3, provides, just a century later, for the swearing-in of the Irish inhabitants of the Pale as lieges, and declares that deputies shall be named to accept their oaths "for the multitude that is to be sworn." The Parliament of Drogheda in 1494 ordered the construction of a mound and ditch around the English borders, "in the county of Dublin, from the waters of Auliffy to the mountain in Kildare, from the waters of Auliffy to Trim, and so forth, to Meath and Uriel." These practically continued to be the limits of the Pale until Henry VIII. undertook the conquest of the whole island. Dalkey, Tallaght, Kilcullen, Naas, Kilcock, Sydan, Ardee, Denver,

and Dundalk formed the border in 1515. In 1534 there was "no folk subject to the king's laws, but half the county Uriel, half the county of Meath, half the county of Dublin, half the county of Kildare." In 1537 Justice Luttrell describes the Pale as a "little precinct, not much more than 20 miles in length ne in bredth." Bullied by the crown, "cessed" by the Parliament, subjected by their lords at once to feudal dues and to tribal impositions, plundered by corrupt judges and extortionate deputies, blackmailed by the Irish in time of peace, and harried by both sides in time of war, the dweller in the Pale was probably the most wretched of all the wretched inhabitants of Ireland.

Historical and Municipal Documents of Ireland, 1172—1320 (Record Series); Richey, *Lectures on the History of Ireland*.

Palgrave, Sir Francis (*b.* 1788, *d.* 1861), was called to the bar (1827), and having served on the Record and Municipal Corporation Commissions, was appointed in 1838 Deputy-Keeper of her Majesty's Records. Palgrave wrote largely on historical subjects; his chief work, the *Rise and Progress of the English Commonwealth: Anglo-Saxon Period* (1832), was the fruit of unwearied research and examination into original authorities, and though many of the conclusions have not been accepted by later scholars, and some mistakes in details have been pointed out, it is valuable for its learning and acuteness. He wrote besides a *History of England: Anglo-Saxon Period* (1831); a *History of Normandy and England* (1851—57); and edited for the government the *Calendars and Inventories of the Treasury of the Exchequer*, *Parliamentary Writs*, *Rotuli Curia Regis*, and *Documents Illustrative of the History of Scotland*, besides writing an *Essay on the Original Authority of the King's Council*. Sir Francis was of Jewish parentage, and his name was Cohen, which he changed to Palgrave on his marriage.

Palladius, St., was one of the numerous Christian missionaries who preceded St. Patrick in Ireland. He was consecrated Bishop of Ireland by Pope Celestine I., and despatched by him in 431 to that country. Little is known about his previous history; he is supposed to have been a Briton, and appears to have been sent in the first instance by the British bishops to the Gaulish bishops, and by the latter to the Pope. He landed in Munster, but failed to gain many converts, and departed, having erected there three wooden churches. On his way back to Rome he died, one account representing him as having been martyred by the Scots.

O'Donovan, *Four Masters*; Colgan, *Lives of St. Patrick*.

Palliser, Sir Hugh (*b.* 1723, *d.* 1796), was second in command to Admiral Keppel in a ludicrously abortive action with the French off Ushant in 1778, in which, after several hours' fighting, the rival fleets withdrew without any advantage having been gained on either side. Keppel declared that Palliser was to blame for this failure, mutual recriminations ensued, and the former being a member of the Opposition, the latter a Lord of the Admiralty, their case was made a party question. At length the matter was referred to a court-martial, which, reflecting the unjust tone of popular opinion, triumphantly acquitted Keppel, and when Palliser, feeling that this was a reflection on himself resigned his appointments, and demanded an inquiry, he could only obtain a very qualified sentence of approval.

Hunt, *Life of Palliser*; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*, vol. vi., ch. 58.

Palmer, Sir Thomas (*d.* 1553), was joint commander of the English force which invaded Scotland in 1548, and took Haddington. On the blockade of the town by the French and Scotch he was taken prisoner while escorting a relieving force which re-victualled the exhausted garrison. Palmer's chief notoriety is derived from his betrayal (in 1551) of the Protector Somerset to the Earl of Warwick, to whom he revealed a plot to murder Warwick himself, and others of the Protector's enemies, which, when supplemented by some false additions, led to his death. Palmer was subsequently condemned by a special commission and executed for his share in the treason of Northumberland and Lady Jane Grey.

Palmerston, Henry John Temple, Viscount (*b.* 1784, *d.* 1865), was the eldest son of the second viscount. He succeeded to the title, which was in the Irish peerage, in 1805, and was promptly chosen by the Tory party in the University of Edinburgh to contest the seat, but without success. In 1807, however, he began his parliamentary career as the representative of Newport, and two years later became Secretary at War in the Duke of Portland's administration. This office he held under successive governments until 1828, and aided the Duke of Wellington in his great exploits as far as a rotten military system permitted. Lord Palmerston early attached himself to the more liberal section of the Tories, which was led by Canning and Huskisson, and he followed the latter out of office. He now joined the Whigs, and in 1830 accepted the Secretaryship for Foreign Affairs under Earl Grey, playing an honourable part in the negotiations which led to the independence of Belgium, to the settlement of the Spanish and Portuguese questions, to the European resistance to the designs of Mehemet Ali, which brought him into so much odium in France. Having retired from office with the rest of his colleagues in 1841, he returned with them, and again became Foreign Secretary in 1846. Palmerston's unsympathetic attitude towards the European revolu-

tions of 1848, and the quarrel with Greece about the Don Pacifico affair, caused his foreign policy to be called in question; a vote of censure was passed upon it in the House of Lords, but in the House of Commons an amendment, moved by Mr. Roebuck in favour of the government, was carried by a majority of forty-six, Palmerston making a magnificent speech on the status of British subjects abroad. In 1852 he was dismissed from office by the Queen, acting on the advice of Lord John Russell, for expressing, entirely on his own responsibility, the government's approval of Louis Napoleon's *coup d'état*. In spite of Mr. Disraeli's saying, "There was a Palmerston," he promptly defeated his late leader on the Militia Bill, and having declined office in Lord Derby's stillborn ministry, became Home Secretary in Lord Aberdeen's Coalition cabinet (Dec., 1852). In that capacity he inaugurated the ticket-of-leave system, but he was chiefly employed the while in watching the Eastern question, and urging his colleagues forward to the war with Russia. On the fall of the Aberdeen administration before Mr. Roebuck's vigorous attack, it was felt that he was, as he said, *l'inévitable*, and in Feb., 1855, he became Prime Minister. After the peace a period of languor followed until, in 1857, the government was defeated on Mr. Cobden's motion condemning the measures taken in "the lorcha *Arrow*" affair, when Lord Palmerston appealed to the country, and came back again to power with a larger majority than before. The Indian Mutiny was followed by his bill for the transferrence of the authority of the East Indian Company to the crown. In February, 1858, he was most unexpectedly defeated over the Conspiracy Bill, caused by Orsini's attempt on the life of Napoleon III., but the Conservative administration that supplanted him proved short-lived, and in 1859 he came into power again as First Lord of the Treasury, and continued to hold that office until his death. During his administration the treaty of commerce with France was concluded (1860) through Mr. Cobden's exertions. He was on the side of the North during the American Civil War; in the *Trent* and *Alabama* affairs he displayed some want of wisdom. Then came the Maori War; the Polish insurrection of 1863, during which his distrust of the Emperor of the French compelled him to discountenance the idea of intervention; and the Schleswig-Holstein question, during which he uttered words that were universally interpreted to imply that England would intervene on behalf of Denmark. He was buried in Westminster Abbey, Oct. 27, 1865. Lord Palmerston was essentially a European rather than an English statesman.

* The best life of Lord Palmerston is that of Lord Dalling, the last volume of which is edited by the Hon. Evelyn Ashley.

Pamirs, The, a group of elevated table-lands on the borders of Afghanistan and Turkestan, a portion of which was claimed by Russia in virtue of her conquest of Khokan in 1875, while part was claimed by Afghanistan and part by China. In 1892 a Russian expedition under Colonel Youoff penetrated into the district from Ferghana and came into conflict with an Afghan force at Soma Tash, driving them back with some loss (July 23), and subsequently required two British officers to retire from the territory. The Russian view was stated to be that England might incite the Afghans and Chinese to use the territory as a basis for aggression against Russia. In 1895 a Boundary Commission settled the limits of the British and Russian spheres of influence, the British sphere being assigned to Afghanistan, the western frontier of which was thereby determined from Zulfikar on the Heri Rud to the Pamirs.

Pandulf, Papal legate (*d.* 1226), one of Innocent III.'s ministers, was sent to England in 1213 to make terms with King John. For a little while the king held out, but finding himself deserted by everyone, he consented to Pandulf's terms, and resigned his kingdom to the Pope, receiving it back as a fief of the holy see. Shortly after this Pandulf left England and did not return till 1218, when he was appointed legate in the place of Gualo. In 1218 he was appointed Bishop of Norwich. In 1221 Stephen Langton procured the recall of his commission as legate. Pandulf retired to his diocese of Norwich, where he died.

Papacy, Relations with. The conversion of the south of England by the Roman monk Augustine, who was sent by Pope Gregory I., established a close connection between the Church in England and the Papacy. Gregory I. drew up a scheme for the ecclesiastical organisation of England according to the lines of the provincial organisation of the Roman Empire. There were to be two ecclesiastical provinces—one in the south, and one in the north—and each of the metropolitans was to have twelve suffragan bishops under him. This scheme was never entirely realised. The north of England was converted by Celtic missionaries; but the superior organisation of the Roman Church made it more attractive to many minds. The Northumbrian Wilfrid visited Rome, and returned a staunch adherent to the Roman system. The struggle between the Roman and Celtic Churches disturbed Northumbria, till the Synod of Whitby (664), chiefly owing to Wilfrid's influence, decided in favour of Rome. This decision brought England within the circle of Western civilisation, and made possible her political union. Soon afterwards the death of an Archbishop of Canterbury at the papal court gave Pope

Vitalian an opportunity of nominating Theodore of Tarsus as his successor. It is a striking instance of the cosmopolitan influence of the Roman system that an Eastern monk should rule the English Church. Archbishop Theodore had a rare gift for organisation. He established the framework of the ecclesiastical system pretty much as it remains at present. He made the Church in England strong in religion and learning. England became a centre of missionary activity. In the eighth century English missionaries spread Christianity along the Rhine, and paid back England's debt of gratitude to the papacy by bringing the Frankish Church into closer connection with the holy see. In 787 a sign of England's relationship to Rome was given by Offa, King of Mercia, who, to obtain the Pope's consent to the establishment of a Mercian archbishopric at Lichfield, granted a tribute to the Pope. This payment of a penny from every hearth passed on under the name of Peter's pence, and in later days the traditional sum of £201 9s. was paid for the whole kingdom. Though the papacy was regarded with great respect, its interference was rarely invited in the affairs of the English Church. In the tenth century Dunstan made the intercourse with Rome closer, and the archbishops from that time went to Rome for their palls.

On the whole, it may be said that in Anglo-Saxon times the Church in England was decidedly national, and worked harmoniously with the State. Few matters were referred to the Pope's decision. Even Dunstan rejected a papal sentence, and legates were rarely seen in England. But the events preceding the Norman Conquest tended to bring the papacy into closer relations with English politics. Under Edward the Confessor, a Norman favourite, Robert of Jumièges, was made Archbishop of Canterbury. On Godwin's return from exile, Archbishop Robert fled amongst the other Normans. His place was filled up by the election of Stigand, which Pope Leo IX. refused to recognise, as being uncanonical. Pope Alexander II. favoured the expedition of Duke William of Normandy, and sent him a consecrated banner. The papal approbation lent the Norman Conquest somewhat the appearance of a crusade, and three papal legates were sent afterwards to reform the English Church. Many bishops were deposed, and Norman successors were given to their sees. But neither William I. nor Archbishop Lanfranc had the smallest inclination to surrender any of the rights of their position. The great Pope Gregory VII. sent to demand arrears of Peter's pence, which he considered as a feudal due, and claimed also the performance of homage. William I. answered that he would pay the arrears; as to the homage, he had never promised it, his predecessors had never performed it, and he knew not on what grounds it was claimed. Moreover, William I. reduced to shape the claims of the crown in ecclesiastical matters. He set forth three points: (1) That no Pope should be acknowledged in his realm save after his consent. The reason for this was the frequency of disputed elections to the papacy, and conflicting claims between rivals. (2) No decision of national or provincial synods was to be binding without his consent. (3) No vassal of the crown was to be excommunicated till he had been informed of the offence.

The strong position assumed by William I. was used by William II. as a means of tyranny and extortion. Ecclesiastical fiefs were treated like lay fiefs; bishoprics were kept vacant, and their revenues were seized by the crown. The reign of William II. shows the need which there was for a power like that claimed by Gregory VII. to protect the Church from feudal exactions. A schism, however, weakened the papacy. Archbishop Anselm was attacked by William II. because he wished to receive the pall from Urban II., whom the king had not yet acknowledged as Pope. Finally the pall was sent to England, and was taken by Anselm from the high altar at Canterbury. But Anselm could not stand against the persecution of William II., and fled to the Continent, where the papacy was still powerless to help him. On Henry I.'s accession he returned; but he had learned in his exile the most advanced principles of the Hildebrandine policy, and on his return he raised an objection to the investiture of spiritual persons by a layman. This was practically to assert the entire freedom of the Church from the State. Henry I. would not yield, and Anselm again went into exile. But the king needed the archbishop's help, and in 1107 Pope Paschal II. agreed to a compromise, which ten years afterwards was extended universally. The crown was to receive homage for the temporalities attached to an ecclesiastical office, while the spiritual emblems, the ring and crosier, were to be conferred by spiritual persons. Soon after this, Henry I. used the mediation of Pope Calixtus II. to compose his differences with the French king. Another subject of dispute arose about the presence of papal legates in England. The Pope, as universal visitor of the Church, sent *legati a latere* for special purposes. The English clergy maintained that the Archbishop of Canterbury was permanent representative of the Pope (*legatus natus*) in England, and could not be superseded. Henry I. did not fight this question. In 1125 a papal legate, John of Crema, presided at an important council in London; but the protest against legates was not in vain.

Henry II. procured from the one English Pope, Hadrian IV., a bull conferring on him the sovereignty of Ireland, which was granted on the ground that by the donation of Con-

stantine all islands were vested in the Roman see. But he made no use of this grant till the murder of Archbishop Thomas Becket made it desirable for him to show some zeal in the Pope's service. During the quarrel between Henry II. and Becket, the papacy was not strong enough to interfere with effect. Even after Becket's murder Alexander III. received Henry II.'s excuses, and did not join his enemies. Henry II.'s invasion of Ireland was followed by the Synod of Cashel, in which the Irish Church was reformed in accordance with the Pope's wishes.

The reign of John marks the farthest advance of the papal power in English affairs. Under Innocent III. the papacy reached its highest point, and John's brutal character was no match for the Pope. A disputed election to the see of Canterbury led to an appeal to Rome. There was enough informality to justify Innocent III. in setting aside both the claimants; but he went further, caused a new election to be held in Rome, and nominated Stephen Langton to the suffrages of the monks. John refused to admit Langton, and Innocent III. laid his kingdom under an interdict. John confiscated the goods of the clergy: Pope Innocent III. proceeded to excommunicate, and finally to depose, the king. John's tyranny had alienated his subjects, and the French king was ready to execute the papal sentence. In despair John made abject submission, granted his kingdom to the Pope, and received it back as a fief, by the annual rent of 1,000 marks. As John debased himself the spirit of the English barons rose. Aided by Archbishop Langton they demanded a charter of liberties. Innocent III., to his disgrace, took the side of his vassal, and the Great Charter was a victory won by a united people against the king and the Pope alike. Innocent III. annulled the charter, but died as the struggle was about to commence. John's death quickly followed, and the minority of Henry III. gave time for reflection. The young king was crowned by the legate Gualo, and for a time there was an attempt on the part of the papacy to set up a legatine government in England. Archbishop Langton, by earnest remonstrances, procured the withdrawal of legates, and the confirmation by the Pope of the legatine power of the Archbishop of Canterbury. For two centuries there was no further attempt to interfere by legates in English affairs.

The papacy was soon involved in a desperate struggle against the imperial house of Hohenstaufen, for which it needed large supplies. England was exposed to increasing exactions, and the feeble character of Henry III. made him a willing tool in the hands of the resolute Popes Gregory IX. and Innocent IV. The Pope taxed the English clergy to the extent of a twentieth or a tenth of their annual incomes. They protested at the Council of Lyons (1245), but their remonstrances were not supported by the king. Moreover, the Pope used recklessly his prerogative of provisions, or nominations to vacant benefices, suspending the rights of the patrons. It was said that the incomes thus drawn from England by foreign and non-resident ecclesiastics amounted to 50,000 marks. An association was formed, headed by a knight, Sir Robert Twinge, which took the law into its own hands, harried the papal collectors, and drove them from the kingdom. Innocent IV. offered Henry III. the kingdom of the Two Sicilies for his second son Edmund, and Henry III. did his best to induce England to pay the expenses of the war necessary to gain possession of this disputed heritage. The laity refused to pay; but the clergy suffered from every device which the papal ingenuity could frame. Hence clerical discontent was a strong element in the Barons' War, and the nation generally looked upon the Pope as a foreign intruder.

The great King Edward I. had to face a resolute Pope in Boniface VIII., who aimed at making the papacy the centre of the international relations of Europe. By the bull *Clericis laicos*, Boniface VIII. forbade the taxing of the clergy except by his consent. The Convocation in 1297 pleaded the Pope's prohibition against a heavy demand for money made by the king. Edward I. replied by outlawing those who refused to pay, and the clergy were driven to make composition with the royal officers. Soon afterwards, however, Edward I. was glad to employ Boniface VIII. as arbitrator in an untimely difference between himself and the French king. Boniface VIII., wishing to extend his influence, encouraged the Scots to appeal to him as judge between them and Edward I. Edward, to avoid a personal quarrel with the Pope, laid his letter before Parliament at Lincoln in 1301. The barons replied that the Kings of England had never pleaded, nor been bound to plead, concerning their temporal rights before any judge, ecclesiastical or secular; their subjects would not permit them to do so. Boniface VIII. was engaged in a contest with the French king, which ended in his defeat, and led to the establishment of the papacy at Avignon. The feeble Edward II. was ready to use Pope John XXII. as the means of procuring a truce with Scotland; but the fortunes of war had changed after Bannockburn, and it was now the turn of the Scots to refuse the papal mediation.

The French war under Edward III. increased the English resistance to papal exactions, which under the Avignonese Popes grew heavier and heavier. The Popes at Avignon were on the French side, and England would not see her money carried to her foes. In 1343 the agents of two cardinals who held preferment in England were driven from the land. In 1351 was passed the

Statute of Provisors, which enacted that if the Pope appointed to a benefice, the presentation for that time was to fall to the king, and the papal nominees were liable to imprisonment till they had renounced their claims. To avoid the conflict of jurisdiction between the royal courts and the papal courts, the Statute of Præmunire in 1353 forbade the withdrawal of suits from the king's court to any foreign court. In 1366 Pope Urban V. demanded arrears for the last thirty-three years of the tribute of 1,000 marks which John had agreed to pay to the papacy. The prelates were foremost in giving their opinion that John had no power to bind the nation to another power without its consent. Lords and Commons together resolved that they would resist to the utmost the Pope's claim. Urban V. withdrew in silence, and the papal suzerainty over England was never again revived.

The spirit of resistance to the papacy was expressed in the teaching of Wyclif, who began his career as an ardent supporter of the English Church against the Pope. When he passed into the region of doctrine, Pope Gregory XI. issued bulls ordering his trial; but Wyclif was not personally condemned. The great schism in the papacy led to an increase in papal expenditure and papal exactions, especially under Boniface IX. But the spirit of England and the Statutes of Provisors and Præmunire were strong enough to offer determined resistance. In 1391 Boniface IX. annulled the statutes by a bull, and proceeded to issue provisions which the English courts refused to recognise. Parliament at the same time asserted that they would not recognise the Pope's power of excommunication if it were directed against any who were simply upholding the rights of the crown. At the same time a more stringent statute against provisors was passed. The schism in the papacy greatly diminished the papal power, and led to many efforts to heal it. Ultimately, in the Council of Constance the rival popes were deposed or resigned, and in the vacancy of the papal office there was an opportunity for reforming abuses in the ecclesiastical system. The Emperor Sigismund was desirous of reform, and at first Henry V. of England promised his aid. But the difficulties of harmonious working in the council were so great that Henry V. deserted Sigismund, and joined those who thought that a new election to the papacy was a necessary prelude to reform. Henry Beaufort, Bishop of Winchester, the king's uncle, was called to Constance, to mediate between contending parties. By his good offices arrangements were made for the election which ended in the choice of Martin V. (1418). Martin V. showed his gratitude by raising Henry Beaufort to the dignity of cardinal. It shows the weakness of the government under Henry VI., that Beaufort was allowed to hold this dignity together with his bishopric. Up to this time English bishops had been compelled to resign their sees on accepting the cardinalate. Moreover, Beaufort was nominated papal legate against the Hussites. He raised troops in England, and led an expedition. Archbishop Chicheley was weak and timid. Martin V. ordered him to procure the repeal of the Statute of Præmunire, and when he pleaded his inability, suspended him from his office as legate. In 1428 Chicheley was driven to beg the Commons to repeal the Statute of Præmunire; but weak as was the government, the Commons refused. Martin V. humiliated the English episcopate, but gained nothing for himself.

The next relations of the papacy with England are purely political, arising from the Pope's position in the politics of Italy. In 1496 Henry VII. of England joined the League which was formed by Pope Alexander VI., against the French, in consequence of Charles VIII.'s invasion of Italy. Similarly in 1512, Henry VIII. joined the Holy League which Julius II. formed against France. Julius II. promised to transfer to him the title of "most Christian King," which had hitherto belonged to the French monarch. The transfer was not made, but a few years later Henry VIII. was satisfied with the title of "Defender of the Faith," granted to him by Leo X. in return for a treatise against Martin Luther. Henry VIII.'s great minister, Wolsey, became a cardinal, aspired to the papacy, and entertained projects for a reform of the Church. But Henry VIII.'s desire for a divorce from his wife, Catherine of Aragon, led to a collision with the papacy. Henry demanded that the Pope should annul, or declare to be invalid from the first, the dispensation by virtue of which he had married his brother's widow. Clement VII. temporised, and even endeavoured to procure Catherine's consent. He committed the cause to Wolsey and Campeggio as legates, and then revoked it to his own court. Henry VIII. had gone too far to recede. Wolsey was declared liable to the penalties of Præmunire for having exercised the authority of legate. The clergy were by a legal quibble involved in the same penalty, and only escaped by admitting the royal supremacy. Henry VIII. hoped to intimidate the Pope; but Clement VII. dared not give way. In 1533 the royal supremacy was established by Act of Parliament, and all direct relations with the Court of Rome were suspended. In 1537 Pole was made legate north of the Alps, with a view to influence English affairs; but Henry VIII. proclaimed him a traitor, and Pole was obliged to return from Flanders. Under Mary, in 1554, Pole was received as papal legate in England, and all Acts of Parliament against the Pope's jurisdiction were repealed. Pope Paul IV. was injudicious enough to urge upon Mary and Pole the

impossible work of restoring the possessions of the Church. On Mary's death he showed such an implacable spirit towards Elizabeth that she felt that Anne Boleyn's daughter could not be reconciled to the Roman Church. In 1559 the royal supremacy was restored, and there was never again a question of its abolition. England drifted further and further from the papacy, and in 1571 Pius V. excommunicated Elizabeth.

The marriage of Charles I. to Henrietta Maria renewed to some degree diplomatic intercourse with the Pope. Papal messengers were sent to England, and the queen had a representative at Rome. Charles I. wished to confirm his claims to the allegiance of his Catholic subjects; and his proceedings were viewed by the Puritans with growing displeasure. The talk of union between the Church of England and the Church of Rome was one cause of popular discontent. Under Charles II. and James II. these relations were again renewed, with the result of accentuating more clearly the Protestantism of England by the Act of 1701, which secured the Protestant Succession. From this period relations with the papacy became regulated by the ordinary exigencies of diplomacy. During the Napoleonic war, England took the part of Pius VII., and restored to him the Papal States, of which he had been violently dispossessed. The last act of hostility towards the papacy was the Ecclesiastical Titles Act of 1851, which regarded as papal aggression the appointment of Roman Catholic bishops with territorial designations.

Collier, *Ecclesiastical History*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.*; Dixon, *Hist. of the English Church*; Perry, *Hist. of the Church of England*; Milman, *Latin Christianity*; Creighton, *History of the Papacy during the Period of the Reformation*. [M. C.]

Paper Duties, Repeal of the. In 1860 Mr. Gladstone proposed this step, partly to remove a "tax on knowledge." It was opposed on financial and other grounds, but the Money Bill embodying it passed the Commons and then was rejected in the Lords. The House of Commons then passed resolutions reasserting its own exclusive claim to grant supplies or limit them, and deprecating the Lords' interference, for which, however, it admitted that precedents existed. Next year the repeal was again proposed and the whole of the Budget was included in one Bill, a course which, since the Lords cannot (under a Commons' resolution of 1678) amend money bills, left them the alternative of accepting the repeal or rejecting the whole Budget. So the Lords gave way. This practice of inclusion, for which there were a few precedents, has been regularly followed since. [Parliament.]

Papineau, L. J., was a leader of the French Canadian party of Lower Canada, and one of the chief movers of the petitions to the home government, setting forth the grievances of the National party. He was elected a member for the city of Montreal in 1811, and became Speaker of the assembly. On the outbreak of the riots in 1837, the government attempted to arrest him; but he fled the country, returning on the amnesty in 1847, and sitting in the Canadian Parliament till his death in 1854.

Paris, Matthew (*d. circa* 1259) was a Benedictine monk of the abbey of St. Albans. He was a man of great accomplishments, and is specially notable as an historian. He wrote a work called *Chronica Majora*, which is a continuation of the *History* of Roger of Wendover from the year 1235. He also wrote *Historia Minor*, which extends from 1067 to 1253, and the *Lives of the Abbots of St. Albans*. He is supposed also to have written the abridgment of the *Historia Major* called *Flores Historiarum*, and attributed to Matthew of Westminster. Matthew Paris is the greatest of our mediæval chroniclers, and his works are by far the most important authorities for the first half of the thirteenth century.

An edition of the *Hist. Minor* is published in the Rolls Series. The *Chronica Majora* were first printed in 1571. There is a translation in Bohn's *Antiquarian Library*.

Paris, The Declaration of, 1856. At the Congress of Paris, 1856, four important points of international law were agreed to by the representatives of the powers:—(1) Privateering is and remains abolished. (2) The neutral flag covers even enemies' goods, with the exception of contraband of war. (3) Neutral goods, with the exception of contraband of war, are not liable to capture under an enemy's flag. (4) Blockades in order to be binding must be effective: that is to say, maintained by a force really sufficient to prevent access to the enemy's coast. The concurrence of the government of the United States of America was sought for these resolutions. It was refused to the first, but given to the rest.

——, The Treaty of (Feb., 1763), brought to an end the Seven Years' War between France and England. Separate negotiations had been opened in March, 1761, but had been broken off by Pitt on learning of the Family Compact between France and Spain. Upon this discovery, Pitt resolved on war with Spain, and laid energetic plans for carrying on that war before the Council. Temple alone supported him; and finding that he could not lead, he resigned in October. In November the treaty was concluded by the Duke of Bedford, English Ambassador at Paris. As to Spain, each nation was to observe the same limits as before the war began, Spain conceding all the points on which she had based her declaration of war. Between France and England both nations

agreed to take no further part in the war in Germany; and the French were to restore all territories held by them in Hesse and Hanover. Minorca was to be given by them in exchange for Belleisle. America passed wholly to England; but the French were to retain their rights of fishing off Newfoundland. In the West Indies, England retained Tobago, Dominica, St. Vincent, and Grenada; but restored Guadaloupe, Martinique and St. Lucia. In Africa France gave up Senegal, but recovered Goree. In India, she agreed to have no military establishment; and on this condition the French were allowed to resume the factories which they had held before the war. Before the peace was finally concluded, news came of the capture of Havannah; and the English cabinet insisted on some equivalent being given, if England was to cede this, her most recent conquest. Florida was accordingly given up by France.

Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; Thackeray, *Life of Chatham*; Koch and Schoell, *Traités de Paix.*

——, The Treaty of (May, 1814), was concluded by the allies soon after the abdication of Napoleon, and his despatch to Elba. Its terms were very moderate, when considered by the side of the terrible havoc inflicted on the Continent during nearly twenty years by the French armies. The frontier of 1790 was to be generally restored; but on the north, and towards the Rhine, it was to be advanced, so as to include several strong fortresses, while towards the Alps a considerable part of Savoy was included within the French border. England and Austria refused to make France pay any contribution towards the expenses incurred by the war. The only real advantage gained by England was the surrender of the Isle of France, in order to secure the route to India, while it retained Malta for the same object.

——, The Treaty of (Nov. 20, 1815), was concluded on the close of Napoleon's final campaign in Flanders. It rigorously insisted on confining France to its old boundary of 1790, and deprived it of the additions, which the treaty of the previous year had allowed to it. A large contribution towards the war expenses was levied upon it, to the amount of 700,000,000 francs, which was all to be paid in five years. As a security for the payment of this large indemnity, and for the future tranquillity of the country, it was stipulated that the northern fortresses should be held for five years by the troops of the allies.

Alison, *Hist. of Europe*; *Londonderry Correspondence*; Stapleton, *Life of Canning.*

——, The Treaty of (Feb., 1856), came at the close of the Crimean War. In the beginning of the year 1856 the plenipotentiaries of the great powers assembled at Paris. Four articles were brought forward as the basis of a peace. They were eventually accepted in a slightly amended form by the Czar. The first redressed the Moldavian frontier, so as to render it more easily defensible against Russian invasion. The second took from Russia all control over the mouths of the Danube, appointing first a commission of the great powers to arrange preliminaries, and secondly a permanent commission from Austria, Turkey, Bavaria, Wurtemburg, and the three Danubian provinces to draw up rules, establish a police, and superintend navigation. The third proposed that no fleet, and no naval station of any country, should be permitted in the Black Sea, but that Russia and Turkey should be empowered to make a convention to keep up a small light-armed force for police and coast service; on the other hand merchant ships of all classes were to be allowed freely to enter it.

Hertslet, *Map of Europe by Treaty.*

——, The Treaty of (March 3, 1857), was concluded between England on the one hand and Persia on the other. By it Persia renounced all claim or dominion over Herat and Afghanistan, and engaged to refer any future differences she might have with the Afghan States to the friendly offices of the British government. The slave trade in the Persian Gulf was also by this treaty abolished.

Parish is derived from the Greek παροικία, and means primarily the district assigned to a particular church. In early times the bishoprics were small and the spiritual care of each town or district was in the hands of the bishop, but with the spread of Christianity and the development of the importance of the episcopate, it became usual to assign special districts within the diocese to the care of a single presbyter under the bishop's supervision. By the ninth or tenth century at latest this parochial system became universal, but it had been gradually growing up long before that time. In England the original missionaries were monks, who were organised together by their dependence on the bishop, but it soon became an evidence of piety for the lord of a district to build and endow a church on it, in return for which he seems to have acquired the right of nominating the minister, who gradually obtained the disposal of the tithe, which originally had been administered by the bishop. Archbishop Theodore of Tarsus gave the first impulse towards the development of the parochial system in England, and Bede urged strongly on Archbishop Egbert the importance of the work. Ultimately the whole of England, with insignificant exceptions, was divided into parishes, which were usually, though not necessarily, conterminous with the township or manor, though in many cases the township was too small to require a priest and church of its own,

so that some parishes contain several townships, and sometimes the boundaries of parishes and townships even overlap. Still, as a whole, the parish became little more than the township in its ecclesiastical aspect, and as the old English local system became obsolete, the parish encroached, so to say, upon the township. In modern times the parish suggests civil quite as much as ecclesiastical jurisdiction. The parish has become for many purposes the unit of *local* government. The parish vestry, originally an ecclesiastical assembly of all the inhabitants, became a civil court that acquired some of the slender functions of the townshipmoot; the churchwardens and overseers, its officers, became in a sense civil as well as ecclesiastical officers, though the Local Government Act of 1894 [Local Government Acts] deprived churchwardens of their civil functions. One of the churchwardens is elected by the ratepayers at the Easter vestry meeting.

Besides civil parishes, as old parishes are called, the Church Building Act of 1818 permitted the establishment of new ecclesiastical parishes or districts, which, independent in ecclesiastical matters, remained for civil purposes part of the mother parish.

Hatch, *Organisation of the Early Christian Churches*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Blackstone, *Commentaries*; Burn, *Parish Law*; Cobden Club *Essays on Local Government of England*.

[T. F. T.]

Parisi, The, were an ancient Celtic tribe occupying the south-eastern portion of the present county of York.

Parker, Matthew (*b.* 1504, *d.* 1575), Archbishop of Canterbury, was born at Norwich and educated at Cambridge, where he attained great celebrity as a scholar and a theologian. He became famous as a preacher, and was appointed Chaplain to Henry VIII., and in 1552 Dean of Lincoln, but having distinguished himself by his zealous advocacy of the Reformation, narrowly escaped martyrdom during the Marian persecution. His sound judgment caused him to be singled out by Elizabeth on her accession for the primacy, which he accepted much against his will, being consecrated at Lambeth by Barlow, Bishop of Chichester; Hodgkins, suffragan Bishop of Bedford; Miles Coverdale, late Bishop of Exeter; and John Scory, Bishop of Hereford (Dec. 17, 1559). From this time the history of Archbishop Parker is that of the Church of England. On several occasions the archbishop found himself brought into collision with Elizabeth, especially on the subject of the marriage of the clergy, which he favoured. He took an important part in the translation of the Bishops' Bible (1563 — 68), and in his revision of the Thirty-nine Articles showed much good sense. Parker was the author of the famous *Advertisements of Queen Elizabeth*, which formed a book of discipline for the clergy, and the enforcement of which has earned for their author the obloquy of the Puritanical party and the reproach of having been a persecutor. In 1575 the archbishop died, having during the whole tenure of his office followed the consistent policy of maintaining ecclesiastical affairs as they had been left by Edward VI. In theology he was Calvinistic, but in matters of ecclesiastical government he was altogether opposed both to the Catholics and the Puritans, and anxious, with due prudence and circumspection, to obtain uniformity in the English Church. Parker was a student of English antiquities and early history. He wrote a work, *De Antiquitate Britannicæ Ecclesiæ* (1572), and edited Matthew Paris in 1571.

Strype, *Memorials*; Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops*. Parker's *Works* have been published by the Parker Society, established 1840.

Parker, Samuel (*b.* 1640, *d.* 1688), Bishop of Oxford, was the son of one of the Barons of the Exchequer. At the Restoration he forsook the Puritan party, to which he had belonged, and made himself conspicuous by his bitter attacks on them. He was consecrated Bishop of Oxford in 1685, and next year was forcibly intruded into the office of President of Magdalen College. He died shortly after this, leaving the reputation of a voluminous and acute writer, and a dishonest man. He left an historical work, *De Rebus sui Temporis*, published in 1727.

Parker, Sir Hyde (*b.* 1739, *d.* 1807), entered the navy at an early age, and was made a post-captain in 1763. He distinguished himself during the American War, and captured Savannah in 1778. He took part in the relief of Gibraltar in 1782, and the operations before Toulon in 1794. In 1801 he was appointed to the chief command of the expedition to Copenhagen, with Nelson as his second. The actual command of the fleet which was in action at the battle of Copenhagen was taken by the latter.

Parkhurst, John (*b.* 1512, *d.* 1575), Bishop of Norwich, the tutor of Bishop Jewel, was one of the most earnest of the Reformers of Edward VI.'s reign, and was in consequence obliged to take refuge at Zürich during the Marian persecution. On the accession of Elizabeth he returned to England and became Bishop of Norwich. Bishop Parkhurst was a supporter of the Nonconformists, and a vehement opposer of persecution.

Wood, *Lives*; Wordsworth, *Eccles. Biog.*

Parkyns, Sir William (*d.* 1696), was a lawyer and a Jacobite conspirator, chiefly notorious from his share in the Assassination Plot. He had been one of the most violent opponents of the Exclusion Bill, and had supported James II. to the last. After the Revolution, however, he swore allegiance to

William. He did not take a very active share in the Assassination Plot (1696), owing to the infirmities of age. His chief duty was to provide arms for the conspirators. Large quantities were seized at his house on the detection of the plot. He was tried and condemned to death (March 24). A committee of the Commons went to interrogate him at Newgate, but he refused to betray his accomplices. He died, "not only without a word indicating remorse, but with something which resembled exultation."

Parliament. The fundamental notion that has always upheld the office and action of Parliament in the constitution, and has been professedly the guiding principle of all dealings with it on the part of the crown, is that it is the realm of England in little, embracing in its conception all the separate parts which united make the conception of the great English nation. Every capacity, every political virtue inherent in the whole nation, is inherent in it. The history of the institution, taken apart from its origin, begins with Nov. 27, 1295. On that day the first assembly whose parliamentary character is uncontroverted met at Westminster; but the word *Parliament*—which translates *colloquium*, means a *talking*, and came to us from Italy—had been already in frequent use; it was given, for instance, to the peculiarly constituted meetings that the Provisions of Oxford determined should be held three times a year. Its earliest recorded application to a national assembly is found under the year 1246, and even after 1295 mere councils were now and then called by the name. Parliament, in the words of Bishop Stubbs, is "the concentration of all the constituents of the shiremoots in a central assembly. They contained in their ultimate form the great folk, clerical and lay, the freeholders, and representatives of the townships and municipalities of the several shires. Parliament contains practically the same component parts of the nation, and the kinship of the humbler with the grander institution is seen in the use for centuries of the sheriffs and county courts (q.v.) in Parliamentary elections. Through the sheriffs the whole electoral machinery was set in motion: at the county courts the elections of knights of the shire was made, and to them those of citizens and burgesses were reported. The county court, too, had long been the chief depository of the principle of representation; when the need arose its merit as a model for the great representative body could hardly be missed. But the historic Parliament is something more than the express essence of all the county courts in the kingdom; it is an assembly that is an image of the people, not as an undivided whole, but as split up into separate interests. It is "not only a concentration of machinery, but an assembly of estates." The clergy, the baronage, and the commons had all to be in it, united yet distinct, to make it a full Parliament. Now the higher clergy and the baronage had always been in the national council; the lower clergy and the commons had only to be added, and the work would be done. The process of adding those took some time, and but for the strong motive that kept driving on the king to its accomplishment, might have taken much longer. Personal property or "movables" had become subject to taxation; the methods of getting the necessary consents, expressed or constructive, which the pre-Parliamentary *régime* obliged the king to resort to, were complicated and tedious, and the need of a simple and swifter method was strongly felt. Accordingly we find several assemblies before 1295 which contained one or more of the Parliamentary elements that were still wanting, but which still lacked something to make them perfect. In 1213 two such were summoned, one with chosen men of the towns in it, to St. Albans; the other, with chosen men of the shires in it, to Oxford. In 1254 the sheriffs were directed to see that their several shires returned two knights each to settle what aid they were willing to give the king. During the years that follow similar instances are found; but in none were citizens and burgesses combined with knights of the shire till the meeting in Jan., 1265, of the renowned Parliament called at the instance of Simon de Montfort. This contained 117 dignified churchmen, 23 lay nobles, two men summoned from each shire through the sheriff, and two men summoned from each city and borough, but not through the sheriff. This, however, "was not primarily and essentially a constitutional assembly. It was not a general convention of the tenants-in-chief, or of the three estates, but a Parliamentary assembly of the supporters of the existing government." Consequently Bishop Stubbs refuses to see in it the first Parliament of the modern type. During the next thirty years there was no lack of assemblies that got the name of Parliaments, in which the commonalty is recorded to have been present. Under 1282 we read even of provincial Parliaments, one at York and one at Northampton, both representative of the lower clergy and lay commons—which, however, sat apart from each other—but without the lay nobility. A general tax was their object, in which fact we have a proof of the close connection between taxation and the birth of representative government. A Parliamentary gathering at Acton Burnell in 1283 is a good example of those unfinished Parliaments. It contained no clergy, and representatives of only twenty-one cities and boroughs; and its business was to see David of Wales tried for his life. Others, equally imperfect, succeed. At last the troubles that crowded in upon Edward I. in 1295 persuaded him to throw himself upon his whole people. In October he issued writs for an assembly, which should be a complete

image of the nation. On Nov. 27 this assembly met, and in it historians discern all the component parts and type of a finished Parliament. It was composed of 97 bishops, abbots and priors, 65 earls and barons, 39 judges and others, representatives of the lower clergy, summoned through their diocesans, and representatives of the counties, cities, and boroughs summoned through the sheriff. Every section of the population that had political rights was in it, in person or by proxy.

This fully developed Parliament did not at once fall into the exercise of all the powers belonging to the body of which it was the expansion. One of them, indeed, the judicial, it has taken care never to assume. Taxation was at first the sole business that all its parts had in common, but time and circumstance soon brought rights and privileges. By slow degrees legislation and general political deliberations came to be classed among its powers. All its parts, however, did not advance towards these with equal speed; those which have since far outstripped the others moved but timidly at first. For a time, also, the several parts held aloof from one another, and even when the pairing process began, the tendency was towards the combination of the barons and knights of the shire into one body, the citizens and burgesses into another, while the clergy made a third. But this did not go far; within little more than a generation the clerical and lay baronages had coalesced into the joint estate of the lords spiritual and temporal, and all the lay representatives into the estate of the commons; and within little more than fifty years the lower clergy, preferring to tax themselves in Convocation, had fallen away altogether. From this time Parliament grew steadily in importance, and in a few generations was firmly rooted in the constitution. It had become indispensable to the legal transaction of the greater affairs of state. During medieval times it was, except at rare and brief intervals, convoked often and regularly, and not seldom to provincial towns; its influence was felt in every department of government; it occasionally curbed the king's will; its members had become privileged, and a system of rules—a whole code of laws, in fact—had grown up to guide its conduct and prescribe its procedure. From the time of Edward III. it is undoubted that no tax could be levied, and (in secular matters at least) no law be made that had not originated in and been sanctioned by Parliament. Throughout the Tudor period it kept all its powers unimpaired, though in exercising them it was moved by special causes to submit for a time to the dictation of the crown. In Elizabeth's days it began to recover its independence, and under the early Stuarts it entered upon a course of action which developed into a struggle for supremacy in the state. This it pursued so doggedly that it measured its strength with the crown and overthrew it, but only to be itself overthrown by one of its own soldiers. Restored with the monarchy, it again drifted into a less violent conflict with its former antagonist, and at the Revolution it secured its supremacy; and it has since become the one all-important political power.

The powers and exemptions, known as Privilege of Parliament, which both Houses enjoy in common, are of two kinds—those that belong to the Houses in their corporate capacity, and those that belong to individual members. Of the former the most vital are freedom of speech, liberty of access to the presence of the sovereign, that the sovereign should not notice anything said or done in Parliament, save on the report of the House, and the power of committing for contempt. Of the latter class the most valuable is exemption of members from arrest when going to, attending, or returning from Parliament, except on a charge of treason or felony, or a refusal to give surety of the peace. Once these privileges were far more extensive. But legislation has removed the area of their personal privilege to the one immunity given above.

Stubbs, *Select Charters* and *Const. Hist.*; May, *Practical Treatise*; Parry, *Parliaments and Councils*; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*

Parliamentary Trains. [RAILWAYS.]

Parnell, CHARLES STEWART (*b.* 1846, *d.* 1891), was born at Avondale, co. Wicklow. Elected for co. Meath in 1875, he entered upon a policy of Parliamentary obstruction, and a few years later was accepted as the leader of the Home Rule party. In 1878 he succeeded in uniting all the Irish parties hostile to English rule, including the Fenians, in favour of constitutional methods of agitation. In Oct., 1881, after an abortive prosecution in the spring, he was imprisoned under the Crimes Act, 1881, in Kilmainham Gaol because of his attempt to interfere with the operation of the Irish Land Act of 1881. He had been President of the suppressed Land League; he was elected President of the National League, which succeeded it. In May, 1882, he was released, the Ministry contemplating a conciliatory policy, which, however, was checked by the Phœnix Park murders. [IRELAND.] In 1885, in view of the renewal of the Crimes Act of 1882, he definitely broke with the Liberals, and negotiated with Lord Carnarvon (q.v.). In 1886 Mr. Gladstone and the Liberals adopted the Home Rule policy. In 1890 he was mulct in costs as co-respondent in the O'Shea divorce case, and the majority of his party elected Mr. Justin McCarthy as leader in his place.

Parnell Commission, THE. On April 18, 1887, the *Times* published in facsimile a letter purporting to have been written by Mr. Parnell in 1882, and extenuating the

Phœnix Park murders [IRELAND]. An attempt to obtain an inquiry broke down in the House of Commons, and the subject was only revived in July, 1888, by an action for libel against the *Times* brought by Mr. F. H. O'Donnell, a Nationalist M.P., in which the defendants pleaded justification and published other similar letters. A Special Commission of three judges was then appointed to inquire into the charges made against sixty-four Irish Members of Parliament and Mr. Michael Davitt. Features of the case were the evidences of Irish outrages; the testimony of the spy, Major Le Caron; the breakdown in cross-examination of Richard Pigott, a Nationalist journalist who had supplied the alleged letters to the *Times*, and his confession, flight, and suicide at Madrid; Mr. Parnell's evidence and the retirement of his counsel from the case after the judges refused to order the production of the books of a Unionist society alleged to have subsidised Pigott. The Commission reported on Feb. 13, 1890, acquitting Mr. Parnell of complicity with or sympathy for the Phœnix Park murders, and the defendants generally of organising outrages; but declaring them guilty of counselling intimidation and of extenuating agrarian crime.

Parry, DR. WILLIAM (*d.* 1585), was a Welshman employed by Burleigh to reside abroad, and to act as a spy on the English exiles. On his return home, he had frequent interviews with the queen, disclosing various designs on her life. In 1584, having violently opposed in Parliament the Act against the Jesuits, he was expelled from the House, and imprisoned for a short time, but released by the queen's orders. He was shortly afterwards denounced as having formed a scheme to assassinate the queen, and was executed for treason at Tyburn.

Parsons, ROBERT (*b.* 1546, *d.* 1610), was educated at Oxford, where he became a fellow of Balliol. Being compelled to quit England on a charge of embezzling the college money, Parsons went to Rome, and joined the Jesuits. In June, 1580, he visited England in company with Edmund Campian. A very severe statute against those who harboured or concealed Jesuits was passed by Parliament (Jan., 1581). So active was the search after the two missionaries, that Parsons was compelled to return to the Continent. He then went to Scotland for the purpose of undermining the English influence there; and in 1582 met the Duke of Guise at Paris, where he arranged the plan associating Mary and James in the government of Scotland, and went to Spain to procure assistance from Philip. His schemes were, however, frustrated by the prompt measures of Elizabeth's ministers, and by the Raid of Ruthven (q.v.). In 1594 he published, under the name of Doleman, his famous *Conference about the Succession to the Crown of England*, dedicated to Essex, in which he set forth the claims of the Infanta.

Partition Treaties were an attempt to settle from outside the complex question of the Spanish Succession on the death of the king, Charles II. (1) (Oct. 11, 1698.) It was proposed to confer the greater part of the Spanish dominions on the least powerful of the candidates, the Electoral Prince of Bavaria. The first overtures were made by Louis XIV., and in consequence, Marshal Tallard was sent to London in April, and the first rough form of the division was broached. In August Louis, still hoping to secure the whole of the Spanish dominions for one of his grandsons, was inclined to break off the negotiations, but was dissuaded by Tallard. The departure of William for Holland, where it was feared that he might form a union with the emperor, the Elector of Bavaria, and the chief Protestant princes against France, caused Louis to wish for a definite settlement. By the Treaty of Loo, as it is sometimes called, signed by the representatives of England, France, and Holland, France consented to resign all claims on Spain, the Indies, and the Netherlands in favour of the electoral prince. The dauphin was to have the province of Guipuscoa, with Naples, Sicily, and some small Italian islands, which were part of the Spanish monarchy. The Milanese was allotted to the Archduke Charles. As the electoral prince was still a child, it was agreed that his father, who was then Viceroy of the Spanish Netherlands, should be Regent of Spain during the minority. Unfortunately, the electoral prince was carried off by small-pox (Feb., 1699), and no arrangement had been made for the case of his dying before succeeding to the throne. (2) (Oct. 11, 1700), was another attempt to settle the Spanish Succession, again unsettled by the death of the Electoral Prince of Bavaria. This time, the Archduke Charles of Austria was to be king of the greater part of the Spanish dominions. France was to receive Guipuscoa, in the north of Spain, and the two Sicilies, together with Milan, which was to be exchanged for the Duchy of Lorraine. Spain, the Indies, and the Netherlands were to pass to the Archduke Charles. It was evident that Louis was insincere. Soon the Spanish minister, Portocarrero, and the French diplomatist, Harcourt, induced the dying King of Spain to make a new will declaring the Duke of Anjou, a son of the dauphin, heir to the whole of his dominions. The treaty was unpopular in England. In November the King of Spain died, and Louis, with complete disregard of treaties, accepted the Spanish inheritance for his grandson. The Tory House of Commons proceeded to impeach Portland, Oxford, Somers, and Montague for their share in the treaties; but this

resentment proved abortive, although in March, 1701, both treaties were severely censured.

Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Martin, *Hist. de France*; Mahon, *War of Spanish Succession.*

Passaro, The Battle of Cape (Aug. 11, 1718), resulted in the destruction of the Spanish fleet. Admiral Byng encountered the Spanish Admiral, Castañeta, off Cape Passaro. The first shot was fired by some detached Spanish ships, and a general engagement ensued. Castañeta continued to cheer on his men, though wounded in both legs.

Paston Letters, The, are a series of letters written by and to the members of the family of Paston, of Norfolk, from 1424 to 1506. Besides the letters, which are from and to many of the most illustrious persons of the time, a considerable number of public documents of great importance are preserved in the Paston archives. The importance of this series of family documents cannot be overrated. Besides throwing much light on family affairs, they present a complete picture of English family life in the fifteenth century. A portion of them were published by Sir John Fenn in 1787, but by far the best edition is that of Mr. J. Gairdner.

Patay, The Battle of (May 18, 1429), was fought after the raising of the siege of Orleans. The English army retired towards Beaugency, but this important town was captured by the French, and a pitched battle was fought at Patay, between Orleans and Bretigny, in which the English were defeated with a loss of 2,000 men.

Patent Rolls, The, contain aceounts of all grants of offices, honours, and pensions, and particulars of individual and corporate privileges. The term patent was given to these rolls because they were delivered open, with the great seal affixed, and were supposed to be of a public nature and addressed to all the king's subjects. A Calendar to some of the Patent Rolls has been printed by the Record Commission.

Patrick, St. [St. Patrick.]

Paulet, Sir Amyas, after being for some time the English ambassador at Paris, was created Governor of Jersey, and in 1585, owing to his stern Puritanism, was chosen to guard the Queen of Scots at Tutbury. He was insensible alike to Mary's charms and to her endeavours to win him over to her side. He was subsequently a commissioner at Mary's trial, and was present at her execution.

Pauli, Reinhold (*b.* 1823, *d.* 1882), was the son of a pastor of Berlin. After passing the greater part of his boyhood at Bremen, he entered upon the study of history under Ranke at Berlin, and of classical philology at Bonn. His first work, a *Life of Alfred the Great*, appeared in 1850, and immediately gave him a great reputation, so that Lappenberg entrusted to him the continuation of his own *History of England*, for the Heeren and Ukert series. Among his more important works were his *Pictures of Old England* (1860), *Simon de Montfort, Creator of the House of Commons* (1867), and his *Geschichte von England seit* 1815 (1864–75).

Frensdorff, *Reinhold Pauli; Rede gehalten in der Offentlich; Sitzung der K. Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften*, Göttingen (1882).

Paulinus was one of the missionaries who came to reinforce Augustine in 601. Through his instrumentality, Edwin of Northumbria was brought to Christianity in 626, and the Christian religion was established in Northumbria. The death of Edwin in 633, and the ravages of Penda, compelled Paulinus to quit the kingdom and seek refuge in Canterbury. The see of Rochester being vacant, he was appointed to it, and held it until his death in 644.

Bede, *Hist. Eccles.*; Bright, *Early Eng. Ch. Hist.*

Peace Preservation Act (Ireland). On March 17, 1870, this Act was introduced by Mr. Chichester Fortescue, in order to prevent outrages in Mayo, chiefly directed against cattle. By this Act the use of firearms without a licence was forbidden, under heavy penalties, in any proclaimed district. The grand jury was also empowered to levy a cess on districts where outrages had been committed to compensate the victims. Domiciliary visits were authorised, and persons loitering about at night might be seized by the police. In 1875 Sir Michael Hicks-Beach asked for a continuance of this Act, making it, however, less stringent. The Irish members in vain opposed it. The Act was allowed to expire by Mr. Gladstone's government in 1880. [Meeting, Right of Public.]

Peada, King of Mercia 655–656, was the son and successor of Penda. He was only allowed by Oswy of Northumbria, his father-in-law, to hold the southern portion of Mercia. His reign is important as seeing the introduction of Christianity into Mercia.

Peckham, John, Archbishop of Canterbury 1279—1292, was Provincial of the Franciscans, and on the resignation of Kilwardby, was appointed to the archbishopric. As a friar, at a time when the friars had not lost their missionary spirit, Peckham looked upon himself as the agent of the Pope to England, and had little sympathy with the national feelings. The greater part of his pontificate was occupied in disputes with the king, with the Archbishop of York, or with the monks of Canterbury. Of his policy Dean Hook says: "It is clear that he was not on the patriotic or national side in

politics, although the peaceful and prosperous state of the country did not render it necessary for him to declare himself."

Trivet; Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops.*

Pecock, Reginald, said to have been born in Wales, was elected in 1417 fellow of Oriel College, ordained priest four years later, appointed in 1431 Master of Whittington College in London, and became in 1444 Bishop of St. Asaph, and Doctor of Divinity. In 1450, on the murder of Bishop Moleyns, he was translated to the see of Chichester. Pecock distinguished himself by the originality of the views he expressed. His great work, the *Repressor of Overmuch Blaming of the Clergy*, was directed against the errors of the Lollards, and vindicated the usages of the Church. For this and other works upholding reason and Scripture against tradition, he was attacked in the council held at Westminster in 1457, cited before the Archbishop of Canterbury, his works examined by twenty-four doctors, and he himself finally condemned as a heretic. Under this pressure he abjured the heretical positions charged against him, and made a public recantation at Paul's Cross (Dec. 4, 1457). He was deprived of his bishopric, and though he appealed to Rome and procured bulls ordering that it should be restored to him, he was unable to recover it. He spent the rest of his life in compulsory seclusion in the Abbey of Thorney, in Cambridgeshire.

The Repressor, edited by Churchill Babington (Rolls Series); Gairdner, *Studies in Eng. Hist.*

Pecquigny, The Treaty of (1475), was made between Edward IV. and Louis XI. of France. The English invaded France in 1475, Edward IV. having made an alliance with Charles of Burgundy, but directly the English set foot in France, Louis offered to treat for peace, and eventually the treaty of Pecquigny was made on these terms:—1. Edward to return to England on the payment of 75,000 crowns. 2. A truce to be kept for seven years. 3. The Kings of England and France to assist each other against foreign enemies or rebellious subjects. 4. Prince Charles, son of Louis XI., to marry the Princess Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV. 5. The King of France to pay annually to the King of England the sum of 50,000 crowns.

Peel, Sir Robert (*b.* Feb. 5, 1788, *d.* July 2, 1850), was the son of Sir Robert Peel, an enormously wealthy Lancashire cotton manufacturer. Educated at Harrow and Christ Church, Oxford, Peel, after a very brilliant university career, entered Parliament for Cashel in 1809, as a supporter of Mr. Perceval. In 1810 he was Under-Secretary for the War Department; in 1812–1818 Chief Secretary for Ireland under Lord Liverpool. In 1817 he was returned as member for Oxford University, and in 1819 he was chosen chairman of the committee on the currency, in which capacity he was mainly instrumental in bringing about the return to cash payments. From 1822 to 1827 Peel was Home Secretary; but on the accession of Canning (April, 1827), he retired, being unable to agree with that minister on the subject of Catholic Emancipation. In 1828 he returned under the Duke of Wellington; and in March, 1829, having become convinced of the necessity of granting the demands of the Catholics, he moved the Catholic Relief Bill in the Commons. In May, 1830, Peel succeeded to the baronetcy, and, having been rejected in 1829 by the University of Oxford and become member for Westbury, was now elected for Tamworth. During the discussion on the Reform Bill, Peel, who resigned with his colleagues (Nov., 1830), strenuously opposed the measure. In 1834 he was recalled to office during the brief Conservative ministry of William IV. On May 5, 1839, on the resignation of the Melbourne ministry, Sir Robert Peel was sent for by the queen; but his request for the removal of certain of her majesty's ladies of the bed-chamber who were connected with Whig leaders being refused, he declined to form a ministry, and the Whigs returned to office. In Aug., 1841, they resigned, and Sir Robert Peel became Prime Minister, holding office till June, 1846. His *régime* was marked by some important financial changes, including the Bank Charter Act of 1844. But it was specially marked by the repeal of the Corn Laws (q.v.), and the removal of protectionist restrictions on trade. Sir Robert, with the bulk of his followers, was altogether opposed to the removal of the corn duties, and vigorously resisted the Anti-Corn Law agitators. But he at length became convinced of the justice of their cause, and, to the intense disgust of many of his followers, himself brought in the bill for the repeal of the duties on corn. But a large portion of the Conservatives abandoned him, and the Liberals gave him little support, and in June, 1846, he resigned. During the remaining years of his life he gave a general support to the home and commercial policy of the Whig ministers, though he opposed their foreign policy. He died from the effects of a fall from his horse while riding along Constitution Hill. Peel's policy, especially in the matter of the Catholic Claims and the Corn Laws, exposed him to much misconstruction in his lifetime. But his honesty, his zeal for the welfare of the country, his moral courage and independence of character, have been amply acknowledged by the succeeding generations. And whatever exception might be taken to his general statesmanship, no one has doubted that his talents as an administrator and a financier were of the highest possible order.

Sir Robert Peel and his Era (1844); Taylor and

Mackay, *Sir Robert Peel's Life and Times*; Doubleday, *Political Life of Sir Robert Peel*; Kuenzel, *Das Leben und die Reden Sir Robert Peels* (1850); Guizot, *Sir Robert Peel*.

[S. J. L.]

Peel, Viscount (*b.* 1829), is a son of the great Sir Robert Peel. He entered Parliament as a Liberal in 1865, and after holding some minor offices in the Government, was appointed Speaker in 1884, presiding over the deliberations of the House with brilliant success, until in 1895 he resigned and was elevated to the House of Lords, with a life pension of £4,000 a year.

Peelites was the name given to those Conservatives who, after the Repeal of the Corn Laws (1846), formed a third intermediate party in Parliament. Liberal-Conservatives, they refused a junction with either political extreme. Even after the death of Peel in 1850, the presence of Sir James Graham, Mr. Gladstone, the Duke of Newcastle, Sidney Herbert, Mr. Cardwell, among the Peelites made them especially formidable. On the accession of the Earl of Aberdeen in 1852 the isolation of the Peelites ceased, that ministry being formed by a coalition of Peelites and Whigs.

Peep-o'-Day Boys, The, was the name assumed by many of the Ulster Presbyterians between 1780 and 1795, who banded themselves together to resist the Catholic "Defenders." On the institution of the Orange lodges in 1790 many of the Peep-o'-Day Boys passed into them. The Peep-o'-Day Boys bore a large share in the "Battle of the Diamond" (Sept. 21, 1795).

Peerage. It was doubtless from France that England first learned to narrow the political application of the word *peers*—which in literary and general usage still collectively designates all persons that are equals in rank or belong to the same class—to members of the specially privileged order, the hereditary nobility. The German companions in arms, who had conquered Gaul and divided the land among them, were at an early period called peers, that is, fellow-warriors pledged to mutual support. Its limitation in England to the hereditary counsellors of the sovereign, whose capacity to fill such an office originated at one time in the tenure of certain fiefs, at another in the direct receipt of a personal writ of summons to Parliament, at a third in a formal patent of peerage, and, in its feminine form, to the wives of such hereditary counsellors, and in certain contingencies their female descendants, as well as created peeresses, may perhaps have been encouraged by the perfect equality of privilege that held the varying ranks of the order on the same level in the political system. In that system kings, princes, dukes, marquesses, earls, viscounts and barons, have all been equals, whatever social precedences may have distinguished them. The latest created baron had a voice and vote in Parliament as potent as a King of Scotland's or a Prince of Wales's. But though all peers were once lords of Parliament, there never has been a time when all lords of Parliament were peers. The lords spiritual have never been considered peers; they are not regarded as having the right, when accused of treason or felony, to be tried by the peers; and they do not sit in judgment on a peer arraigned on a capital charge. The word came into regular use in the fourteenth century; it is found in the sentence passed on the Despencers in 1321. The status and composition of the peerage had then been definitely established, and its place in the constitution been settled. The English peerage had then declared itself to be no caste, such as was the French nobility, but merely a small knot of citizens whose distinguishing feature was that they had inherited the capacity, or been invited, or been commissioned by the king, to fill a responsible office in the State, that of perpetual adviser of the crown, had a few cherished privileges conceded to them in consequence, and on dying passed on their duties and privileges to their heirs. For in time tenure lost its ennobling virtue, in time the writ of summons was discontinued as a mode of creating peers, and the more deliberate proceeding of bestowing the dignities that admitted to the peerage by a formal patent, was exclusively used, and enabled the crown, when it seemed advisable, to limit the right of inheritance, which hitherto had descended to heirs general, to heirs male. In mediæval days, when the dignity devolved upon an heiress, though she could not herself take the official seat in Parliament and in Council, she yet could give her husband, if not a right to the dignity, at least a presumptive claim to a writ of summons. Thus the Kingmaker was for a time Earl of Warwick, merely because he had married the sister and heiress of Henry de Beauchamp. And the state of suspended animation for a peerage that is known as *abeyance*, arose when a peer left his honours at his death to co-heiresses, whose posterity had no power of assuming them till the stock of all but one of the daughters had been exhausted.

The special privileges of the peerage descend from an early period; but it was the quarrel of Edward III. with Archbishop Stratford in 1341 that first made the most valuable of them matters of record. In the course of that dispute the lords reported that "on no account should peers . . . be brought to trial, lose their possessions, be arrested, imprisoned, outlawed or forfeited, or be bound to answer or to judge, except in full Parliament and before their peers." And in 1442 it was settled by statute that peeresses had the same rights, when placed in the same position. But the value of the right was for centuries greatly impaired by its practical restriction

to the times when Parliament was sitting; during the recess the Lord Steward, who was appointed by the crown, formed the court at his discretion, by choosing whomsoever he pleased from the body of peers, generally to the number of twenty-three only. This hardship was removed by the Treason Bill of 1696, which made it obligatory to summon to the court of the Lord Steward "all the peers who have a right to sit and vote in Parliament." It is only on charge of treason, misprision, and felony that peers are entitled to the privilege; for minor offences they are tried by the ordinary courts. The other rights of a peer—freedom from arrest, admission on demand to the presence of the sovereign, liberty to kill venison in a royal forest, a claim to higher damages for slander, &c.—are now of little or no account. Since the completion of the Imperial Parliament, there are many Scottish and Irish peers who are not lords of Parliament; but they enjoy all the other distinctions of the order; and an Irish peer can sit among the Commons for any constituency in Great Britain. The two most striking features in the later history of the peerage are the amazing increase in its numbers, and the unreserved admission to its ranks of men of distinction in every honourable employment, soldiers, lawyers, diplomatists, bankers, tradesmen, manufacturers. In this way the order has grown from 59 landed proprietors in 1603 to more than 600 representatives of almost every form of social and personal distinction, literature not excepted.

Courthope's Edition of Nicolas's *Historic Peerage*; May, *Practical Treatise*; May, *Const. Hist.*, Vol. i.; Hallam; Stubbs. [J. R.]

Pelagius was born in Britain, towards the end of the fourth century, and his original name appears to have been Morgan, of which Pelagius is a Græcised form. He left his native land very early, and lived most of his life in Gaul, where he became notorious for his heretical teaching on the subject of original sin and free-will. Pelagianism took root in Britain, and it was to combat this heresy that Germanus and Lupus came over from Gaul. It would seem to have died out in Britain in consequence of the English Conquest.

Pelham, Henry (*b.* 1696, *d.* 1754), was the younger son of the first Baron Pelham. He took an active part in the suppression of the rebellion in 1715; and first sat for Seaford in 1718. He became Lord of the Treasury (1721), Secretary of State for War (1724), and Paymaster of the Forces (1730). He was a zealous supporter of Walpole, and faithfully upheld the measures of that minister against the attacks of the Opposition. Walpole's resignation in 1742 was followed by Wilmington's short ministry. On his death the candidates for the premiership were Pelham and Pulteney. With extreme reluctance the former was induced to assume the management of the Commons as First Lord of the Treasury. He was supported by the brilliant Carteret, who had been Pulteney's friend. The Pelhams succeeded to the difficulties of the Austrian Succession question, and were obliged to obey the dictates of their party, who were determined on hostilities with France. Carteret, finding his policy thwarted, retired in 1744. Pelham, who, unlike Walpole, dreaded opposition, now persuaded Chesterfield and Pitt to support the ministry, and placed several Tories in subordinate positions. Finding themselves superseded by Carteret in the king's councils, the Pelhams determined to bring the matter to a crisis by demanding the admission of Chesterfield and Pitt to office. On the king's refusal, they resigned; but as Carteret failed to form a ministry, they were placed again in power. Meanwhile the Jacobite rebellion of 1745 had the effect of bringing the Pelhams back to Walpole's peace policy, and the war was concluded by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (Oct., 1748). There had now ceased to be any opposition in Parliament. In 1749 Pelham introduced his successful financial bill, whereby the interest of the national debt was decreased from five and four to three per cent. The reform of the calendar and Lord Hardwicke's Marriage Act (1753) are the remaining points of interest in his administration. In 1754 he died, and George declared, "Now I shall have no more peace." "Like Walpole," says Mr. Lecky, "he was thoroughly successful in questions of finance, and almost uniformly successful in dealing with them. A timid, desponding, and somewhat fretful man, with little energy of character or intellect, he possessed, at least, to a high degree, good sense, industry, knowledge of business, and Parliamentary experience."

Coxe, *Life of Pelham*; Smollett, *Hist. of Eng.*; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; Lecky, *Hist. of the Eighteenth Century.*

Pembroke, Jasper Tudor, Earl of (*d.* 1495), was the son of Owen Tudor and Catherine of France. In 1461 he fought against the Yorkists at the battle of Mortimer's Cross, where he was defeated, and with difficulty escaped. He was attainted, and deprived of his honours, but in 1470 he landed in England with the Duke of Clarence, and the Lancastrians driving Edward out, he was restored to his titles and estates. In 1471 he once more had to flee, and this time in company with his nephew, Richmond. For many years he lived in Britanny, till 1485, when he accompanied Richmond to England, and shared the victory of Bosworth with him. He received great rewards from Henry VII., and was one of the commanders at the battle of Stoke, in 1487.

Pembroke, Thomas Herbert, 8th Earl of, and 5th Earl of Montgomery (*b.* 1656,

d. 1733), was educated at Christ Church, Oxford, and succeeded to his brother's title in 1683. He raised the trained-bands of Wilts in order to suppress Monmouth's rebellion. In 1687 he was deprived of his lord lieutenancy. He took part in the coronation ceremony of William and Mary, although he had voted for a regency, and was shortly afterwards sent as ambassador extraordinary to the States-General. Pembroke was sworn of the Privy Council, and put at the head of the Admiralty Commission. On the departure of William for Ireland he was placed on the Council of Nine. Pembroke was made Lord Privy Seal in 1691. When the king went to the Netherlands to take command of the army he was appointed one of the Lords Justices. He voted against Fenwick's attainder, although desirous that that conspirator should be brought to the scaffold. Pembroke was first plenipotentiary at the Treaty of Ryswick. He was created President of the Council in place of Leeds in 1700; and by an able speech expressed the dislike of the Tory Peers to the Resumption Bill. On the accession of Anne he was dismissed from the Admiralty in order to make room for Prince George. He was one of the commissioners to treat of the Union with Scotland, and Lord Lieutenant of Ireland in 1707. Pembroke was subsequently created President of the Council, from which the Whigs attempted to thrust him in order to make room for Somers. On the death of Prince George, he again became Lord High Admiral, but resigned in 1709 on receiving a pension. Before the arrival of George I. in England Pembroke was one of the Lords Justices who carried on the administration. During the remainder of his long life he took but little part in politics. Although Pembroke played a prominent part during two reigns, we know but little of his personal character. He was a moderate Tory in opinions, and seems to have carried out his official duties with zeal and integrity.

Burnet, *Hist. of His Own Time;* Macaulay, *Hist of Eng.;* Wyon, *Reign of Anne.*

Pembroke, William Herbert, Earl of (*d.* 1570), one of the most powerful men of his day, was employed in crushing the western rebellion in 1549, and as a reward was made Master of the Horse and President of the Council of Wales. In 1551 he was created Earl of Pembroke, and in conjunction with Warwick and Northampton virtually ruled England. At first deeply implicated in Northumberland's plot to set Lady Jane Grey on the throne, the Earl soon found that his interests lay really on the other side, and on perceiving that the country was in favour of Mary, proclaimed her at St. Paul's Cross. In 1554 he threw the whole weight of his influence into the scale in favour of the queen, whom however he personally regarded with dislike; and it was owing in a great measure to his course of action that Sir Thomas Wyatt's rebellion was so easily suppressed in the following year; he was one of the commissioners sent to France to arrange for a general peace, and in 1556 led a reinforcement of troops to Calais to ward off the threatened French attack. On the accession of Elizabeth he accorded her his warmest support. In 1569 he was, however, arrested on suspicion of being implicated in the plot to marry the Duke of Norfolk to Mary, Queen of Scots, but he cleared himself at once, and was placed in command of part of the queen's army.

Penal Code, The, in Ireland, was first felt under James I. In 1603 a royal proclamation was issued ordering all Roman Catholic priests to leave the country under pain of death, and announcing that the penal clauses of the Act of Uniformity would be put in force. Parliament, however, remonstrated, and in 1613 a promise was given that the laws would not be enforced. A period of some toleration followed, which was cut short by the Cromwellian conquest. Under the Protectorate the Catholic gentry and priests were shipped off wholesale to Barbadoes as slaves; no Catholic was allowed to carry arms, to live in garrison towns, or to go a mile from his residence without a passport. In spite of the second Act of Uniformity, the Irish enjoyed a considerable amount of toleration under Charles II. and James II., but their sufferings began again after the broken treaty of Limerick. After the English Parliament had in 1693 excluded Catholics from the Irish Parliament by imposing the oath of allegiance and abjuration, and a declaration against transubstantiation, upon members, the latter body set to work upon the infamous legislation known as the Irish penal code. (1) The first of the penal statutes, passed in 1695, provided that no Catholic should keep a school under penalty of £20 or three months' imprisonment; that parents should not send their children abroad for education under penalty of outlawry and confiscation, the case to be tried without a jury. (2) The Disarming Act commanded all papists to deliver up their arms under penalty of a heavy fine for the first offence, and imprisonment for life and forfeiture for the second. (3) In 1697 all Roman Catholic ecclesiastics who were in correspondence with Rome were expelled the kingdom, and forbidden to return under pain of death; new priests were forbidden to enter Ireland, and in the following reign the existing clergy were placed under a strict system of registration (1704). (4) The Intermarriage Act provided that a Protestant woman marrying a Catholic should be dead in the eye of the law, and a Protestant man who married a Catholic should be regarded as a papist. (5) Catholics were disqualified in 1698 from

practising as solicitors, and further measures were passed in the reigns of Anne and George II. to prevent evasions of the Act. The legislation of Anne's reign was terribly severe, and was deliberately framed with the object of depriving the native Irish of what little property they still possessed:—(1) The Act for the Suppression of Papacy (1704) provided that any person who perverted a Protestant should be guilty of præmunire; that Catholic parents should be compelled to maintain and educate their Protestant children; that no Catholic could be guardian or trustee; that the eldest son of a Catholic, by turning Protestant, converted his father's interest in his estates into a mere life-tenancy; and that lands of Catholics were to descend in gavelkind unless the eldest son declared himself a Protestant. Again, no Catholic could buy land or take leases for more than thirty-one years; he could not inherit land without taking the oaths, the estate passing at once, until his apostacy or death, to the next Protestant heir; no Catholics were to be allowed to settle in Limerick or Galway; no person was to hold office, civil or military, without taking the oaths and subscribing the declaration of transubstantiation. (2) By the Act of 1709 an informer who could prove that a lease or sale had been secretly made in favour of Papists was to have the property; and the previous legislation compelling Catholic fathers to support their Protestant children, suppressing papist schoolmasters and regulars, and commanding parish priests to be registered, were enforced with additional rigour. Lastly, in 1727 an Act was passed by which every Roman Catholic was deprived of his vote, both at Parliamentary and municipal elections. The only effect of this terrible code was the destruction of the Catholic gentry in Ireland; many of the best families emigrated, and a few apostatised. The other measures were either evaded or not put into execution. The cruel persecution of the "Irish enemy" began to abate towards the end of Walpole's administration; and to Lord North belongs the credit of the first substantial Roman Catholic Relief Bill, by which, on taking the oath of allegiance, they were allowed to hold leases of 999 years (1778). In 1782 the penal code was further relaxed, the provisions against the purchase, inheritance, and disposition of land, residence in Limerick and Galway, instruction by popish schoolmasters, and the guardianship of children, being repealed. Additional measures for the freedom of the Roman Catholics were passed in 1792, when the restrictions on the legal profession were removed, the odious Intermarriage Act was repealed; and in 1793, when £40 freeholders were allowed to vote in Parliamentary and municipal elections, to enter Dublin University, and to fill, with a few exceptions, civil and military offices. These were stepping-stones to the great Roman Catholic Emancipation Act of 1829, by which the last relics of the abominable Penal Code were swept away.

Irish Statutes; Leland, *Hist. of Ireland*; Lecky, *Hist. of Eng.*; Hallam, c. xviii.; Froude, *English in Ireland*; Walpole, *The Kingdom of Ireland*.

Penda, King of Mercia 626—655, was the son of Pybba or Wybba, and claimed to be descended from Woden. Under him Mercia first assumed a position of equality with the other kingdoms. The petty states which hitherto had occupied Middle England were conquered by him, and consolidated into the later Mercian state, which was conterminous with Central England. He was the opponent of Christianity and of Northumbria, against which he even formed an alliance with the Welsh. In 633 he defeated and slew Edwin of Northumbria at Heathfield, and ravaged the whole country of the Northumbrians; in 642 he again defeated the Northumbrians at Maserfield. He frequently defeated the East Angles, and slew three of their kings. He drove Cenwealh of Wessex out of his kingdom, and at one time seemed likely to make himself master of almost the whole of England. But in 655 he was himself defeated and slain at Winwidfield by Oswiu of Northumbria. "This prince," says Lappenberg, "presents a striking and almost inexplicable phenomenon. Ruler of a territory surrounded more than any others by a numerous hostile British population, a state which was of all the youngest; a state formed in the middle of the country, of immigrants and aftercomers, who found the maritime parts already occupied; protected by marshes, rivers, mountains, succeeding to power at the age of sixty, yet displaying the energy of youth; the last unshaken and powerful adherent of paganism among the Anglo-Saxons, this prince had during his reign of thirty years first assailed the Bretwalda of Northumbria, and afterwards repeatedly the other states of his countrymen, with great success and still greater cruelty, yet, notwithstanding the destruction of five kings, without securing to himself any lasting result." [Mercia.]

Florence of Worcester, *Chronicle*; Lappenberg, *Anglo-Saxon Kings*.

Peninsular War, The (1808—1814), was, so far as England was concerned, the most important episode in the wars with France, which lasted, with little intermission, from 1793 to 1815. In July, 1808, an alliance was signed between England and Spain, and two British divisions were at once despatched to Portugal, under Wellesley and Moore. From Aug. 1—5, Wellesley was engaged in disembarking the troops in Figueras Bay, and on the 8th he moved towards Lisbon. On the 17th Laborde opposed him at Rorica, and was defeated; and Junot met with the same fate at Vimiero four days later. Welles-

ley was, however, prevented from following up the advantage he had gained by a rapid pursuit; and on the 30th, the Convention of Cintra was signed, by which the French were allowed to quit Portugal unmolested with all their stores, guns, and ammunition. Much as this convention was condemned at home, it secured, by the occupation of Portugal, a firm basis of operations. In November, Napoleon himself took command in Spain; and after severe struggles with the Spaniards, the French, on Dec. 4, entered Madrid, and installed Joseph for the second time on the throne of Spain. Meanwhile, Sir John Moore, who, on the other generals being recalled after the Convention of Cintra, had succeeded to the command in Lisbon, had arranged to form a junction at Salamanca with Sir David Baird, who was bringing up reinforcements from Corunna, but owing to want of transport, and the stupidity of the native authorities, neither general could move at an adequate pace; and it was not till Nov. 13 that Moore arrived with his vanguard at the place appointed. In spite of the fact that all his precautions in the rear had been overthrown by the treachery of the Spaniards, he determined to press on to the assistance of the Spanish armies. On Dec. 9 he first learnt that Madrid was in the possession of the French, and that one French army had been despatched to Lisbon by way of Talavera, thus cutting off his retreat to Portugal, while Soult was on his march against Moore's army. He at once marched against Soult, and checked him in a brilliant skirmish at Sahagun; but Napoleon was drawing his armies round to enclose him; and there was nothing left but to retreat. This movement was begun on the 24th, and the several divisions concentrated at Astorga on the 31st. The next day Napoleon had to leave the army, and Soult was left to pursue a force which under extreme difficulties had forgotten all discipline. Nevertheless Moore managed to bring them safely to Corunna, where he halted to collect the stragglers. On Jan. 15, 1809, he gave Soult battle, defeated him, though killed himself in the moment of victory; and the army was embarked without further molestation and sailed for England. In May Wellesley took command in Portugal, where the French were almost supreme. He at once advanced against Soult, and drove him back from Lisbon in a series of skirmishes. He followed up his partial successes by an advance up the Valley of the Tagus, and on July 28 defeated Victor and Joseph in a hard-fought battle at Talavera. He, however, retreated soon afterwards into winter quarters on the Mondego. In the spring of 1810, Masséna opened a brilliant campaign, the object of which was the conquest of Portugal. After many successes he was met by Lord Wellington (for a peerage had been bestowed upon Wellesley after Talavera), at Busaco on Sept. 27, defeated, and driven back. Wellington took advantage of the victory to retreat to the lines of Torres Vedras, which he had constructed as a defence for Lisbon. In March (1811), having received reinforcements, Wellington issued from his lines, and by a series of masterly movements forced Masséna to retreat to Salamanca. On April 9 he began to blockade Almeida, and in the beginning of May, at Fuentes d'Onoro, again defeated Masséna, who had advanced to its relief. During the battle, the Governor of Almeida had taken advantage of the carelessness of the investing force to destroy the fortress and escape. In the meanwhile Graham had broken out from Cadiz, where he had been invested all the winter, and on March 5 defeated Victor at Barossa. Beresford had on March 15 been detached by Wellington to recapture Badajos, which had been lost to the French by the treachery of its commander. Early in May he had made all the dispositions necessary for the siege; but the operations had soon to be abandoned on account of Soult's approach with a strong relieving force. Beresford gave him battle on the ridge of Albuera on May 16, and after a terrible struggle, in which victory was long doubtful, entirely defeated the French army. Wellington, coming up soon after the battle, at once ordered Badajos to be reinvested. An assault, however, on Badajos on June 9 was repulsed with great loss; and the siege was finally abandoned on the approach of Soult and Marmont, who had united their forces. Wellington retired behind the Guadiana, but took up so bold a position that he imposed on the two marshals, who, thinking him much stronger than he really was, in their turn withdrew, Soult to Seville, Marmont to the Tagus valley, where he quartered his army around Almaraz. Wellington at once advanced, but was foiled in an attempt to surprise Ciudad Rodrigo, which, however, was now completely blockaded. Late in September, Marmont marched with an overwhelming force to its relief; and after checking him in a vigorous combat at El Bodon Wellington ordered a general retreat. On the 27th he again repulsed an attack of the French, and withdrew to a position so strong that Marmont did not venture to attack it, and from want of supplies withdrew again to the Tagus valley. In October Hill successfully drove the French from Caceres, and opened up the whole district for a foraging ground for the allies. For two months Estremadura was completely in Hill's power, till in Jan. (1812) he was recalled to Portugal by a threatened advance of Marmont. Meanwhile in the east of Spain the French had been very successful, and Valencia and Catalonia had been reduced. On Jan. 1 (1812), Wellington with all things ready crossed the Agueda, and on the 8th

broke ground in front of Ciudad Rodrigo. The siege was hurried on in order to forestall Marmont's arrival. On the 19th the place was assaulted and carried after a terrible struggle. When Marmont in his advance learned the fall of Ciudad Rodrigo, he hastily retired to Salamanca, which he fortified. Wellington lost no time in marching to the south, and preparing for the siege of Badajos. The works were begun on March 17, and here again had to be conducted with all speed from the fear of Soult's relieving force. On April 7 the place was captured by one of the most determined and sanguinary assaults on record. On May 19 Hill surprised and destroyed the bridge of Almaraz, which formed the only communication across the Tagus between Marmont and Soult, and Wellington followed up this success by laying siege to the forts of Salamanca. In ten days they were reduced, and on July 22 Wellington utterly defeated the French in the great battle of Salamanca. For eight days he followed up the pursuit to Valladolid. Thence, leaving Clinton to watch the movements of the French in the direction of Burgos, he continued his march to Madrid, which he entered in triumph on Aug. 12. Here he was again prevented by the illiberality and bad management of the home government from carrying the war any further into Spain, although either Soult or Suchet might have been crushed. He accordingly turned towards the north, where Clausel had rallied the fragments of the Salamanca army. Clausel retreated before Wellington with much skill; and Wellington halted before Burgos, resolved to take it before proceeding further north. He was, however, very badly supplied with siege tools, and even ammunition ran short; and the siege, which was begun on Sept. 19, was finally abandoned, after a month had been spent in unsuccessful attempts to storm the place. The retreat was conducted under great difficulties, aggravated by the utter disregard for discipline to which the men gave way. After several skirmishes, Wellington's army found itself secure at Ciudad Rodrigo. Wellington then disposed it in winter quarters, and made strenuous preparations for renewing the campaign in the following year. The earliest movements of 1813 were, however, made by Murray against Suchet in the east, and resulted in the defeat of the latter near Castella. It was not till May that Wellington began his forward movement, but then all his plans were so matured that the position of the French behind the Douro was turned, and they were in full retreat, without a battle having been fought. A union had been also effected by the same operations with the Spaniards in Gallicia. Burgos was destroyed by the French in their retreat; and without taking any advantage of the natural difficulties of the country, Joseph abandoned every position, until he had crossed the Ebro and taken up a strong position at Vittoria. It was, however, of no avail, for on June 21 Wellington carried the position, and inflicted on Joseph the most crushing defeat suffered by any army throughout the war. Graham was at once despatched to lay siege to San Sebastian; but in a few weeks the works had to be suspended on account of the arrival of Soult, who had been sent to supersede Joseph and was reorganising the northern army. In a series of fierce combats fought among the passes of the Pyrenees, Soult's efforts to break the line of the allies were utterly baffled; he retired, and Wellington ordered the siege of San Sebastian to be resumed. On Aug. 31 it was stormed. Soult made one more effort to succour it, but he was worsted in the combats of Vera and San Marcial, and had to retire again. Wellington, by the fall of San Sebastian, was free to devote his whole attention to Soult. By a series of skilful movements he forced the passage of Bidassoa early in October. A month later he attacked Soult in a strong position, which he had been fortifying for three months, on the Nivelle. Each redoubt was successively carried, and the English troops crossed the river. A month later he crossed the Nive, in the face of Soult's opposing force. The next day Soult issued from Bayonne, thinking that he could cut off the left wing of the allies. The attack was met by a stubborn resistance, till Wellington sent up reinforcements and compelled the French to withdraw in haste. But Soult directed a new attack against the right, which had been thus weakened. Wellington had, however, anticipated the attack, and after "one of the most desperate battles of the whole war," succeeded on Dec. 13 in completely baffling the French on all points. The country was, however, so flooded, that no further movement was possible; and the allies went into winter quarters along the left bank of the Adour, the French being disposed along the opposite bank. In February, 1814, Wellington determined to advance into France; but to do this it was necessary to drive Soult from Bayonne. It was only possible to cross the Adour below Bayonne, as it was weakly guarded there on account of its natural difficulties. His plan, therefore, was to draw Soult away by an advance of his centre and right, while Sir John Hope with the left effected the passage of the river. Accordingly Hill, with 20,000 men, moved off on Feb. 12 towards the east. The French outposts were everywhere driven in, and Soult was hopelessly mystified as to Wellington's real design. He accordingly made his dispositions so as to be able to concentrate on Orthes. Wellington continued to drive in the enemy from all their outposts, and on the 26th Beresford crossed the Gave de Pau, and false attacks were directed against Orthes. On the following day the English attacked

Soult's position at Orthes. For a long time the battle was doubtful; indeed, at one time the French seemed to be on the point of repulsing the attack and winning the day; but Wellington, quickly changing his mode of attack to suit the altered circumstances, won a complete victory, which would have resulted in the entire destruction of Soult's army had the pursuit been energetically executed. Meanwhile Hope had grappled with stupendous difficulties; had crossed the Adour, and in the face of the enemy had, by the indefatigable energy of soldiers and sailors combined, contrived a bridge which should resist alike the force of the tide and the attacks of the foe. The investment of Bayonne was now complete; and Wellington, crossing the Adour, despatched Beresford with 12,000 men to Bordeaux, while he himself prepared to follow Soult, who was retiring towards Toulouse. In three skirmishes the allies encountered the French outposts, and drove them in; but Wellington was moving cautiously, and it was not till March 26 that the two armies were in sight of one another. Soult was resolved to hold Toulouse, in order to keep his communications open with the other armies, and Wellington was equally resolved to isolate him. Accordingly he attacked him on April 10; and at length, after a most terrible struggle, in which the allies lost more men than in almost any other battle in the whole war, the chief positions were carried. But even then Soult did not at once give up the place, and was ready to receive an attack the next day. Wellington, however, designed a new plan of operations, and Soult, afraid of being surrounded, carried off most of his troops to Villefranche. The movement was a most masterly conception, and its execution did not fall short of the skill with which it was planned. But its results were never known, because news had already arrived of the Convention of Paris and the abdication of Napoleon. Thus ended the War of the Peninsula.

Napier, *Peninsular War*; Clinton, *Peninsular War*; Alison, *Hist. of Europe*; Thiers, *Hist. of the Consulate and Empire.* [W. R. S.]

Penj-deh Incident. In 1884 the Amir of Afghanistan accepted a proposal for the delimitation of the frontier between his territory and Turkestan by an English and a Russian Commission. The English Commission set out, but the despatch of the Russian was delayed pending further negotiations between the Governments; and, meantime, Russian troops were pushed forward to occupy some of the points claimed. They were met by Afghan troops, and came into conflict with them at Dash Kepri, near Penj-deh, March 30, 1885. The Afghan troops were defeated, and the Russians set up a temporary administration in Penj-deh. A strong war feeling was aroused in England, but subsequently (May 2) it was agreed that the question who was responsible for the collision at Penj-deh should be decided by arbitration. The arbitration never came off, but eventually England, on behalf of the Amir, gave up his claim to Penj-deh, he receiving in return the southern outlet of the Zulfikar Pass. The delimitation of the Russo-Afghan frontier was completed in 1895.

Penn, William, son of Admiral Sir William Penn, educated at Christ Church, Oxford and at Saumur. He became a Quaker in 1667, and was in 1668—9 eight months imprisoned in the Tower, and in 1671 six months in Newgate, for propagating Quaker doctrines. On March 4, 1681, he received from the king, in satisfaction for debts due to his father, the land lying between Maryland and New York, and founded the colony called after him Pennsylvania. From the summer of 1682 to the summer of 1684 he was engaged in laying the foundations of the colony in America and establishing good relations with the Indians. On his return to England, he obtained great influence with James II., approved and supported the Declaration of Indulgence, and endeavoured to secure for the policy of the king the support of William of Orange. In 1690 and in 1691 he was accused of treasonable correspondence with the exiled king, but in neither case was the charge proved. Nevertheless he was in 1692 deprived of his government of Pennsylvania, which was restored to him two years later. In 1699 he made a second visit to America, whence he returned in 1701. His relations to the colony involved him in many debts, and disputes arose. In 1712 Penn was struck by apoplexy, as he was preparing to sell to the crown his rights as proprietor, and, though he lived till 1718, was incapable for the rest of his life of doing any business.

Works, published 1728; *Life*, by Hepworth Dixon, Forster Clarkson, and Granville Penn. Macaulay's charges are refuted in Paget's *Puzzles and Paradoxes.*

Penry (or Ap Henry), John (*b.* 1559, *d.* 1593), a Welsh clergyman, became one of the most zealous followers of Robert Browne and a determined opponent of Episcopacy. He was supposed to have originated the attacks on the bishops published under the name of Martin Marprelate, but it was found impossible to trace the work to him. He was subsequently brought to trial on a charge of having libelled the queen, and though the evidence was incomplete, was found guilty and hung at St. Thomas Waterings (May 29, 1593).

Wordsworth, *Eccles. Biog.*; Strype, *Anna's*; Burnet, *Hist. of the Reformation.*

Pen Selwood, The Battle of (1016), was fought between Edmund Ironside and Canute, and resulted in the victory of the former.

Pen Selwood is in Somerset, not far from Gillingham.

Pension Bill, The (1730), was introduced by Sandys as a weapon of attack against Sir Robert Walpole. By an Act of 1708, all persons holding pensions from the crown during pleasure were made incapable of sitting in the House of Commons, and this was extended by an Act of 1714 to those who held them for any term of years. "But the difficulty," says Hallam, "was to ascertain the fact, the government refusing information." Accordingly Sandys proposed a Bill by which every member of the Commons was to swear an oath that he did not hold any such pension, and that if he accepted one, he would disclose it to the House within fourteen days. Walpole allowed this measure to pass the Commons by a small majority, and threw the responsibility of its rejection in the Lords on Townshend as leader in that House.

Hallam, *Const. Hist.*; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*

Pensions, Old Age, came into force in 1909. In the previous year the government passed a Bill whereby persons—with certain exceptions—who are seventy years of age, and whose yearly means do not exceed £31 10s., are entitled to a pension. The amount payable is calculated on the person's means; the highest payment is 5s., the lowest 1s. a week.

Pensions, The Question of, is intimately connected with that of the alienation of royal demesne, which was so frequently made a subject of complaint by the reformers of the Middle Ages. It was not until the accession of Queen Anne that steps were taken to prevent the sovereign from charging the hereditary revenues with pensions and annuities which were considered to be binding on his successors, when it was provided that no portion of the hereditary revenues should be alienated by the crown beyond the life of the king. Pensions, however, were still granted on the hereditary revenues of Scotland and Ireland, and on the 4½ per cent. duties, for the lives of the grantees. When George III. surrendered the hereditary revenues in exchange for a fixed civil list amounting first to £800,000, and afterwards to £900,000, it became the fund from which pensions were paid. There were no limits to pensions, except the civil list itself, and debts frequently accumulated in consequence; moreover, they dangerously increased the influence of the crown. Burke proposed in consequence (1780) that the pension list should be reduced to £60,000, but his Bill did not become law. However, the Civil List Act of the Rockingham administration, which was passed in 1782, was built on the same lines. The pension list was to be gradually reduced to £95,000, and no pension to any one person was to exceed £1,200. In order to prevent the practice of granting secret pensions during pleasure, it was directed that all future pensions were to be paid at the exchequer, and they were to be granted only in cases of distress or desert. The pension lists on the Irish and Scotch revenues, and on the 4½ per cent. duties, still remained, however, and were sources of much political corruption. (1) In 1793 the Irish pensions had reached the sum of £124,000, the gross annual revenue being £275,102. After several attempts had been made to remedy the abuse, a Bill was introduced into the Irish House of Commons, by which the hereditary revenues were surrendered in exchange for a civil list of £145,000, and a pension list of £124,000, which was eventually to be reduced to £80,000. No grants in any one year were to exceed £1,200, but pensions held during the pleasure of the crown were exempted from the provisions of the Act. The contemplated reduction was effected by 1814; and on the accession of George IV. the Irish pension list was further reduced to £50,000, no grants exceeding £1,200 to be made until the list was so reduced. (2) The Scotch hereditary revenues remained exempt from Parliamentary control until 1810, when the pensions charged on them amounted to £39,379. It was then provided that the amount of the pensions should be reduced to £25,000, and no more than £800 should be granted in one year until the reduction had been effected. (3) In 1830 the 4½ per cent. duties were surrendered by William IV. for his life, the pension charged upon them continuing payable. At the same time the three pension lists of England, Scotland, and Ireland were consolidated, and arrangements made for their reduction from £145,750 to a future maximum sum of £75,000 on the expiration of existing interests. Lastly, on the accession of Victoria, the right of the crown to grant pensions was restricted to £1,200 a year; these pensions to be granted in strict conformity with the resolutions of the House of Commons of 1834, which limited them to "such persons only as have just claims on the royal beneficence, or who, by their personal services to the crown, by the performance of their duties to the public, or by their useful discoveries in science and attainments in literature and the arts, have merited the gracious consideration of the sovereign, and the gratitude of their country." In 1887, a Select Committee of the House of Commons reported against the granting of perpetual pensions in the future, and recommended the commutation of existing ones. A motion in this sense was passed in 1888, and since then many pensions have been commuted.

See May, *Const. Hist.*, vol. i., chap. iv. See also Burke, *Works*, ed. 1815, and *Report on the Civil List*, Dec. 1837.

[L. C. S.]

Pepys, Samuel (*b.* 1633, *d.* 1703), was educated at St. Paul's School, and Magdalen

College, Cambridge. He became Clerk of the Acts to the Navy in 1660, and Secretary to the Navy in 1673. During the reigns of Charles II. and James II. the administration of naval affairs was largely in his hands, and he introduced some important reforms. He was imprisoned in the Tower on suspicion of being concerned in the popish plot in May, 1679, but liberated the following February. He became President of the Royal Society in 1684. He wrote *Memoirs of the Royal Navy* (1690), and left in his manuscripts a *Diary*, written in shorthand, which was deciphered and first published by Lord Braybrooke in 1825. The work is almost unequalled for its naïve candour, and its gossiping pages give a singularly piquant sketch of the court and society of Charles II.'s reign.

Perceval, Spencer (*b.* 1762, *d.* 1812), was the second son of John, Earl of Egmont, and was educated at Harrow and Trinity College, Cambridge. In 1786 he was called to the bar, and ten years later took silk. At the same time he entered Parliament as M.P. for Northampton, and was soon noticed by Pitt as a promising member. In supporting the Treason and Sedition Bills he rendered good service to the government. Addington appointed Perceval his Solicitor-General, and in 1802 Attorney-General, in which capacity he had to conduct the prosecution of Peltier for a libel on Bonaparte, and in spite of the brilliant defence of Sir James Mackintosh, he secured a verdict of guilty. He held that office until Pitt's death in 1806. In March, 1807, he became Chancellor of the Exchequer, and on the death of the Duke of Portland in 1809 he was named First Lord of the Treasury. At that time the war in the Peninsula was being carried on: Napoleon had as yet received no check on the Continent; England was spending millions in encouraging the nations of Europe to offer an effectual resisttance to him. Foreign politics were thus all engrossing, and scarcely any attention was paid to the reforms at home, which were so badly needed. For three years his ministry lasted, and then on May 11, 1812, he was shot by one Bellingham, in the lobby of the House of Commons. Nothing could have happened so opportunely for Perceval's reputation as his murder, which raised him to the position of a martyr. From having been really a minister of moderate abilities, by his death he suddenly became, in public estimation a political genius, a first-rate financier, and a powerful orator. We can now look back more calmly and see in him a man of shrewd sense, imperturbable temper, narrow views, and restless ambition, which, to his credit, never led him astray from the path of integrity.

Alison, *Hist. of Europe*; Duke of Buckingham, *Memoirs of Court of the Regency*; G. Rose, *Diary*.

Percy, Henry (*b.* 1364, *d.* 1403), who from his impetuosity and daring was surnamed "Hotspur," was the son of Henry Percy, Earl of Northumberland. When quite young he was associated with his father in the charge of the Scotch prisoners, and in 1386 he was sent to release Calais, and made many daring excursions into Picardy. He killed the Earl of Douglas in the battle of Otterburn, where he was himself taken prisoner. On his release he fought in France and Britanny. He joined Henry of Lancaster on his landing in England in 1399, and received substantial rewards from him subsequently. Becoming discontented, however, with the king, Percy joined in 1403 with Douglas, but was defeated and slain in the battle of Shrewsbury. He married Elizabeth Mortimer, eldest daughter of Edward, Earl of March.

Perrers, Alice, was one of the ladies of the bedchamber of Philippa, queen of Edward III. After his wife's death she acquired immense influence over the king, and interfered in the affairs of State, supporting the policy of John of Gaunt. In the Good Parliament (1376) most serious charges were brought against her. She had interfered with the administration of justice, and her rapacity and extravagance were equally unbounded. She was compelled to take an oath never to return to the king's presence; and it was ordained that if in the future she behaved as she had in the past, she should forfeit her goods and be banished. On the death of the Black Prince, however, the proceedings of the Good Parliament were reversed, and Alice Perrers resumed her influence over the king. She was present at his death-bed, but fled from it after robbing him of his finger rings. She appears to have died in 1400.

Perrot, Sir John (*b.* 1527, *d.* 1592), was reputed to be the son of Henry VIII. He was imprisoned by Mary for his religious opinions, but under Elizabeth rose for a time to high favour. In 1570 he was appointed President of Munster, where he suppressed a widespread rebellion, and in 1584 was made Lord Deputy of Ireland. His policy, though calculated to benefit the country, gave such offence to the clergy that they contrived, by means of forged documents, to obtain his recall, which was followed by his trial for high treason in 1592. He was found guilty, though probably on very insufficient evidence, of using language derogatory to the queen, and of giving secret encouragement to Spain; and died in the Tower of a broken heart, September, 1592.

Persian War, The (1856). At the end of 1855 a series of studied insults towards Mr. Murray, the British minister at the Persian court, obliged him to withdraw his mission from Teheran, and break off communication with the Persian government.

Attempts were made to patch the matter up, but the news of the siege and capture of Herat, in spite of treaty obligations, was followed by a declaration of war by England (Nov. 1, 1856). An army of 6,000 men, under the command of Sir James Outram, was at once despatched to the Persian Gulf. The English attacked Rushan, a fort near Bushire, and the place was carried after an obstinate defence. The next day Bushire was attacked and similarly captured. On Jan. 27, Sir James Outram arrived and took the command. Being joined by part of Havelock's division, he advanced on Burrasgoon, where the Persians were encamped, found it deserted, and returned after destroying all the stores found there. On his return he was much annoyed by the Persian cavalry, but eventually succeeded in attacking and driving off the pursuing force. A short lull in hostilities occurred now. But on March 26 the strong fortress of Mohamrah on the Karoon river was attacked by sea and land. The garrison was commanded by Prince Khan Mirza. No real attempt was made at a defence; the guns of the fort and town were quickly silenced by the fleet, and then the prince abandoned the place and retreated to Akwaz, 100 miles up the Karoon, where he had large magazines and supplies. Sir James Outram immediately organised an expedition under Commander Rennie to ascend the river and destroy this place. The steamer advanced on the 29th, and on April 1 found the enemy, about 7,000 strong, posted at Akwaz. The troops landed and advanced against the town. There was, however, no struggle. The Persians, cowed by their disasters, fled at once, and again allowed their camp to be taken possession of with all the stores it contained. On the 4th the expedition returned to Mohamrah, and thus the operations closed. Meanwhile, the preliminaries of a peace had been adjusted at Paris. The Shah agreed to renounce all pretensions to Herat, to withdraw his troops from Afghanistan, to guarantee protection to the English commerce, and to suppress slavery in the Persian Gulf. [MALCOLM, SIR JOHN.]

Outram, *Persian Expedition*; *Annual Register*, 1856.

Perth was taken by Bruce from the English (1311), and in 1332 was fortified by Edward Baliol, who was for a time besieged there by the Earl of March. In 1339 it was retaken by Robert the Stewart from Sir Thomas Ughtred, Edward III.'s lieutenant. In 1559 it was occupied by the Queen Regent and a French bodyguard; in Sept., 1644, it was taken by Montrose after the battle of Tippermuir, and in May, 1689, by Claverhouse. In 1715 it was occupied by Lord Mar, and in 1745 was also in the hands of the rebels for some time. James I. was murdered (1436) in the monastery of Black Friars in Perth.

Peterborough, BENEDICT OF (*d.* 1193), was of unknown origin. In 1173 he was appointed chancellor to the Archbishop of Canterbury; in 1177, Abbot of Peterborough; and in 1191, Vice-Chancellor of England. The *Chronicle* which is erroneously attributed to him extends from 1169 to 1192, and is highly important for the period it embraces, giving much information not to be found in any other writer.

Benedict of Peterborough's *Chronicle* has been published in the Rolls Series, with invaluable introductions by Bishop Stubbs, who suggests, with much probability, that Richard Fitz-Neal, Bishop of London, is the author.

Peterborough, CHARLES MORDAUNT, EARL OF (*b.* 1658, *d.* 1735), in 1675 succeeded to his father's estates. In his youth he served under Admirals Torrington and Marlborough in the Mediterranean. For his bold opposition to the designs of James II. he was compelled to betake himself to the Hague, where he strongly recommended the Prince of Orange to invade England. When William had landed at Torbay, Mordaunt went on before him, and occupied Exeter. He became First Commissioner of the Treasury, a post to which he was unsuited; and where he quarrelled with Godolphin, who was an excellent financier. He was created Earl of Monmouth. In 1690 Caermarthen procured his retirement from office. In 1696 he attempted to ruin his opponents by the help of Sir John Fenwick's confessions. But the attempt failed, and Monmouth, now hated by both parties, was stripped of his employments. In 1697 he succeeded to his uncle's fortunes and title. On the accession of Anne he was offered and refused the command of the forces in the West Indies. In 1705 he was sent to command in Spain. He captured the fortresses of Montjuich, and Barcelona fell. Though he had but a handful of men, he at once pushed on to relieve San Mattheo. He accomplished the feat with 1,200 men, and drove the Spanish army of 7,000 men before him into Valencia. From Valencia he set out in the night and defeated a reinforcement of 4,000 men. A French army under Marshal Tessé, and a fleet under the Count of Toulouse, were sent to blockade Barcelona, Peterborough attempted to raise the siege, but failed. He then produced a commission appointing him commander of the fleet as well as the army, and set out in an open boat in quest of it. He was picked up by one of the ships; and though he failed to bring on an engagement with the French fleet, he relieved Barcelona. But he quarrelled with the Archduke Charles, who disapproved of his design of marching at once on Madrid. Unable to endure a command divided between himself and Galway, he left the army for Genoa. In 1707 he returned as a volunteer; but Sunderland, a warm supporter of Galway, roughly recalled him. He visited Vienna, the camp

of Charles XII. at Alt-Rastadt, and that of Marlborough in Flanders. In 1711 he was sent to Vienna in order to reconcile the Emperor and the Duke of Savoy. In 1713 he was made Governor of Minorca. On the accession of George I., he was made general of the marine forces of Great Britain, an office continued under George II. In 1717 he was suddenly arrested at Bologna on the groundless charge of plotting against the Pretender's life. In 1719 he conducted, on his own responsibility, an intrigue with the French court through the Duke of Parma, uncle of the Queen of Spain, which resulted in the dismissal of the minister Alberoni. In 1735 he died at sea, on his way to Lisbon. "This man," says Macaulay, "was, if not the greatest, yet assuredly the most extraordinary character of that age. . . But his splendid talents and virtues were rendered almost useless to his country by his restlessness, his irritability, his morbid craving for novelty and for excitement. His weakness had not only brought him, on more than one occasion, into serious trouble, but had impelled him to some actions altogether unworthy of his humane and noble nature."

Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.* and *War of Succession in Spain.*

Peterloo Meeting, The (August 16, 1819), was the most celebrated of the meetings in which the national desire for Parliamentary Reform found expression. Manchester decided to follow the example of Birmingham, and made large preparations for a grand meeting on Aug. 16, 1819, under the lead of a noted reformer, "Orator" Hunt. The county executive made extensive military arrangements to prevent any rioting or disturbance. On the day fixed, between 50,000 and 60,000 people marched into St. Peter's Field, then on the outskirts of Manchester, while the magistrates were watching the proceedings from a neighbouring house. As soon as Hunt rose to address the assembled crowd, they sent the chief constable to arrest him—a hopeless impossibility in the face of an enthusiastic mob. The Yeomanry were then sent to charge the crowd; but they became scattered, lost their order, and were beginning to experience some rough treatment at the hands of the crowd, when the magistrates gave the Hussars orders to charge. Nothing could have been more effectual; "the charge swept the mingled mass of human beings before it; people, yeomen, and constables, in their confused attempts to escape, ran over one another." The meeting was broken up; Hunt was arrested, and the field was left strewn with the victims of the impetuous charge, which has given to the Peterloo Meeting the name of the Manchester Massacre.

Walpole, *Hist. of Eng. from 1815*; *Annual Register*; *Life of Eldon.*

Peters, or Peter, Hugh (*b.* 1598, *d.* 1660), was a native of Fowey in Cornwall, and was educated at Cambridge. He became lecturer at St. Sepulchre's Church in the city, and in 1633 minister of an Independent congregation at Rotterdam. In 1635 he emigrated to Massachusetts, and succeeded Roger Williams as pastor at Salem. He returned to England in 1641. "I was sent over to his majesty," he said on his trial, "that we might have a little help in point of excise and customs, and encouragements in learning." He remained in England, and became an active preacher and army chaplain. In 1649 he accompanied Cromwell to Ireland, and became one of the commissioners for the amendment of the laws (1652). He was also appointed one of the Triers (1654). At the Restoration he was excepted from the Act of Indemnity, tried as a regicide and condemned to death. He was charged with plotting the king's death with Cromwell, and with exciting the soldiers against him by his preaching before and during the trial. He was also accused by rumour of being himself the executioner of Charles I., but this was not brought forward on his trial. He was executed on Oct. 16, 1660.

Peter's Pence. [Rom-peoh.]

Petition and Advice (1657). On Feb. 23, 1657, Sir Christopher Pack brought forward in the House of Commons an address proposing the recasting of the constitution. This was discussed and amended for a month, and finally presented to Cromwell on Mar. 31 under the title of the "Petition and Advice." April was spent in discussions between Cromwell and a committee of the House touching the question of the kingship (definitely refused by Cromwell on May 8), and dealing with defects which he perceived, and amendments which he suggested in other portions of the proposed constitution. The Commons finally added a supplement to the original "Petition and Advice," called "The Humble Additional and Explanatory Petition and Advice." The two documents together, known shortly by the title of the first, made up the new scheme of government. Cromwell was empowered to choose his successor, and confirmed in the Protectorate. Parliaments were to be called every two years at the furthest, and enjoy all their customary rights. Several classes of persons, viz., all Roman Catholics, and generally all persons who had borne arms against the Parliament, and not since given signal testimony of their good affections, were excluded from political rights. The Protector was empowered to nominate a second House of seventy members, his Church establishment sanctioned, and a limited toleration secured. To the Protector's Council, consisting of twenty-one persons, approved by Parliament, an important share in the government was

given. Protector and Council together disposed of the fixed yearly revenue (£1,300,000), now granted, and were responsible for its expenditure to Parliament. On the whole the Petition and Advice established a far more workable distribution of political power than the Instrument of Government.

Masson, *Life of Milton*; Guizot, *Cromwell*; Carlyle, *Cromwell's Letters and Speeches*; Burton, *Diary*. [C. H. F.]

Petitioners (1679) was the name given to those members of the Opposition, or "Country" party, who in this year presented petitions to Charles II. asking him to summon a Parliament in Jan., 1680. Their opponents presented counter-petitions, expressing abhorrence of the attempt to encroach on the royal prerogative, and were hence called Abhorrers (q.v.).

Burnet, *Hist. of his Own Time*, ii. 238.

Petition of Right (1628). When the third Parliament of Charles I. met, the Parliamentary leaders resolved to begin by vindicating the violated rights of the subjects rather than renewing the attack on Buckingham. After a general discussion the Commons proceeded to pass resolutions against arbitrary imprisonment, unparliamentary taxation, and other grievances. Wentworth suggested that they should proceed by a bill which should define what the law should be in the future, but though his idea was adopted by the Commons, the king's openly expressed opposition obliged them to drop it (April 28). Coke now proposed that they should ask the Lords to join with them in a Petition of Right (May 6), and after about three weeks' debate the Upper House passed the petition (May 28). The petition demanded four things:—(1) That no freeman should be obliged to give any gift, loan, benevolence or tax, without common consent by Act of Parliament. (2) That no freeman should be imprisoned contrary to the laws of the land. (3) That soldiers and sailors should not be billeted in private houses. (4) That commissions to punish soldiers and sailors by martial law should be revoked, and no more issued. Charles, with the consent of the Council, answered evasively, "The king willeth that right be done according to the laws and customs of the realm, and that the statutes be put in due execution." Dissatisfied with this reply, the Commons prepared a remonstrance against the advisers by whose counsel the king had acted. The king interrupted them by a message forbidding them to meddle with affairs of State. The House boldly took up again the charges against Buckingham. Before this determination, and before the ambiguous attitude of the House of Lords, the king yielded and assented to the petition according to the usual form. But the king's final surrender did not secure the agreement of king and Commons. A new quarrel soon arose on the question whether the petition rendered illegal the levy of tonnage and poundage without a Parliamentary grant. Nevertheless, the king's acceptance marked the beginning of a great era in English history.

Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng., 1603—1642*; Hallam, *Const. Hist.* [C. H. F.]

Petitions. [Parliament; Crown.]

Petty, Sir William (*b.* 1623, *d.* 1687), became in 1652 First Physician of the Irish Army. Afterwards as Surveyor-General he surveyed the forfeited estates in Ireland, and by buying up the claims of the soldiery to the forfeited lands he acquired large estates. He published several works, among them his valuable *Political Arithmetic* and a *Political Survey of Ireland*.

Philip, King (*b.* 1527, *d.* 1598), though nominally sovereign of England, had only a brief and transient connection with this country. He was affianced to Queen Mary in 1554, and celebrated his marriage with her in July of that year. He remained in the country little more than a year, during which he hurried on the Catholic reaction, and began the "Spanish terror." [Mary; Elizabeth.]

Philiphaugh, The Battle of (Sept. 13, 1645), was fought at a place two miles west of Selkirk, when Montrose's Highland army was surprised by David Leslie with 4,000 horse. Montrose himself escaped with a small portion of his force, the rest were cut in pieces.

Philippa, Queen (*b. circa* 1312, *d.* 1369), wife of Edward III., daughter of William, Count of Holland, and Hainault, was married to Edward in 1328. She accompanied her husband on some of his foreign expeditions, and at other times defended the kingdom in his absence.

Phipps, Sir Constantine, defended Sacheverell in 1710, and was Lord Chancellor of Ireland 1711 to 1714. He was an active Jacobite, and in 1713, by his efforts, won the Dublin elections for his party.

Phœnix Park Murders. [Ireland.]

Picton, General Sir Thomas (*b.* 1758, *d.* 1815), entered the army in 1771. In 1794 he was ordered to the West Indies; and on the capture of St. Lucia, two years later, Sir Ralph Abercromby recommended him for the lieutenant-colonelcy of the 68th, and soon afterwards appointed him Governor of the island of Trinidad. In this capacity he allowed torture to be applied according to the Spanish law. Legal proceedings were instituted, and in 1805 he was found guilty by a jury in the Court of King's Bench. A new trial was, however, granted, and the verdict was reversed in 1808. In 1809 he commanded a brigade in the Walcheren expedition, and was appointed Governor of Flushing. Before he had recovered from a malarious fever,

which he had contracted on this expedition, he was ordered to Portugal to command the 3rd Division, nicknamed the Fighting Division. At Badajos he rendered most signal service. He was soon afterwards invalided, but resumed his command in time to share in the battle of Vittoria, where his division bore the brunt of the fighting. He was engaged in nearly all the battles of the Pyrenees and in the south of France. On the news of the escape of Napoleon from Elba, at Wellington's express desire, Picton accepted a command under him. At Quatre Bras he was with a very inferior force opposed to Ney, and for three hours sustained, unaided, a most obstinate contest. In this battle he received a wound, of which he told no one, lest he should be prevented from taking part in the greater battle, which he knew must soon take place. Accordingly he was present in command of the 5th Division, against which Napoleon launched one of his earliest, and, as the Duke of Wellington testified, "one of his most serious attacks." As he was in the act of giving the word for that charge which repulsed the attempt to break the English line, he was struck by a musket-ball on the temple, and killed instantaneously. The story that the Duke of Wellington was on bad terms with Picton has been totally denied by the duke himself, who appreciated his qualities and solicited his services both in the Peninsula and in Flanders.

Memoirs of Picton; Napier, *Peninsular War*; *Wellington Despatches*.

Picts, The (*i.e.*, Picti, or painted people), were the nation who in early times inhabited the north-eastern and northern parts of the modern Scotland. Their ethnology has been one of the most controverted points even in Celtic antiquities. But no one now believes that they were of Teutonic origin, and the general consensus seems to be that they were Celts of the Goidelic rather than of the Brythonic type. It has, however, been shown that not only some of their place-names, but also some of their customs, can hardly be of Aryan origin, and that consequently they were largely of "Ivernian" or pre-Aryan descent. But the term Picts, which is obviously of Roman origin, does not seem to be indicative of race, but to have been simply used to denote a group of people of various origin dwelling together, who ultimately became members of the same political organisation. To the classical writers the term Pict simply meant the whole aggregate of the tribes dwelling to the north of the Roman walls, who at an earlier age were known as the Caledonii and Meatæ. They never were subjugated by the Romans, and even when the Scots had occupied the western coast of Scotland, they still held the region north of the Forth, and east of Drumalban, though at a later date Scandinavian conquests deprived them of the extreme north of the island. The range of mountains called the Mounth divided the northern from the southern Picts. There was also a third Pictish territory in Galloway, whose inhabitants, shut off by Brythonic tribes from their northern brethren, were called the Niduari Picts, and, curiously enough, retained the name long after it had become extinct north of the Forth. [Galloway; Cumbria.] When they first became prominent in history as the devastators of the abandoned province, the Picts were mostly heathens. The Picts of Galloway had become at least partially converted to Christianity by the preaching of Ninian at the end of the fourth century. At the end of the sixth century the teaching of Columba established among the Picts the authority of the monastic and tribal church of Iona, and created intimate relations between the immigrant Scots and the race they had driven over Drumalban. About the same time a united Pictish monarchy seems to have grown up, with a peculiar rule of succession in the female line that was certainly pre-Aryan. Before long, however, the Picts were compelled to fully acknowledge the supremacy of the great Northumbrian monarchs of the seventh century. The rash enterprise of Egfrid led, however, to the Pictish victory of Dunnichen (Nechtansmere), which again secured their freedom (685). In the next century the teaching of the missionary, St. Bonifacius, induced Nectan, King of the Picts, to expel the Columban clergy, and introduce the Roman usages (717). The result was constant war with the Scots, which, along with the Danish inroads, which now became constant, reduced the Pictish kingdom to much misery. The history of the period after Bede's invaluable work ends is very obscure. The Pictish law of succession especially exposed the state to the danger of foreign kings. At last, in 844, Kenneth MacAlpin, "the first of the Scots," established a new dynasty in the land of the Picts, which produced the political union of Picts and Scots. After the end of the ninth century there are no more kings of the Picts—or of Scone, as, after its capital, the state was sometimes called—but of Alban. The whole of Scotland north of the Forth and Clyde was thus, except for the Norse jarldoms on coasts and islands, united, at least nominally, into a single state.

Kings of the Picts.

Brude, son of Mailcon	*d.* 584
Gartnaidh, son of Domelch	*d.* 599
Nectan, grandson of Uerd	*d.* 612
Cinioch, son of Luchtren	*d.* 631
Gartnaid, son of Wid	*d.* 635
Brude " "	*d.* 641
Talorgan " "	*d.* 653
Talorgan, son of Eanfred	*d.* 657
Gartnaid, son of Domnall	*d.* 663
Drust " "	*d.* 672
Brude, son of Bile	*d.* 693
Taran, son of Entefidich	*d.* 697
Brude, son of Derili	*d.* 706
Nectan " "	*ab.* 724
Drust " "	*ex.* 726

Alpin, son of Eochaidh	*d.* 728
Nectan, son of Derili	*rt. & d.* 729 (31?)
Angus, son of Fergus	*d.* 761
Brude ,, ,,	*d.* 763
Ciniod, son of Wredech	*d.* 775
Alpin, son of Wroid	*d.* 780
Talorgan, son of Angus	*d.* 782
Drest, son of Talorgan	*d.* 785
Conall, son of Taidg	*d.* 789 (90?)
Constantin, son of Fergus	*d.* 820
Angus ,, ,,	*d.* 832
Drust, son of Constantin } Talorgan, son of Wthoil }	*d.* 836
Eoganan (Uven), son of Angus	*d.* 839
Wrad, son of Bargoit	*d.* 842
Brude ,, ,,	*d.* 843
Kenneth MacAlpin	d. 859

Skene, *Celtic Scotland*, gives the only full and critical account of the Picts, based on the original authorities, edited by Mr. Skene in his *Chronicles of the Picts and Scots*. Rhŷs's *Celtic Britain* gives a good summary of the history, and throws much light on the ethnology of the Picts.

[T. F. T.]

Pilgrimage of Grace was the name given to the insurrection in Yorkshire and Lincolnshire in 1536, caused chiefly by the ecclesiastical and other reforms of Henry VIII. and Cromwell. It was headed by a young Lincolnshire gentleman, named Robert Aske, and joined by most of the gentlemen and nobility of Yorkshire. The rebels mustered in great force and advanced towards York, which they occupied. Joined by the Archbishop of York, Lord Darcy, and the Percies, the rebels, 30,000 strong, moved southwards. At Doncaster they were met by the royal commissioners, the Earl of Shrewsbury and the Duke of Norfolk. A conference was held, and the rebels were induced by the terms offered to disband. But, finding that their demands were not really to be complied with, an insurrection broke out anew under Sir Francis Bigod. This was suppressed with great severity. Martial law was established in the north. Aske, Darcy, and twenty other leaders were seized (March, 1537) and executed, and the movement was stamped out.

Pindarrie War. The Pindarries were a body of freebooters, established in the Vindhya Hills, recruited from all nations and religions, and finding employment sometimes with the armies of native princes, sometimes in predatory excursions of their own. Their expeditions were of the most destructive character; all mounted and lightly armed they crossed the country in marches of from forty to fifty miles a day, fell upon the devoted district, carried off everything movable in it, and burnt the houses and crops. In 1815 the Pindarries crossed the Nerbudda, and ravaged the English possessions in the Deccan. Lord Hastings determined to end this, and prepared large armies in all the presidencies. The matter was complicated by the extensive conspiracy organised by Bajee Rao and Appa Sahib, and the treachery of Dowlut Rao Scindia. The vigorous measures of Lord Hastings, however, broke up the conspiracy, and the Pindarries were beaten again and again (1817). Chetoo Singh, their chief, however, with the remnant of his followers, to the number of 20,000, assembled in arms. The English forces were concentrated for a great attack; the Pindarries seeing the hopelessness of resistance, fled; Chetoo, deprived of his followers, sought refuge in the forests of Malwa, where he was devoured by a tiger, and the Pindarries submitted (1818).

Pinhoe, The Battle of (1001), was fought between the English and the Danes, in which the latter were victorious. Pinhoe is a village three miles east of Exeter.

Pinkie Cleuch, The Battle of (Sept. 10, 1547), was fought during the Protector Somerset's campaign. The two forces were drawn up on each side of the Esk, the English under Somerset and Warwick, the Scotch under the Earl of Huntly. The Scotch crossed the river and at first gained the advantage, but were scattered by a great charge of the English.

Pipe Rolls, The, or Great Rolls of the Exchequer, are preserved in the Record Office and are almost perfect from 2 Henry II. to the present date. They relate to all matters connected with the revenue of the crown, crown lands, &c., and are of great value for historical and genealogical purposes. A Pipe Roll Society, for the publication of these documents, was formed in 1883.

Pipewell, The Council of (1199), was held by Richard I., immediately after his coronation, to raise money and make other preparations for his Crusade. Pipewell Abbey is in Northamptonshire, in the neighbourhood of Rockingham.

Pitcairn Island. In April, 1798, the crew of H.M.S. *Bounty* mutinied, owing to the harsh conduct of their commander, Lieutenant Bligh. After many adventures, a remnant of the mutineers reached Pitcairn Island in the Pacific Ocean, where, together with some women, natives of islands in the South Seas, they formed a settlement, remarkable for the orderly and exemplary conduct of its inhabitants. Their descendants inhabit the island to this day. The settlement was visited by Captain Elliot in 1839, who gave such a favourable report of the state of the islanders, that assistance was sent out to them by the government.

Pitt, William (*b.* 1759, *d.* 1806), the son of the first Earl of Chatham and Lady Hester Grenville, was born May 28, 1759, and very early gave signs of his future greatness in his marvellous precocity. In 1773 he went up to Pembroke Hall, Cambridge, where his industry led him to devour mathematics and classics alike. He left Cambridge soon after his father's death, and, being called to the bar in 1780, went the Western Circuit. But in the autumn of that year a general

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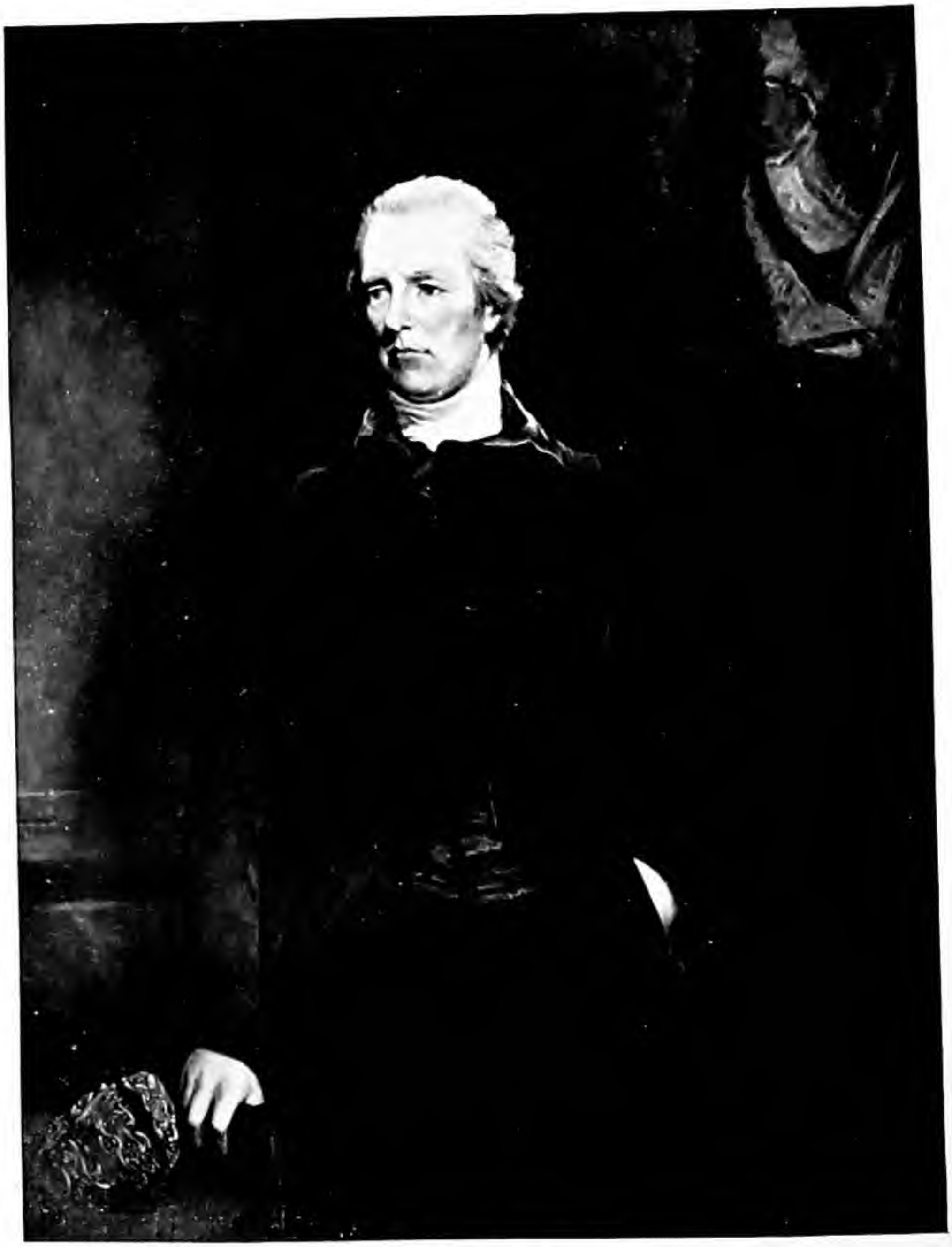


Photo: Emery Walker.

WILLIAM PITT.

From the portrait by Hoppner in the National Portrait Gallery.

election took place, and Pitt was returned to Parliament for Appleby. In the following February Pitt made his first speech in favour of Burke's plan for Economical Reform. His power was recognised at once; Fox proclaimed him one of the first men in Parliament. He continued to gain influence and admiration by every speech he made. Early in December news came of Cornwallis's surrender in America, and Pitt seized the opportunity to attack the government. The ministry resigned, and was succeeded by Rockingham's cabinet. Pitt was offered the Vice-Treasurership of Ireland; but he knew his own value, and declined the offer, which would not have given him a seat in the cabinet. He nevertheless supported the government till Rockingham's death. Then followed Lord Shelburne's brief tenure of office, succeeded by the Coalition. When that came to an end in Dec., 1783, the king invited Pitt to form a government. Never had a Prime Minister a more difficult task before him. In December the majority against him was almost two to one; but such was Pitt's resolution and tact, that by March 5, 1784, it had dwindled, after sixteen divisions, down to a bare majority of one. The country at large was vehement in its support of the government, and the city of London presented Pitt with its freedom. Pitt now dissolved the Parliament, and government candidates were everywhere returned. Pitt at twenty-four "domineered absolutely over the cabinet, and was the favourite at once of the sovereign, the Parliament, and the nation." Already in 1782 he had demanded an inquiry into the system of Parliamentary representation. When, however, he was in power with a large majority at his back, he was prevented by the king's strenuous opposition from again introducing the subject, and the French Revolution soon had the effect of driving the mere notion of reform of any kind out of men's minds. He nevertheless did make an effort in that direction when, in 1785, he introduced a bill "to amend the representation of the people of England in Parliament." During his first eight years of power, Pitt enjoyed a time of tranquillity and peace, when there were no wars being carried on by England, at any rate at a nearer distance than India, and the country and Parliament alike were anxious to see carried out some of the numerous reforms which had been so often talked about. The first of these measures which Pitt approached was the vexed question of Indian government, which had proved the death of the Coalition ministry. Pitt's India Bill was quite successful, and was followed by his scheme for the reduction of the National Debt. In the same year (1786) began the measures for the impeachment of Warren Hastings. Pitt took no active part in it, though he gave his support to the prosecution. In 1788 the king fell ill, and Pitt, supporting the constitutional view of the Regency question against Fox, who warmly took up the cause of the Prince of Wales, attached himself more firmly than ever to George III. In the same year he advocated with all his eloquence a Bill for the Abolition of the Slave Trade. When the French Revolution broke out, Pitt appeared in a new light. For the remaining years of his life he was chiefly engaged in leading the European opposition to France. His war administration, however, was far from fortunate, and his military enterprises were ill-planned and unsuccessful. But at home he still held his own in the confidence of his countrymen. He saw the immediate necessity for the union of Ireland with England; but the king's narrow-minded obstinacy prevented him combining Union with Catholic Emancipation, which alone, he said, would make the Union effectual. But Pitt was not the man to be baulked in his endeavours to fulfil a promise; and, as he could not have his own way in the matter, he resigned, in 1801, the post which he had held so triumphantly for seventeen years, and with him went all the abler members of his administration. "All that was left to the king was to call up the rear ranks of the old ministry to form the front rank of a new ministry." Addington became Prime Minister, and for a time seemed to succeed, chiefly by the help of Pitt, who supported him, and by the conclusion of a peace with France on the terms of the Treaty of Amiens. But the real incapacity of Addington, combined with the restless ambition of Bonaparte, at length compelled Pitt to assume a different attitude towards the ministry. Parliament and the nation at large looked to Pitt as the only man who could save the country in the event of the war which it was seen must soon be continued with France. Addington felt the pressure on all sides, but tried to come to terms with Pitt, which would still leave him in the possession of a large share of power. In May, 1803, Pitt emerged from the retirement in which he had been living, and made a great speech, advocating the declaration of war. In April, 1804, Addington resigned. Pitt was commanded to form a ministry. He desired a broad government, which should include all the highest talent in the kingdom — Fox, Grenville, Windham, and others. But the king's obstinacy once more defeated an excellent scheme. Pitt yielded, and formed a Tory administration. Most strenuous efforts were made both at home, and by the development of foreign combinations, to avert the threatening danger; and the glorious victory of Trafalgar in Oct., 1805, crushed the French navy. But the close of Pitt's career is melancholy. The Opposition, which had refrained from any factious resistance to the war policy of the government, in April, 1805, proposed a vote of censure on Lord Melville for mismanagement of the navy while Treasurer

under Pitt's former administration. Pitt stood by his old friend; but the Speaker's casting vote decided a division against the accused. Pitt regarded the adverse vote as almost a vote of censure on himself, and was quite crushed. In the following July, Parliament was prorogued; but the war was carried on with Napoleon's usual activity. In September Pitt had the satisfaction of negotiating with Russia and Austria a general coalition against Napoleon, who in reply made every preparation for invading England. Circumstances, however, prevented him from carrying out that scheme, and he turned his attention to the Continent. The capitulation of the Austrian army at Ulm on Oct. 19 was the first result of this change of plan. The news proved a death-blow to Pitt, which even the news of Trafalgar four days later could not avert. The next day, at the Lord Mayor's dinner, he spoke the last words he was ever to utter in public. In December he retired to Bath to rest; but the news of Austerlitz completed the breakdown of his health. He was just able to travel to London in January for the opening of Parliament on the 21st; but when he arrived at Putney, he was too ill to attend, and two days later, on Jan. 23, 1806, he died. Pitt has been justly called the man of Parliamentary government. No man ever, from his earliest appearance in the House of Commons to his latest days, exercised so absolute a sway over that assembly. By his incorruptible integrity, conspicuously displayed during nineteen years, he did more than any one man to crush out the corruption in high places which had prevailed during the first eighty years of the eighteenth century.

Massey, *Hist.*; Stanhope, *Pitt*; *Grenville Correspondence*; *Pitt's Speeches*; *Parl. Hist.*; Jesse, *Mem. of Reign of George III.*; May, *Const. Hist.*; Macaulay, *Essays*; Adolphus, *Hist.*; Lord Rosebery, *Wm. Pitt.* [W. R. S.]

Place Bills. The First (1672) was a measure congenial to the Tory reformers of William III.'s reign. Its object was summarily to exclude all placemen from the House of Commons. "Nobody thought of drawing a line between the few functionaries who ought to be allowed to sit in the House of Commons, and the crowd of functionaries who ought to be shut out. A member who was to be chosen after 1693 was not to accept any place whatever." The bill was violently opposed in the Upper House, Marlborough making a great speech in its support. When the question was put, forty-two were in its favour and forty-four against it. Proxies were called, however, and the bill was lost by three votes. Next year the bill was introduced again, and again easily passed the Commons. It provided that no member of the House of Commons, elected after Jan. 1, 1694, should accept any place of profit under the crown, on pain of forfeiting his seat, and of being incapable of sitting again in the same Parliament. The Lords added the wise amendment, "unless he be afterwards chosen to serve in the same Parliament." The Commons agreed to this amendment. William, who appears to have misunderstood the nature of the bill, refused his assent. The angry Commons first passed an address, affirming that those who had advised the king on this occasion were public enemies; and then, on the motion of Harley, appointed a committee to draw up a representation to the king. William, however, in his reply, yielded nothing. "Thus ended, more happily than William had a right to expect, one of the most dangerous contests in which he ever engaged with his Parliament." In 1694 the bill was introduced again into the Commons. It was thrice read, but on the third reading was rejected by thirty-three votes. The result of the bill would have, as Ranke remarks, caused "Parliament and the administration to stand against one another as two distinct bodies." The Second (1743) was originally proposed by Sandys, but subsequently opposed by him on the ground that George II. was antagonistic to the measure. "Derided," says Hallam, "though it was at the time, it had considerable effect; excluding a great number of inferior officers from the House of Commons, which has never since contained so revolting a list of court-deputies as it did in the age of Walpole."

Plantagenet, the name by which the house of Anjou is generally known, is derived from *planta genista*, the broom-plant, a sprig of which was usually worn by Geoffrey of Anjou, father of Henry II., on his cap. It is doubtful whether this custom of his is to be taken to indicate his love of field-sports, or as a sign that he was not ashamed of the humble origin of the house of Anjou, which had for its founder a woodman of Rennes. [Angevins.]

Plantagenet, Family of. [Angevins.]

Plassey, The Battle of (June 23, 1757), was fought by Clive against the troops of Surajah Dowlah in the campaign undertaken to avenge the massacre of the Black Hole of Calcutta. Clive having concluded his arrangements with Meer Jaffier, addressed a letter to Surajah Dowlah, recapitulating the grievances which the English had to complain of, and stating that he was coming to Moorshedabad to arrange them. He set out from Chandernagore on June 13 with an army of 1,000 Europeans, 2,000 natives, and eight pieces of cannon. Meer Jaffier, however, proved faithless, and on the 19th the rains set in with great violence. Clive saw that he had advanced too far to recede, and that there would be more danger in retiring than proceeding. Accordingly he called a council of war on the question, and it was almost unanimously decided not to risk an action. In spite of this, however, on June 22, the British

force crossed the Hooghly, and at midnight encamped in a grove of mango-trees at Plassey. In the morning the Nabob's troops, headed by a body of fifty Frenchmen, were in motion, and the assault began with a furious cannonade. The English escaped the shots by sitting down under cover of a high bank. About noon a slight shower damaged the enemy's powder. They were compelled to withdraw their artillery, and Clive advanced vigorously to the attack of their lines. In spite of the gallantry of the French, Clive was able to storm the camp, rout the whole army, and pursue them for about six miles. The enemy, it is supposed, lost about 500 men; the English only seventy-two. The Nabob, influenced by the conspirators, had been the first to fly, and, mounted on a camel, and followed by about 2,000 horse, bore to his capital the news of his disgrace.

Mill, *Hist. of India*; Gleig, *Life of Clive*.

Platen, Madame de, was a sister of the Countess of Darlington, the mistress of George I. We find the sisters supporting Carteret against Walpole and Townshend, who relied on the influence of the Duchess of Kendal. She received a bribe of £10,000 to facilitate the passing of the South Sea Bill. In 1723 a marriage was arranged between her daughter and the Count of St. Florentin, but the countess required as a condition that a dukedom should be granted to the bridegroom. This Carteret, as Secretary for the Southern Department, exerted himself to obtain from the Duke of Orleans. Horace Walpole was thereupon sent by his brother to Paris to counteract the intrigue. Madame de Platen was ultimately consoled by a portion of £10,000 from George, but the interference of Walpole caused Carteret to retire to the lord-lieutenancy of Ireland.

Playhouse Bill, The (1737), was brought forward by Sir Robert Walpole in order to check the indecency of the stage. His Playhouse Act was an amendment to the Vagrant Act of Queen Anne's reign. "It declared," says Lord Stanhope, "that any actor without a legal settlement, or a licence from the Lord Chamberlain, should be deemed a rogue and a vagabond. To the Lord Chamberlain it gave legal power instead of customary privilege; authorising him to prohibit the representation of any drama at his discretion, and compelling all authors to send copies of their plays fourteen days before they were acted, under forfeiture of £50, and of the licence of the house. Moreover, it restrained the number of playhouses, by enjoining that no person should have authority to act except within the liberties of Westminster, and where the king should reside." The bill was carried in spite of the vigorous opposition of Lord Chesterfield; and its effect in subjecting all plays acted to the previous examination of the Lord Chamberlain and the officials appointed by him, has never been undone.

Pleas, The Court of Common, or Common Bench, gained existence as a separate court from the curia regis by the 17th article of Magna Charta, which provided that "common pleas should not follow the court, but be held in some fixed place." In the early part of the reign of Henry III. it was distinguished from the Exchequer and the King's Bench as having cognisance of the private suits of subjects. The Court of Common Pleas was held at Westminster. In the reign of Edward I. the Barons of the Exchequer were forbidden to interfere in its jurisdiction, and from the beginning of that reign commences a regular series of Chief Justices of Common Pleas. A full bench consisted of the Chief Justice and of four (after 31 & 32 Vic., of five) puisne judges. This court had a concurrent jurisdiction with the Queen's Bench and Exchequer in personal actions and ejectment. It had an exclusive jurisdiction in real actions. Under the Parliamentary Elections Act of 1868, and under the Railway and Canal Act of 1853, it also received appeals from the Revising Barristers' courts. Appeals from this court formerly lay to the King's Bench, but were transferred by 21 Geo. IV. and 1 Will. IV. to the judges of the King's Bench and the Barons of the Exchequer sitting in the Exchequer Chamber. The exclusive jurisdiction of the court was maintained by the Judicature Act of 1873, for the Common Pleas Division, but in virtue of s. 31 it has since been merged by Order of Council in the general jurisdiction of the High Court of Justice.

Wharton, *Law Lexicon*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, ii. 266.

[W. H.]

Plegmund, Archbishop of Canterbury 890—914, was a man of very extensive literary acquirements, and one of the chief ornaments of Alfred's court. It is generally supposed that it is to him that we owe the compilation of a portion of the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, and it is known that he assisted the king in many of his literary undertakings, notably in the translation of Gregory's pastorals. "He carried out consistently the plans of Alfred, and laboured diligently to secure for the Church a learned ministry."

Asser, *Vita Alfredi*; William of Malmesbury, *Gesta Pontificum*; Hook, *Archbishops*.

Plunket, William Conyngham, 1st Lord Plunket (*b.* 1764, *d.* 1854), the son of a Presbyterian minister, was educated at Trinity College, and in 1787 called to the Irish bar. In 1807 he became member for Midhurst; in 1812 for Dublin University. He was one of the most brilliant speakers in an age of orators. He was not a Whig, but a follower of Lord Grenville. In 1821, after Grattan's death, he became the chief pro-

moter of Catholic Emancipation (q.v.) in Parliament. He had before been Solicitor-General, and in 1821 became Attorney-General, for Ireland. As such he proceeded *ex officio* against the promoters of the "Bottle Plot" (q.v.), and his conduct was criticised in Parliament, but he was able to vindicate it successfully. In 1827 Canning tried to get him made Lord Chancellor of Ireland, but the king refused. He was, however, made Lord Chief Justice of the Irish Court of Common Pleas, and a peer. In 1830 he became Lord Chancellor of Ireland.

Poitiers, THE BATTLE OF (Sept. 19, 1356), was the second of Edward the Black Prince's great victories over the French. In 1355 the truce which had been concluded for eight years came to an end. The Black Prince at the head of a great army, largely composed of mercenaries, landed in Guienne, and marched up the Garonne, plundering the country. The following year he marched towards the Loire; but near Poitiers he found his way barred by 60,000 men under King John of France. The prince's army is said not to have exceeded 8,000; but it was very strongly posted behind lanes, hedges, and vineyards, which were lined with archers. His offers to treat were rejected, and the French horse pressed on up the lane. But they fell back in confusion before the arrows of the English. At the same time they were charged in flank by the English cavalry, while the main body of the English foot advanced on their front. The French fought desperately, but were completely routed. 8,000 of them were killed, and among the crowd of prisoners was King John himself.

Froissart, *Chronicle*; Jehan le Bel, *Chroniques*; Longman, *Edward the Third*.

Poitiers, WILLIAM OF (*b. circa* 1020), was a Norman soldier who subsequently took orders, and became one of William the Conqueror's chaplains. He wrote *Gesta Gulielmi*, an account of the Norman Conquest, embracing the period from 1036 to 1067. Being a contemporary account, his history is of considerable value.

Pole, ARTHUR, son of Geoffrey Pole, and nephew of Cardinal Pole, attempted in 1562 to form a conspiracy in conjunction with his brother, Edward Pole, and with the aid of the Duke of Guise, against Elizabeth, offering in case of his success to sink his own claims to the throne in favour of Mary Queen of Scots. The plot was discovered before it came to anything, and Pole was sent to the Tower, and condemned though not executed. His claims to the throne, by which he hoped to win over a large number of adherents, were derived from George, Duke of Clarence, brother of Edward IV.

Pole, JOHN DE LA; MICHAEL DE LA. [SUFFOLK.]

Pole, REGINALD, CARDINAL (*b.* 1500, *d.* 1558), was the younger son of Sir Richard Pole, by Margaret, daughter of George, Duke of Clarence, brother of Edward IV. Though educated for the Church and destined for the highest ecclesiastical preferments, he gave up all his prospects rather than acquiesce in the divorce of Queen Catherine and the separation of England from the Papacy. He retired to Italy, and was made a cardinal by Paul III. He was the intimate associate of Contarini and the early reformers of Catholicism; had an important share in the business of the Curia, and, it is said, narrowly missed the papal chair. He took a leading part in the Council of Trent, though that assembly condemned his doctrine of justification. He never lost sight of England; wrote a book against Henry; constantly stirred up the Catholic powers against him, and was the leading representative of English Catholicism in Europe. At last the reaction under Mary restored him to England as papal legate and Archbishop of Canterbury. He was her leading adviser in ecclesiastical affairs, though he is said to have been averse to some of the more brutal aspects of her persecutions. Towards the end of his life he was involved in a quarrel with Paul IV., who deprived him of his legatine position.

Phillips, *Life of Pole*, with Ridley's *Animadversions*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*, and *Pole's Works*, including his *Epistolæ* and *De Schismate Anglicano*.

Polish Note, THE (1863). The news of the Polish insurrection, and its sanguinary suppression, excited great enthusiasm and sympathy in England and France for the Polish cause. France was ready for intervention if England would join. Earl Russell went to the extent of drawing up, in concert with France and Austria, a note on the subject, urging on the Russian government six points as the outline of a pacification of Poland. These were—a complete amnesty, a national representation, a distinct national administration of Poles for the kingdom of Poland, full liberty of conscience, with the repeal of all the restrictions imposed on Catholic worship, the recognition of the Polish language as official, the establishment of a regular system of recruiting. Lord Palmerston, however, refused to hear of anything like armed intervention. When Russia learnt that the note was a mere unsupported suggestion, she treated it coolly and contemptuously. The question, however, was brought up in the House of Commons by Mr. P. Hennessy. The result was a hot debate, in which Mr. Disraeli, Lord Palmerston, Mr. Walpole, Mr. Stansfeld, Lord Robert Cecil, and others, vied with each other in expressing detestation of these barbarities. A great meeting was held on the subject at the Guildhall, at which similar indignant speeches were delivered. Nothing, however,

was done by the government beyond the despatch of the Note.

Annual Register, 1863; Hansard's Debates; McCarthy, *Hist. of Our Own Time.*

Polish Question (1831—32). At the outbreak of the Polish rebellion England warmly sympathised with the rebels. At the same time Palmerston, occupied with the Belgian question, steadily refused to assist the Poles except by suggestions to Russia. But that power knew he would not interfere by arms, and his remonstrances were treated with derision. He made another attempt to obtain mercy for the Poles after the fall of Warsaw, but Nesselrode briefly informed him that the only obligation incumbent on Russia by the Treaty of Vienna, was the duty of maintaining the union, and that the constitution was a grace of the emperor, which had been forfeited by rebellion. In 1831, however, the woes of Poland attracted the attention of the House of Commons. But these attacks produced no result. The feeling in favour of the Poles grew as the news of the Russian cruelties was brought home, and in July, 1833, Mr. Cullar Fergusson moved an address to the crown in favour of the Poles. Palmerston, however, opposed this, urging that the British government could not do more than it had done, unless it declared war, and that the latter course would be hardly advisable. However, the most violent language was applied to Russia and its emperor in Parliament, and the feeling against them became so strong, that later in the session the ministry was compelled to give way, and grant a sum of £10,000 for the relief of the Polish exiles.

Annual Register; Hansard's Debates.

Pontage was a duty imposed upon all freemen for the making and repairing of bridges, and is the same as the "Brig-bot" of Anglo-Saxon times. In a charter of Edward I. to certain foreign merchants, we find them exempted from "pontage."

Poor, Roger le (or, Roger Pauper), was the son of Roger, Bishop of Salisbury. By his father's influence he was made Chancellor by King Stephen in 1135, but in 1139 he was, together with many other ministers, arrested by the king. He was carried to Devizes, where his cousin Nigel, Bishop of Ely, was holding out against the royal troops, and the threat that, unless he surrendered, his cousin should be put to death before his eyes, had the intended effect. After remaining in captivity for some time, he was released on condition of quitting the kingdom, to which he never returned.

Poor Law, The (Ireland). There was no legal provision for the Irish poor previous to the year 1828, though some two and a half millions were annually spent in charity. In 1838 the English system was introduced, and though the Irish were, and are, especially unwilling to enter a poor-house, it on the whole succeeded. During the famine, indeed, the poorer unions were very soon bankrupt, and Parliament was more than once called on to relieve them. At last, in 1849, the Rate in Aid Bill was passed, by which to relieve the poor districts of Connaught—a general rate all over Ireland was resorted to, government lending £100,000 for the relief of immediate distress, on this security.

Poor Laws is the name which has been given to the legislation providing for the relief and maintenance of the destitute. In mediæval England the care of the helpless poor was undertaken generally by the lords of manors, the parochial clergy, the monasteries, and religious guilds, and in the case of poor craftsmen by the trade guilds. After the Black Death in 1349 the surviving labourers refused to work, except at higher wages. By an Act of the same year (the first of the many "Statutes of Labourers") an attempt was made to force all able-bodied men to work, and almsgiving to "sturdy" or "valiant" beggars was forbidden. In the Act of 1388, confirming the Statute of Labourers, appears the first germ of a law of settlement. The labourer was thereby forbidden to leave his place of service, or to wander about the country without a passport; impotent beggars were to remain where they were at the passing of the Act, or if not there provided for, to seek a maintenance within their hundreds, or in the places where they were born. In the Acts of 1495 and 1504 it was further provided that beggars should be "sent to the place where they were born, or have dwelt, or are best known, to support themselves by begging within the hundred."

In the sixteenth century the break-up of the system of the manor and craft-guild, the dissolution of the monasteries and religious guilds, and the increase of prices owing to debasement of the coinage, made the question of pauperism much more pressing than it had ever been before, and some systematic attempt to provide relief was necessary to prevent social anarchy. In 1536 it was enacted that while the "lusty" poor might be "daily kept on continual labour," the poor who were not able to work should be provided for. For this purpose the congregation of each parish were to be exhorted to charitable offerings, and a book was to be kept by the clergy showing how the money was spent. In 1551 collectors of alms at church on Sunday were to be appointed, and persons refusing to subscribe were to be expostulated with by the bishop. By a later Act the bishop was empowered to send them before the justices, who, if persuasion failed, could impose upon them the payment of a definite amount. It was not, however, till 1601 that a general compulsory rating was substituted for semi-voluntary

contribution. This Act, the foundation of English Poor Law, ordered the nomination by the justices of two or three overseers in each parish, who were empowered to raise the amount necessary for the relief of the poor by taxing every inhabitant. The Act drew a clear distinction between able-bodied poor unwilling to labour, or unable to find employment, who were to be set to work, and impotent poor unable to work, who were to be relieved. Persons able but refusing to labour were to be committed to prison.

The Law of Settlement, which took the place of the various Tudor statutes to suppress vagrancy by imprisonment, whipping, branding, and the like, began with an Act of 1662. This authorised the justices, upon complaint of the overseers, made within forty days of a person's coming to a strange parish, to order him to be removed to his own place of settlement, unless he could give securities to the parish against becoming chargeable to it. The natural result of this Act was to keep the poor to their own parishes, and to prevent labour going where it was needed. Intolerable tyranny was its outcome. In 1685 it was enacted that insomuch as "poor people at their first coming do commonly conceal themselves," the forty days should count from their giving notice of their residence to the overseers. In 1691 various other ways of obtaining settlement were established, such as payment of taxes for a year, or a year's hiring, or the serving of an annual office. Still more important was another provision of the same Act. In order to prevent misuse of the powers of overseers, it was ordered that a register should be kept of paupers and of the amounts received by them, that a new list should be made out yearly, and that no one else should receive relief, except by authority of one justice, or by order of the bench of justices at quarter sessions. This latter clause was speedily interpreted as empowering justices to order relief to applicants at their own discretion. An attempt was in vain made to meet the misuse of this power by an Act of 1723, which enacted that the applicant must prove that he had already applied to the parish officers, who must show cause why he was not relieved. But the evil result of allowing justices to act independently in the matter of relief were not very apparent till the end of the eighteenth century, and, on the whole, the Poor Law worked well down to 1760.

In 1697 a workhouse had been built in Bristol under a special Act, and there "the workhouse test" was first adopted, *i.e.*, willingness to enter the house was alone taken as a test of destitution. The plan proved so successful that it was imitated in some other towns, and by the Act of 1723 parishes were empowered, singly or in unions, to provide workhouses, with the proviso that persons refusing to enter such houses should be refused relief. This Act resulted in a great diminution of expenditure where adopted, yet it seems to have been carried out in comparatively few parishes.

The industrial revolution which began in the second half of the eighteenth century, and the increase of enclosures, led to a rapid extension of pauperism, which was still further encouraged by a slipshod philanthropy. By Gilbert's Act of 1782 parishes were empowered to form unions or incorporations with adjacent parishes; these incorporations were permitted to build workhouses. The justices were to appoint guardians (paid officials, like modern relieving-officers) to administer relief. The Act of 1723 was practically repealed in the case of incorporations by the provision that none but the impotent were to be sent to the workhouse, while suitable employment was to be provided for the able-bodied near their own homes. Sixty-seven such incorporations were formed, and the result of the statute was that in five years the cost of relief rose from one and a half to two million pounds.

The pressure of the Continental war led to still more disastrous measures. In 1795 the Berkshire magistrates drew up a declaration (the so-called "Speenhamland Act of Parliament") fixing a scale of relief according to the price of wheat, and the number of children in a family, and they were imitated in several other counties. The practical effect of this was that relief was granted in aid of wages, and the farmers, themselves benefiting through their long leases by the high price of corn, were able to throw part of the cost of their labour upon non-farming residents in their parishes. Next year an Act legalised generally out-door relief, and formally repealed the Act of 1723. In 1801, moreover, the justices became the rating as well as the relieving authority. Some attempt was made in 1819 to improve the state of things by empowering such parishes as chose to elect a "select vestry" to superintend the overseers. In most parishes, however, especially in the rural districts, relief was still administered by the overseers, with the right of appeal to the justices on the part of the labourer when the overseers were not sufficiently pliant. The worst consequences followed—the agricultural labourers were pauperised, the bastardy laws made vice very profitable, and a premium was set on idleness and improvidence. Between 1784 and 1818 the amount of poor rate increased about three times as fast as population (population from eight millions to nearly twelve millions, poor rate from two million pounds to almost eight millions). These evils led to a commission of inquiry in 1833, and the great Act of 1834, the most important in the history of Poor Law after 1601. It attempted to restore the workhouse test for able-bodied paupers; parishes were grouped into unions, and placed under elected boards of guardians, and the guardians were put under a central board at

London — the Poor Law Commissioners, superseded in 1847 by the Poor Law Board, and that in 1871 by the Local Government Board, headed by a responsible minister as President. The measure was for a time very successful, and by 1841 the poor rate had fallen to £4,760,000. In 1844 the "Out-door Prohibitory Relief Order" finally forbade all relief except in the workhouse. But the commissioners still allowed out-door relief in case of sickness or "bodily infirmity," and this was speedily construed to cover relief to persons over sixty years of age incapable of earning wages. But this led once more to a rapid increase of out-door relief, encouraging improvidence, and causing wages to be lower than they would otherwise have been. During the ten years 1861 — 71 the expenditure rose from five and three-quarter to more than seven and three-quarter million pounds, and the number of paupers from 883,921 to 1,037,360. This increase of pauperism, together with the growth of a spirit of scientific philanthropy, led to strong efforts to enforce the workhouse test, and these have met with considerable success. They have been seconded in London by Goschen's Act of 1870, which placed workhouse expenditure on a metropolitan fund, while leaving out-door relief to be borne by each district. Since then the incidence of the metropolitan poor-rate has been so altered that the richer parishes pay more and the poorer parishes less. In 1905 a Royal Commission was appointed to inquire into the working of the laws relating to the relief of the poor. In 1909 its report was issued, pointing out the defects of the present Poor Law, and formulating proposals for reform.

For mediæval laws, see Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, iii., ch. xxi. The main authorities for the Poor Law are Nicholl, *Hist. of Poor Law*; Eden, *State of the Poor*; *Report of Poor Law Commission*, 1834; Glen, *Poor Law Orders*; Annual *Reports of Local Government Board*, and of the *Conferences of Poor Law Guardians*. *The Poor Law*, by Fowle, is an excellent history, covering the whole period, and giving parallel information as to other countries. The subject is treated in its relation to the general economic movement in Toynbee, *The Industrial Revolution*. For more recent efforts see Octavia Hill, *Homes of London Poor* and *Our Common Land*.

[W. J. A.]

Poorunder, The Treaty of (March 1, 1776), was concluded between the East India Company and the Poonah State. It annulled all the engagements of the Treaty of Surat to Ragoba, who was to disband his army and retire to the banks of the Godavery on a pension. The British army was to quit the field, Salsette was to be retained if the Governor-General desired it, but all other acquisitions were to be relinquished; the claim of the English on the revenues of Baroach was conceded with twelve lacs for the expenses of the war.

Popham, Sir John (*b.* 1531, *d.* 1607), appointed Solicitor-General in 1579, was next year elected Speaker of the House of Commons. He became Attorney-General the year after, an office which he held for eleven years, during which he took part in most of the important State trials of the period. In 1592, Popham succeeded Sir Christopher Wray as Lord Chief Justice, in which capacity he presided at the trials of Sir Walter Raleigh and the conspirators in the Gunpowder Plot. He is said to have been the originator of the idea of the transportation of felons to New England and other colonies. Sir Edward Coke calls him "a man of ready apprehension, profound judgment, most excellent understanding, and admirable experience and knowledge of all business which concerned the Commonwealth."

Foss, *Judges of Eng.*; Fuller, *Worthies.*

Popish Plot, The, was the name given to an imaginary conspiracy of the Catholics in the reign of Charles II. Though, no doubt, there were some projects for an attempt against the government agitated by the English Catholics, there is little doubt that the "plot" owed its existence chiefly to the imagination of Titus Oates and other informers. Oates was an English clergyman of bad character, who had become a Roman Catholic, and joined the Jesuits at St. Omer. In 1678 he deposed before a magistrate that he knew the particulars of a papist scheme, by which the king was to be killed, a Roman Catholic ministry appointed, and a massacre of the Protestants prepared with the assistance of a French army. A few days afterwards Sir Edmondbury Godfrey, the magistrate before whom Oates had sworn, was found murdered on Primrose Hill, and a universal panic spread over the nation, which seemed for the time to have lost its senses. The wildest stories of Oates and the informers who arose were believed without question Parliament met on Oct. 21, and the Commons resolved, "that there hath been, and still is, a damnable and hellish plot, carried on by papist recusants for assassinating the king, the subverting the government, and for rooting out the Protestant religion." The plot was taken up by Shaftesbury as a weapon against his political opponents and the Duke of York. On the evidence of Oates, Dangerfield, Carstairs, and Bedloe, many leading Roman Catholics were tried, convicted, and imprisoned, or executed, and Oates went so far as to swear that he had heard the queen give her consent to the king's murder. On Nov. 30 an Act was passed "for disabling papists from sitting in either Houses of Parliament." In March of the following year (1679) the bill to exclude the Duke of York from the throne was brought in, and though Charles deferred it for that year by a dissolution, it was carried through the Commons in Nov., 1680, and rejected in the House of Lords. In Dec., 1680, Lord Stafford, the

most distinguished of the victims of the Popish Plot, was executed. But by this time a reaction had set in. The judges would no longer convict on the evidence of the informers, and the people were alienated by what seemed like a Whig persecution of the Duke of York. In March, 1681, Charles dissolved his fifth Parliament, and governed without one during the remainder of his reign; and later in the year one of the false witnesses, College, was put on his trial, and condemned at Oxford, and Shaftesbury himself was prosecuted by the crown for treason, though the bill was thrown out by the grand jury in London. [OATES.]

Burnet, *Hist. of his Own Time;* Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.;* Christie, *Life of Shaftesbury*, Hallam, *Const. Hist.*

Population. There is no subject on which wilder guesses have been made than those which, without enumeration, or something equivalent to enumeration, have been hazarded about the population of cities and counties, about the numbers of contending or invading armies, and about the ravages of famine and pestilence. Accounts of those numbers have been given, occasionally with some statement which appears to be confirmatory, but which later research has accepted with distrust. Thus, Herodotus states a number for the invading host of Xerxes, and asserts in confirmation of his figures that a rough census was taken of the army and its followers. But in the more critical age of Juvenal the whole narrative was scouted as the invention of a vainglorious and mendacious Greek. In the same manner, but with a better critical apparatus, Hume, in his essay on the populousness of ancient cities, challenged the assertions of those who claimed millions where thousands would have been nearer the truth. In our own country the same exaggerations have been made, doubtless in good faith. Gascoigne, the critic, and in some degree the chronicler of the fifteenth century, a Chancellor of Oxford University, and a highly estimable and honourable person, alleges that he read the names of thirty thousand students in Oxford during the period immediately antecedent to the great Plague of 1349. They could not possibly have been housed in the town, or if housed, could hardly have been fed. We are told that sixty thousand persons perished by disease in Norwich between January and July in the above-named year, but it is certain that till the last thirty years, or thereabouts, Norwich has never had 60,000 inhabitants. Numbers are habitually exaggerated, and when panic is abroad the exaggeration rapidly becomes a geometrical ratio.

During the fourteenth century, and nearly to the end of the sixteenth, the population of England and Wales could not have been more than from two to two and a half millions. The proof of this statement is partly indirect, and partly direct. It may be confidently affirmed that, provided the inhabitants of a country subsist on one kind of grain, as the English from the remotest period have on wheat—more generally, indeed, from the Middle Ages to the eighteenth century than they even do at present—the number of persons in the country will be almost exactly equal to the number of quarters of wheat which is annually produced in the country. Now it could be shown, and it has been shown elsewhere, that the maximum produce of wheat in England and Wales from the beginning of the fourteenth to the close of the sixteenth century could not have been more than two and a half millions of quarters, and was probably much less, the average rate of production per acre being below eight bushels. The writer of this article has examined many thousands of farm accounts, giving the exact amount of produce from the acreage sown in all parts of England, and he is confident that eight bushels to the acre is a liberal estimate in average years.

We are not, however, without direct estimates. There are several taxing rolls in the Record Office, especially records of poll taxes, from which it is possible to arrive at an approximate estimate of population. One of those more than a century ago was published, and commented on in the *Archæologia*. In 1377, the last year of Edward III.'s reign, Parliament granted the king a poll tax of four pence a head on all lay persons over fourteen years of age, none but known beggars being exempted from contributing. Beneficed clergymen paid a shilling: other ecclesiastical persons, except mendicant friars, paid, like the laity, four pence. The number of persons who paid the tax in the whole country, and in the principal towns, is given, and Mr. Topham added one-third to the amount, in order to include the untaxed part of the population, a quantity which the vital statistics of the time entirely justified, though now, owing to sanitary improvements, the life of childhood is prolonged beyond what was to be expected then, and, therefore, the proportion of youth to a more adult age is higher. The forty-two towns, which are separately enumerated, had an aggregate population of 168,720 persons. The rest of the population in the county and small towns is 1,207,722. But from this enumeration Durham and Chester, and Wales, including Monmouth, are excluded, not being taxed in the grant. Mr. Topham put this population at 182,123, making a total of 1,558,565. By adding a third of this number for the children, and giving a very liberal allowance for beggars and begging friars, a total of two and a quarter millions is reached.

Again, there exists in the archives of the Record Office an enumeration of the population and the quantity of corn produced in nine of the Kentish hundreds. This was certainly made in the first half of the sixteenth century. Kent was one of the wealthiest

counties in mediæval England, if we take into account the large amount of down and woodland which it contains. The district referred to contained no large town then, and contains none now. The population was 14,813 in the period referred to, and was 88,080 in 1871, or almost exactly six times more. Now six times two and a half millions is about the number of persons who can in average years be supported by the produce of English agriculture, the residue being dependent on foreign supplies. It is in the highest degree improbable that calculation derived from these different elements should so closely agree in the conclusion, and that conclusion be an error.

The readers of Macaulay will remember that this author, in his excellent but unequal chapter on the state of England at the death of Charles II., argues with conclusive force that three separate calculations have been made as to the population of England and Wales about that time. Gregory King calculated the quantity from the hearth tax, and set it at five and a half millions. The second estimate is taken from a return made to William III. as to the number of the several religious sects, and concludes with a population of under five and a half millions. The third is that of a writer of our own time, who has gathered his inferences from the registers of baptisms, marriages, and burials, and reaches nearly the same figure. We could add a fourth estimate, which would arrive at almost exactly the same conclusion, viz., from the rate of production from the soil, which was at this time more than double that at which it stood in the period from the accession of Edward III. in 1327 to the death of Elizabeth in 1603, so great had been the progress of agriculture during the seventeenth century, and we may add, also, of opulence.

The fact is, a country will always contain as many people as can subsist on the produce of its own soil, or, being engaged in manufacture and trade, can procure from foreign sources the whole or part of what it needs for its subsistence. Occasionally it produces nothing, but gets all its wants from external sources, as Venice did in the time of its greatest opulence and power. More frequently, if it be eminent as a trading or manufacturing country, it obtains a portion of its supplies in exchange for its service as a trader, or for its goods as a producer. The population will be nearly or quite stationary if it cannot expand in the direction of trade, or of generally merchantable commodities. The population may be stationary by reason of climate, or, perhaps, of race, but the soil of a diminishing fertility, or the soil of an unequal progression, will be filled by foreign immigrants. It is sometimes said that the native population of the American Union, especially in the Eastern States, is unprogressive, though this has been denied or disputed. But the accession of the foreign population in America is an enormous annual total, and would be, even if the growth of the native-born stocks was obvious and indisputable. The fact is, the production of food within the limits of the American Union is vastly in excess of the possible wants of the existing population.

Fears have been expressed that the growth and increase of the human race would at no remote period induce some enormous calamity, that the area of cultivable land is limited, that the power of occupation is limited, and that the facilities of transport are limited also. But at present, and as far as one can interpret the facts, for an indefinite future these contingencies are increasingly distant. The distribution of products is rendered year by year more easy, and the distribution of labour, though certainly not so obvious and immediate, is sufficiently easy for some relief to a local plethora of labour, or to a temporary lack of employment, or for the attractiveness of a new field of labour. It is not, indeed, true, as some modern socialists have alleged, that a rapid growth of population can never meet with a glutted market, or deficient sustenance, but there are checks which the theorists of the pessimist view do not enumerate, and there are risks which the optimist interpreters of the situation do not recognise. If Malthus and Ricardo and the elder and younger Mill had been told that the three kingdoms would presently contain nearly forty millions of people, and that food would be cheaper, employment more constant, and wages higher that when they sought to interpret the facts, they would have possibly retained their theories, but would have been far less confident in their accuracy.

Over-population, like over-production, is partial, and confined to particular employments or classes. When a calling is prosperous or reputable it attracts persons, and those who are attracted are not easily able to abandon their choice. In the United States, and the English colonies, where there is a boundless field for certain callings, there is a very restricted market for others. In these countries there has long been an over-population of clerks and shopmen, and such persons have been warned for many years past that there is no field for their service in a country which has infinite opportunities, for in truth there never is an over-population of industrial agents, whose services are permanently and increasingly in demand, and there always is an over-population of those who cannot find employment for the labour which they think they can give, but which the market does not estimate. So, again, there are employments of capitalists which are over-crowded, perhaps at present more so than among artisans. [For the numbers of the population since 1801, see CENSUS.]

The theory of population is discussed by many writers, from Gregory King in the seventeenth

century down to the economists of our own time. The principal work, on which the largest and most permanent controversy has been waged, is that of Malthus (q.v.). See Godwin, *Political Justice*; Doubleday, *Theory of Population*; the writings of the two Mills, father and son; and, for the ancient condition of England, Rogers, *Agriculture and Prices*, and *Six Centuries of Work and Wages*. [J. E. T. R.]

Porteous Riots, The, were occasioned by the hanging of a smuggler named Wilson at Edinburgh in 1736. Captain Porteous, of the City Guard, ordered his men to fire on the rioters, some of whom were killed. Condemned to death, Porteous was respited by the Government, but was seized by the populace and hanged. The Lord Provost was declared incapable of further office, and the city was compelled to pay £1,500 to Porteous's widow.

Portland, Richard Weston, Earl of (*b.* 1577, *d.* 1635), became collector of the customs in the port of London, and one of the commissioners charged with the reform of the navy (1618). In Sept., 1621, he was appointed Chancellor of the Exchequer. In 1624 he strongly opposed war with Spain, but contrived to preserve Buckingham's favour, and was created Baron Weston, April 13, 1628. In the House of Lords he strove to amend the Petition of Right by inserting a clause saving the king's "sovereign right," and two months later was made Lord Treasurer (July, 1628). After Buckingham's death he succeeded to his influence, and became the king's chief adviser. As such he advised the dissolution of the third Parliament, and was threatened with impeachment by Eliot. In foreign affairs he aimed at an understanding with Spain, and he opposed intervention in the German War. His influence in the Council was assailed by Laud, by the queen, by the Earl of Holland, and many others, yet he retained the king's confidence till his death. He was created Earl of Portland in 1633.

Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng.*; Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion.*

Portland, William Bentinck, Earl of, afterwards Duke of (*b.* 1649, *d.* 1709), was a member of a noble Dutch family, and a close friend of William III. His friendship with William of Orange is said to have originated from his nursing the prince through a severe attack of small-pox. On the discovery of the Rye House Plot he was sent by William of Orange to England to congratulate Charles II. and the Duke of York on their escape. He was sent to England in 1687 in order to confer with the leaders of the Opposition there. He accompanied William to England. In 1689 he was in favour of William's sole claim to the throne, and had a violent dispute with Burnet on the subject. In 1690 he was sent by William to Holland in order to calm Amsterdam, where the citizens refused to allow William to nominate the magistrates. He had been created Earl of Portland, and Groom of the Stole. He accompanied the king to Ireland, and commanded a troop of Dutch horse. In Jan., 1691, he sailed with William for Holland. William had given him large grants of land in Wales, but the hostility of the Commons compelled him to revoke the grant (1695). In July, 1697, a series of informal interviews took place between him and Marshal Boufflers at Hull, while the conference was sitting at Ryswick, with a view to terms of peace. It was through these interviews that the Treaty of Ryswick was eventually concluded (Sept., 1697). Meanwhile the friendship between Portland and William was growing cold, for the former showed an unworthy jealousy of the king's new favourite, Arnold Van Keppel. Next year, therefore, the king sent him to Paris at the head of a magnificent embassy. Portland executed his duties with fidelity. Together with Marshal Tallard, he laid down the lines of the Partition Treaty. Portland returned to England, and in the beginning of 1699 surprised everyone by resigning his office as Chamberlain. His jealousy of Keppel seems still to have been the motive that influenced him. The quarrel between Portland and Albemarle grew in intensity, and at length he retired altogether from court. In 1701, he came forward to defend the Second Partition Treaty. Together with Somers he was impeached for his share in the matter, and the Commons requested that he might be removed from the king's councils. There were additional charges against him for grants and dilapidations of the royal revenue. But the Commons, who refused to appear at the trial of Somers, allowed the impeachments to drop. He was present at the deathbed of William, and in his last moments the king took the hand of his old friend and pressed it tenderly to his heart. Portland lived in retirement for the remainder of his life. "Bentinck," says Macaulay, "was early pronounced by Temple to be the best and truest servant that ever prince had the good fortune to possess, and continued through life to merit that honourable character."

Burnet, *Hist. of his Own Time*; Boyer, *Annals*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*

Portugal, Relations with. The friendly relations which Henry II. had established with the princes of the Iberian peninsula made the few dealings between the early Portuguese monarchs and the English court of a generally amicable nature. More intimate relations began when the Black Prince became the partisan of Peter the Cruel of Castile, and John of Gaunt claimed his throne as his daughter's husband. The reigning King of Portugal, Don Ferdinand, joined the English against Henry of Trastamare, who had succeeded in winning the throne of Peter. In

1381 an English army, under the Earl of Cambridge, who had also married a daughter of Peter's, came into Portugal; but very little was done, the English troops behaved badly, and Ferdinand concluded a truce with the Castilians. The marriage of Cambridge's son John to Beatrice, the king's daughter, was annulled on the retirement of the English, and on Ferdinand's death in 1383, Don John of Avis had to fight for his throne against Beatrice's husband, King John of Castile. In 1386 John of Gaunt came with an English army to help the new king, whom he married to his daughter Philippa. But the campaigns proved unfortunate, and John of Gaunt abandoned both Portugal and his hopes of the Castilian crown. The career of maritime glory into which Portugal embarked in the fifteenth century brought it into no direct relations with England, though it prepared the way for later English enterprise; and when the English first appeared in India they were welcomed by the Great Mogul as likely to counterbalance the Portuguese. Intimate commercial relations between England and Portugal also sprang up during the later Middle Ages. The conquest of Portugal in 1580 by Philip II. of Spain led to the fitting out of the Armada in Lisbon harbour, but also to the English affording a refuge to Don Antonio Prior of Crato, the popular candidate for the Portuguese throne, in whose behalf Drake, in 1589, avenged the Armada by an expedition to the coast of Portugal. But though Antonio accompanied the fleet, it did more harm to Spain than good to Portugal, and the plundering of Portuguese vessels, and the devastation of Portuguese colonies by the English, involved their old ally in their war against her new master. In 1640 Portugal began her successful revolt under John of Braganza against Spain. One of the first acts of the new State was to conclude, in 1642, a commercial treaty with Charles I.; but this rather complicated its relations with the government of the Commonwealth. In 1650 John refused to surrender the fleet of Princes Rupert and Maurice, which had taken refuge in the Tagus, to Blake; an act which, despite the voluntary retirement of the princes, caused some disagreement. But in 1652 the English war against the Dutch, the enemies of Portugal, and Cromwell's adoption of an anti-Spanish policy soon after, made it an easy matter to renew in 1654 the treaty of 1642. This began the political and commercial dependence of Portugal on England, which was continued by the marriage of Catherine of Braganza to Charles II.; a measure necessitated by the abandonment of the Portuguese by the French in the Treaty of the Pyrenees, and justified by the security it gave to Portuguese independence, both against the Spaniards and Dutch. But the cession of Bombay and Tangier almost acknowledged the commercial supremacy of the English. At last the designs of Louis XIV. on Spain involved the Portuguese in hostility to him, and justified the conclusion of the Methuen Treaty (q.v.) in 1706, which completed the dependence of Portugal. Through it Portuguese armies fought with Stanhope and Galway against the French and Spaniards during the Succession War. All through the eighteenth century Portugal, like Holland, was a satellite of England. The whole trade of Portugal fell into English hands. The commerce of Lisbon and Oporto was entirely carried on by English factors. The vineyards of the Douro, and the mines of Brazil, were ultimately quite dependent on English capital. The bread which the Portuguese ate, and the clothes which they wore, were brought from England; and, what was worse to disciples of the mercantile system, the "balance of trade" was constantly in favour of the English. The famous Marquis of Pombal, who, during the reign of King Joseph (1750—1777) upheld almost alone the power of Portugal, sought to change this dependence into alliance on equal terms. The English factors and Jesuits combined to plot his ruin; but his triumph resulted in a transient revival of Portuguese trade through his commercial companies, and Pitt was willing to accept the assistance of the Portuguese army, which the Count von der Lippe had reorganised in the war against Spain at the close of the Seven Years' War. The death of King Joseph, and the fall of Pombal, renewed the degradation of Portugal. The war against revolutionary France again necessitated its dependence on England. Even in 1801, when France and Spain were united against it, Portugal struggled some time before accepting the Treaty of Madrid, which gave France equal commercial rights with England. But the refusal of Portugal in 1807 to accept the Continental system involved it in fresh hostilities with France. English help alone forced Junot to conclude the Convention of Cintra. Henceforth Portugal was the basis of operations against the French during the whole Peninsular War. Government and army became alike dependent on England, and the Portuguese troops, disciplined by Beresford, proved no unworthy allies of the English under Wellington. The conclusion of the war left Portugal, where the liberal spirit was rising, in the hands of the tyrannical government of a king who had sought in Brazil a secure refuge from the French. In 1822 a constitution was obtained; but in 1824 an absolutist reaction under Don Miguel took place; which was renewed in 1828. Canning exerted all his energies in favour of the constitutional party. But after his death the Wellington ministry took a neutral attitude, which practically meant supporting Don Miguel. The heroic struggle of Dona Maria provoked, however, much sympathy, and in 1833 an English

expedition under Napier powerfully assisted in the triumph of the constitutional party, and the quadruple alliance of England, France, and Spain with Portugal guaranteed their success. In 1835 the Methuen Treaty was annulled. The recent ambition of Portugal to take part in the colonising of Africa received a check in 1889, when Lord Salisbury forced her to abandon her claims to Nyassaland.

Schäfer, *Geschichte von Portugal*; Bouchot, *Histoire de Portugal et de ses Colonies*; Pauli, *Geschichte von England*; Schanz, *Englische Handelspolitik*; *The British Merchant*; Mahon, *War of the Succession in Spain*; *The Rights of an Englishman in Portugal*; Napier, *Peninsular War*; Carnota, *The Marquis of Pombal*.

Portugal, The Journey of, was the name given to the expedition undertaken in the year 1589 to wrest the Portuguese crown from Philip of Spain, and bestow it on Don Antonio, an illegitimate son of Henry of Portugal. The expedition, which was under the command of Sir Francis Drake and Sir John Norris, sailed in March, 1589. Corunna was partly destroyed, while Norris defeated a large force of Spaniards who had come to relieve the city. Drake then sailed up the Tagus to Lisbon, whilst Norris landed at Peniche and marched overland to join him. Lisbon, however, was too strong to be taken, the country refused to rise for the Pretender, and in May the expedition returned home.

Post-Nati, Case of the. On the accession of James I. to the throne of England, it became a question whether his Scottish subjects, born after his accession to the English throne (*post-nati*), were aliens in England or not. The Scots contended that they were not, and the same view was taken by the judges in the House of Lords. In the House of Commons it was contended that a statute would be required to naturalise them. The point was decided in the Court of Exchequer Chamber, when ten of the twelve judges decided that a *post-natus* was not an alien in England.

Post Office, The, as a government service, may be said to date from the reign of Charles I., who in 1635 commanded his "Postmaster of England for foreign parts" to establish postal communication between Edinburgh and London. In 1710 the system which had developed from this beginning was remodelled, a general post office for the three kingdoms being set up, under the control of a "Postmaster-general." In 1840 Rowland Hill's penny postage scheme was adopted by Parliament. The Savings Bank department was added in 1861, and in 1870 the Government took over the telegraph service. The Postal Union was formed in 1874.

Poynings, Sir Edward (*d.* 1521), after a distinguished military career was sent to Ireland as Lord-Deputy by Henry VII. soon after his accession. He was very successful both in subduing the partisans of the house of York, and in quelling the native Irish rebels in Ulster, and along the borders of the Pale. He reduced the eastern portion of the island to order. His period of government is specially noted for the passing in December, 1494, of "Poynings' Act," by which it was enacted that all existing English laws should be in force in Ireland, and that no Parliament should be held in Ireland without the sanction of the king and council, who should also be able to disallow statutes passed by the Irish Houses. Thus the legislative independence of the English colony in Ireland was at an end. "Poynings' Act" was only repealed in 1782.

Præcipe, The Writ of, was a peremptory command addressed to the sheriff, ordering him to send a particular cause to be tried in the king's court, instead of the local court. By section 34 of Magna Charta its use was limited.

Præmunire, Statutes of. In the fourteenth century there seem to have been two forms of papal exaction more distasteful to the English Parliament than any others: the one—of no modern standing even then—the right claimed, and often exercised, by the Pope of giving away Church benefices in England to men of his own choice, and often to aliens; the other, his persistent action in assuming to himself and his curia the right of deciding cases of law which ought properly to have been dealt with by the king's courts at home. Against each of these abuses the Parliaments of the middle of Edward III.'s reign aimed statutes: attempting to check the first abuse by the *Statute of Provisors* (1350—51), and the second by the first *Statute of Præmunire* (1353). By the latter of these two statutes the king "at the grievous and clamorous complaints of the great men and the commons of his realm of England," enacts that all his liege people of every condition who refer any matter properly belonging to the king's court to any jurisdiction outside the realm shall be allowed two months within which to appear before the king's Council, his Chancery, or his justices of either bench, &c., to answer for their contempt of the king's rights in transferring their cases abroad. "If," the statute continues, "they fail to put in an appearance at the due time, their lands and chattels are all forfeited to the king; their persons are liable to be seized, and if not found, the offenders are to be outlawed." Two things are worth noticing with reference to the statute; first, that the clergy are not mentioned as petitioning for its enactment or assenting to it; and, second, that although the measure is plainly levelled against the pretensions of the Roman Curia, yet its aim is nowhere stated in the body of the Act. There were several subsequent Statutes of

Præmunire. The later and fuller are naturally more often called *the* statute, as in a way they superseded the earlier. The name is more especially reserved to an Act passed in the sixteenth year of Richard II. (1393). In this statute it is plainly stated that the right of recovering the presentation to a church benefice "belongeth only to the king's court by the old right of his crown as used and approved in the time of all his progenitors, kings of England." The statute then proceeds to condemn the practice of papal translation, and after rehearsing the promise of the three estates of the realm to support the king in his rights, enacts without any circumlocution, "that if any purchase, or pursue, in the Court of Rome, or elsewhere, such translations, processes, excommunications, bulls, &c." he and his notaries, counsellors, and abettors shall forfeit all their lands and tenements, goods, and chattels to the king, while the offenders themselves are to be attached and brought before the king and his council, or be proceeded against by writ of *Præmunire facias*, as is ordained in other Statutes of Provisors. It is from the phrase *Præmunire facias* that the whole enactment has derived its name. These are the opening words of the writ directed to the officer, bidding him forewarn the offender when and where he is to appear to answer to the charges brought against him. The word *Præmunire* is said to be a corruption of *Præmoneri*, to be forewarned. The scope of these Præmunire Acts was still further enlarged under 2 Henry IV., 3 Henry V., &c. The Statutes of Præmunire were, however, constantly disregarded. Papal provision became in the 15th century the most usual way of appointing to bishoprics. The custom of granting dispensations from the statute had much influence on the growth of the King's dispensing power. It was by a dexterous manipulation of the clause which included the abettors of a breach of the Statute of Præmunire in the penalty due to the prime offender, that Henry VIII. laid the whole body of the clergy at his mercy in 1531 for having acknowledged the legatine authority of Wolsey; and the king's pardon was only bought by a large sum of money, and their acknowledgment of him as supreme head of the church. Under Elizabeth, to refuse the oath of supremacy was made a breach of the Statute of Præmunire; and also to defend the pope's jurisdiction in England, or to support a Jesuit college, or any popish seminary beyond the sea. By later enactments the penalties following a breach of this statute have been extended to offences very different from those which were commonly connected with the word Præmunire.

Statutes of the Realm; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Reeves, *History of English Law*; Sir T. E. Tomlins, *Law Dictionary*.

Prayer Book, or, properly, the **Book of Common Prayer,** is the Liturgy of the Church of England, ordained by law for national use. Before the Reformation, Latin service-books were in use throughout Christendom, founded upon a common model, but containing considerable variations. The prayers for various hours of the day were contained in the Breviary; the order for celebrating the Holy Communion in the Missal. There was also a manual of devotions in English called the Prymer, current in the fifteenth century. The desire of the reforming party, headed by Cranmer, was for greater simplicity and intelligibility in the service-books, and Cranmer steadily moved in that direction. In 1541 a new edition of part of the Sarum Breviary was issued; and in 1542 Cranmer notified to Convocation the King's pleasure that the service-books should be examined, corrected, and reformed of all superstitious prayers. A committee of bishops and divines sat for that purpose and prepared materials for the future. Portions of the Scriptures were ordered to be read in English in churches; and in 1544 the Litany, which was already in English for use in processions, was revised by Cranmer. In 1545 was issued the "King's Prymer," which contained the Creed, the Lord's Prayer, the Ten Commandments, and several canticles and collects, as well as the Litany in English.

In the reign of Edward VI. the work of liturgical revision first bore definite fruit. In the first year of the reign, Convocation and Parliament ordered the Communion to be administered under both kinds; and a committee of divines was appointed to draw up "The Order of Communion," which was published in 1548. This, however, was only a temporary measure for immediate use. The commissioners applied themselves, under Cranmer's presidency, to the task of framing a complete Book of Prayer. They finished their labours within the year, and submitted the Book to Parliament, by which it was accepted. The Act of Uniformity, passed in Jan., 1549, ordered the Book to come into general use on the evening of Whit Sunday. The objects of the compilers of this Book are stated in their preface to be (1) the formation of a uniform use for the whole realm, (2) the simplification of rubrics, (3) the reading of the whole Psalter in order, (4) the continuous reading of the Bible, (5) the omission of needless interruptions, (6) conformity to the pure Word of the Scripture, (7) the formation of a Prayer-book in the vulgar tongue. The first Prayer-book of Edward VI. followed closely on the Prymer for morning and evening prayer, so as to make as little change as possible. Its chief differences from the Prayer-book now in use are—(1) Matins and Evensong began with the Lord's Prayer and ended with the Third Collect. (2) The Litany followed the Communion office, and there were no instructions for its use. (3) In the

Communion office the Commandments were not read; the prayers were differently arranged, and included a mention of the Virgin and prayers for the dead; there was an invocation of the Holy Ghost before consecration; the words used in giving the elements were only the first clause of the two now in use; the priest was ordered to stand "afore the midst of the altar"; the old vestments, albs and copes, were prescribed for the celebrant; water was mixed with the wine. (4) In the Baptismal Service a form of exorcism was used; trine immersion was directed; the child was arrayed after baptism in a white garment, called a *chrisom*, and was anointed with oil on the head. (5) The Burial Service contained prayers for the dead, and provision was made for a Communion at a burial.

This Prayer-book was well received by the people generally; but an influx of foreigners brought to England opinions more decidedly Calvinistic. The Prayer-book was no sooner in use than a small party called for its revision. They prevailed with the King, who again appointed a committee, with Cranmer at its head. In their work the committee asked the opinions of the learned foreigners, Peter Martyr and Bucer. The result of this revision was the Second Prayer-book of Edward VI., which was published in 1552. It added the introductory portion of Morning and Evening Prayer, appointed the Litany to be used as at present, added the Decalogue to the Communion office, reduced its prayers to the order in which they now occur, omitting the points noticed above; directed the priest to stand "at the north side of the table," and to wear no vestment save the surplice. The tendency of the alterations made is most clearly seen in the substitution of the second clause now used at the administration of the elements for the first clause, which was omitted. The Second Prayer-book showed no desire to retain old uses because they were old, but was a movement towards the doctrines of the Continental reformers.

The Second Prayer-book of Edward VI. had scarcely time to come into use before it was swept away by the Marian reaction. When Elizabeth came to the throne in 1558, she behaved with great caution, and was crowned according to the rites of the Roman Pontifical. A committee was, however, appointed early in 1559 to compare the two Books of Edward VI. and correct them. The commission, of which the chief mover was Edward Guest, after Bishop of Rochester, decided in favour of Edward VI.'s Second Prayer-book, with a few alterations. These were adopted by Parliament, and the revised Prayer-book came into use on June 24, 1559. The alterations were not important, but were significant of Elizabeth's desire for comprehension. The ornaments in use in the second year of Edward VI. were recognised; the two clauses in the administration of the elements at the Communion were put together as they are now; a petition was omitted from the Litany—"From the Bishop of Rome and all his detestable enormities, Good Lord deliver us."

Again the return of exiles from the Continent brought discord, and the Puritan party desired another revision. At the accession of James I. the King agreed to hear the Puritan demands at a conference at Hampton Court in 1603. The Puritans met with little attention, and the changes made in the Prayer-book were slight; chief of them was the addition of the Thanksgiving Prayers, and of the latter half of the Catechism. Charles I. attempted to force on Scotland the use of the English Liturgy, and his attempt led to a revolution. Under the Commonwealth the Prayer-book was swept away. After the Restoration, a conference was held at the Savoy, in 1661, between twelve bishops and twelve Presbyterians, to discuss the wishes of the Presbyterians for a revision of the Prayer-book. This Conference did not show much attempt at conciliation on either side. A committee of bishops was again appointed to revise the Prayer-book, and no steps were taken to meet the wishes of the Presbyterians. What alterations were made rather increased than diminished the scruples of the Puritans against receiving the work. The revised Prayer-book, finally reduced to the shape in which we now have it, was approved by Parliament, and its use was enforced by the Act of Uniformity of 1662. Some printed copies were carefully compared with the original, were then sealed with the Great Seal, and were sent to all cathedrals, to the Courts at Westminster, and to the Tower, to be preserved for ever. Since then the Sealed Books have remained the standard for preserving the Prayer-book in its original form. It is true that in 1689 a committee was appointed to prepare such alterations "as might reconcile, as much as possible, all differences." But Convocation was opposed to all change, and the proposals were never considered.

Palmer, *Origines Liturgicæ*; Wheatley, *On the Book of Common Prayer*; Procter, *History of the Book of Common Prayer*; *Liturgies of King Edward VI. and of Queen Elizabeth* (published by the Parker Society). [M. C.]

Prerogative, The Royal. Prerogative has been defined as an exclusive privilege. Historically considered, it is not much more than the legal exercise of the royal authority. An old judge expounded it as "that law in case of the king which is law in no case of the subject." "It is of blood," Bacon said, "to the Common Law; it sprang from sources akin to those from which the Common Law has sprung; it did for the king and still does for the crown what the Common Law did for the subject."

"It grew," says Bishop Stubbs, "out of certain conditions of the national life, some of which existed before the Norman Conquest, others were the products of that great change, and others resulted from the peculiar course of Henry II. and his descendants." Before 1377 it had actually or virtually parted with most of its legislative and taxing powers. Chief among its admitted and exclusive powers at this time were those of calling, interrupting, and dismissing Parliaments, of ratifying legislation, of creating peers, and conferring every form of honour, of making cities and boroughs, of pardoning criminals, of negotiating with foreign powers, of declaring and conducting war, of nominating to Church dignities and presenting to an immense number of benefices, of appointing all public officials, of coining money, regulating trade, fixing weights and measures, and establishing markets and havens. And a law of uncertain date, but given as 17 Edw. II., called *Prerogativa Regis*, adds to these the custody of idiots and lunatics, wreck of the sea, whales and sturgeons, and the right to the lands and goods of attainted felons. And, with few exceptions, these advantages are still conceded to Prerogative. But besides these it then claimed, and despite a long and stubborn opposition continued to exercise, the rights of purveyance, and of issuing commissions of array, with all the manifold accompaniments and consequences of both. A power to dispense with and even suspend the operation of a statute was also among its demands. Such was the mediæval measure of Prerogative at its widest possible legal stretch, though even to this a king like Richard II., in his days of absolutism, would seek to give an unquestionably illegal extension. During the constitutional rule of the Lancastrian dynasty the tendency opposite to Richard's set in, that of not only dislodging Prerogative from its disputed position, but also of placing its legitimate exercise under Parliamentary control. The Tudor despotism, however, forced this to yield in its turn; and for a time it became the fashion to strain the principle to the utmost, and give it a practically unbounded sphere of action. The high prerogative doctrine then came into vogue, which vested in the king, besides his ordinary power limited by law, an extraordinary power as extensive as the whole province of government, to be resorted to, if the safety of the Commonweal were judged by the king to require its application, when the constitutional resources of authority were deemed inadequate. This was perhaps what Bacon meant when he described Prerogative as "the accomplishment and perfection of the Common Law," stepping in to the rescue of the State when the Common Law was found wanting. At the same time the erection of exceptional jurisdiction and the granting of monopolies were regarded as covered by the regular prerogative. The dangerous doctrine and the questionable practices were effaced for ever by the action of the Long Parliament. But the dispensing and suspending powers still lingered; Charles II. and James II. employed them without scruple. These, however, were finally extinguished by the Bill of Rights. The Revolution started a new method of dealing with Prerogative; it was left with most of its powers unimpaired, and some of them even strengthened, but their exercise was gradually drawn under the efficient control of Parliament. This now belongs to a body of ministers who are responsible for it to the Commons and the country, and are virtually chosen and dismissed by both.

Allen, *Rise and Growth of the Royal Prerogative in England*; the Constitutional Histories of Hallam, May, and Stubbs. [J. R.]

Press, The Liberty of the, was only secured after long and arduous struggles. Soon after the invention of printing the press throughout Europe was placed under the severe censorship of the Church, and after the Reformation this censorship became in England part of the royal prerogative. Printing was granted as a monopoly, confined by regulations issued by the Star Chamber under Mary to the Stationers' Company; and under Elizabeth it was interdicted, except in London, Oxford, and Cambridge, the licensing being placed in the hands of the Archbishop of Canterbury or the Bishop of London, on special occasions in those of the queen's printer, and in the case of the law-books with one of the chief justices. Mutilation was inflicted on transgressors of the law; for instance, in the case of Stubbes. Further restrictions were imposed by the Star Chamber under James I. and Charles I. In 1637 the number of master-printers was limited to twenty, and of letter-founders to four. The penalty for printing, bookbinding, or letter-founding without a licence was whipping, the pillory, and imprisonment; and even new editions of authorised books had to be submitted to the licensers. It was in the midst of these persecutions that the first newspaper, *The Weekly Newes*, appeared (1641), and it was followed after the fall of the Star Chamber by large quantities of tracts and newspapers. The censorship was, however, continued under the Commonwealth, and the Independent writers were suppressed with such severity as to call forth from Milton a noble vindication of freedom of opinion in the *Areopagitica*. After the Restoration came the Licensing Act of 1662, by which printing was confined to London, York, and the two universities, and the number of master-printers was limited to twenty as before, and all new works subjected to examination by an officer called the licenser. Its cruel provisions were used with terrible harshness by the licenser, Roger L'Estrange,

and all newspapers stopped except the *Official London Gazette* and the *Observator*. The Act expired in 1679, but was revived at the accession of James II., and continued until 1695, when the renewal of the censorship of the press was negatived by the House of Commons.

The press was now free in theory; but still suffered considerable restrictions in practice from the stamp duty, and the law of libel. The first Stamp Act (q.v.) was imposed in 1712, partly as a means of raising revenue, partly as a check upon the scurrility of the cheaper papers. It was gradually raised to fourpence, and in 1820 it was imposed by one of the Six Acts upon tracts and kindred publications. Evasions of the Stamp Act were frequent, and were severely punished by the State. In 1836, however, the stamp duties on newspapers were reduced to one penny, and in 1855 abandoned. Another tax on knowledge, the paper duty (q.v.), was abolished in 1861. The law of libel was exceedingly ill-defined, and was frequently used as an instrument of government oppression under William III. and Anne, among its victims being Defoe and Steele. Sir Robert Walpole, however, who was comparatively indifferent to attack, allowed it to slumber during his long administration, and it was not until the accession of George III., when public opinion had become keenly alive to the corruption of Parliament, that the government and the press came into collision again. Wilkes, by the famous "No. 45" of the *North Briton*, raised the question of the right to arrest authors and printers of an obnoxious publication on a general warrant, and gained a complete victory. Then came Junius's "Letter to the King," the trial for the republication of which by the bookseller Almon established the important doctrines that a publisher was criminally liable for the acts of his servants, and that a jury had no right to determine the criminality of a libel. The latter theory was, however, evaded at the trial of Woodfall, the original publisher, who was found guilty by the jury of "printing and publishing only;" it was the subject of frequent comments of a hostile nature in both houses of Parliament, and was vigorously combated by Erskine in the cases of the Dean of St. Asaph in 1779, and of Stockdale in 1789. Finally, in 1792, Fox's Libel Act established the important principle of the right of juries to find a general verdict of guilty or not guilty on the whole matter.

The outbreak of the French Revolution unfortunately produced a strong reaction against the freedom of the press. Between 1792 and 1820 the Libel Acts were frequently invoked. The ill-advised prosecutions of the Duke of Wellington's administration in 1830 and 1831 were the last important attempts to suppress the free written expression of opinion. Since that time the press has been completely free to discuss public men and measures. Moreover its position has been established on a firmer basis by Lord Campbell's Libel Act (1843), by which a defendant in a case of defamatory libel is allowed to plead that it is true, and that its publication is for the public benefit, and by which publishers are no longer held liable for the unauthorised acts of their servants.

Hallam, *Const. Hist.*, chs. xiii., xv.; May, *Const. Hist.*, II., chs. ix. and x.; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Grant, *The Newspaper Press*. See 23 Eliz., c. 2; 13 and 14 Charles II., c. 33; 10 Anne, c. 19; 32 Geo. III., c. 60; 6 and 7 Vict., c. 96.

[L. C. S.]

Prestonpans, THE BATTLE OF, was fought on Sept. 21, 1745, at a village in Haddington county, nine miles east of Edinburgh, between the Young Pretender's adherents and the Royal forces under Sir John Cope, the latter being defeated.

Pretender. [STUART, JAMES EDWARD, and STUART, CHARLES EDWARD.]

Pride's Purge is the name given to the violent measure by which (Dec. 6, 1648) the army excluded a large number of the Presbyterians from the Parliament. At the close of 1648 the army resolved to bring the king to a trial, and to put a stop to the treaty proceeding between him and the Parliament. Parliament on Dec. 5 decided that the king's answers to their proposals offered foundations for a peace. The army, which had occupied London on Dec. 2, surrounded the House of Commons on the morning of the 6th with the regiments of Colonels Pride, Hewson, and Hardress Waller. Pride, with a list of names in his hand, prevented certain obnoxious members from passing in, and locked up those who resisted. The number of those arrested amounted in the course of the next day to 47, and 96 were excluded. On the same day a paper, called the "Humble Proposals and Desires," was presented to the members still sitting on behalf of the council of officers, setting forth the demands of the army. The House, reduced to less than 80 members, decided by 50 to 28 to proceed with the consideration of these proposals (Dec. 7), and in the next three weeks rescinded its late votes, and determined to try the king.

Prior, MATTHEW (*b.* 1664, *d.* 1721), was one of the most distinguished of the literary diplomatists and politicians of William III.'s and Anne's reigns. He was educated at Westminster and St. John's College, Cambridge, of which he became a Fellow. He was a friend of Charles Montague, afterwards chief of the Whig party, and wrote with him *The City Mouse and the Country Mouse*, a satire on Dryden's *Fable of the Hind and the Panther*. Prior was sent as secretary to the congress at The Hague, and became one of William's gentlemen of the bedchamber. He was appointed secretary to the English legation at Ryswick (1697), and was entrusted with the

duty of bringing the treaty to England. Next year he was sent in the same capacity to France under the Duke of Portland. When factions broke out in the court, Prior deserted Portland and attached himself to Albemarle. He was appointed Under Secretary of State to the Earl of Jersey, but was removed from office on the retirement of that nobleman. In 1701 he was elected for East Grinstead and appointed Commissioner of the Board of Trade. Under Anne he remained out of favour while the Whigs were in power; but in July, 1711 he was sent with the Abbé Gualtier to Paris with propositions for peace. In August, 1712, the ministry, weary of the length of the negotiations, sent Bolingbroke to Paris to shorten the work by personal conversation with Torcy. Prior accompanied him, and on Bolingbroke's return he was left as chargé d'affaires, without regular authority, and with scanty remittances. Disgrace rapidly overtook him on the death of Anne. As soon as he returned to England he was examined before the Committee of Safety, of which Walpole was chairman, for his share in the negotiations for peace. He was imprisoned, and on June 10 Walpole moved an impeachment against him, but eventually he was released without trial. The rest of his life was spent in retirement.

Johnson, *Lives of the Poets;* Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.;* Stanhope, *Reign of Queen Anne;* Prior's collected works, including his incomplete *Memoir of His Own Time*, were published in 1733.

Prisons, Legislation on. As early as 1166 it was enacted (by the Assize of Clarendon, c. 7) that in each county the sheriff should provide a gaol at the king's cost if one did not already exist. In addition to these "common gaols," some of the law courts had special prisons connected with them, such as the Marshalsea, attached to the King's Bench, and the Fleet to the Star Chamber and Chancery. Little attention was paid to the condition of these prisons until the eighteenth century. The gaolers were paid, not by salaries, but by the fees which they could exact from the prisoners, and men were often retained long after their innocence had been pronounced because they could not pay the sums demanded. In 1728 the discovery of certain cruelties perpetrated in the Fleet led to the appointment of a Parliamentary commission. The warden and his agents were put upon their trial for murder, but were acquitted; and the Act passed in 1729 to remedy the worst evils was almost useless. The question was apparently forgotten until Howard began to prosecute his inquiries. In 1774 two acts were passed, one providing that every prisoner against whom the Grand Jury failed to find a true bill should be immediately and without fee released, and that the gaoler should be paid from the county rate; and the other to secure the due cleansing, etc., of prisons. After this time numerous statutes were passed. Of these the most important were those of 1823, 1865, and 1877. The Act of 1823 was largely the result of Mrs. Fry's efforts, and introduced a classification of prisoners. In 1865 the distinction, which had never been carefully maintained, between common gaols and houses of correction—the latter intended only for convicted criminals, was finally abolished; and what was far more important, it was enacted that in all cases imprisonment should be "separate," *i.e.*, solitary. Finally, the Prisons Act of 1877, which is now the principal statute on the subject, gave an increased power of control to the Home Secretary and to the Prison Commissioners appointed on his recommendation. It is to be added that between the years 1853 and 1864 transportation was abolished, and penal servitude, *i.e.*, imprisonment with hard labour on public works, substituted.

Stephen, *Hist. Crim. Law*, I., ch. xiii.; *State Trials*, vol. xvii. (1813), p. 297; *Memoirs of* Howard and Mrs. Fry. [W. J. A.]

Probate and Divorce, The Court of, was created in 1857, and received the testamentary and matrimonial jurisdiction, which had previously been vested in the Ecclesiastical Courts. By the Judicature Acts of 1873 this court, together with the Admiralty Court, forms one of the divisions of the High Court of Justice.

Proclamations. In mediæval and later times, when the range of customary and statute law was still comparatively limited, and many practices that gave concern to kings and ministers were left uncorrected thereby, the king took upon himself at times to supply the defect by issuing proclamations, which either expanded and applied the provisions of already existing laws—in any case were presumed to be fair deductions from such laws—or were independent acts of prerogative. They were under the Plantagenet and Lancastrian kings avowedly temporary. Under the Tudors proclamations took a bolder tone, and began to encroach on the domain of legislation, indeed in 1539 they seem to have actually entered it. In that year was passed the astounding Statute of Proclamations, which enacted that the king, with the advice of his council, might set forth proclamations, with penalties in them, as obligatory on the subject as an Act of Parliament, provided they did no damage to the estates, liberties, or persons of the king's subjects, and infringed no law. But the first law of Edward VI. repealed this measure. In Elizabeth's reign they were not seldom used to supplement legislation, assist in the promotion of a policy, or regulate the conduct of the people. The banishment of Anabaptists, fasting in Lent, building houses round London, carrying daggers, or wearing long rapiers, trading with the French king's rebels, are a few of the things that were commanded or forbidden in them under penalties, and it is not clear that very

many of them were distinctly illegal; statute law certainly warranted some, the unstrained prerogative others. James I. resorted to the practice so often, and pushed it so decidedly across the boundaries of legality, that in 1610 the alarmed Commons made it a subject of formal complaint, alleging that the king's proclamations touched the liberty, goods, inheritance, and livelihood of men, and that there was a general fear they would grow to the strength of laws. The gravest examples were that which in 1604 dictated rules to the constituencies in choosing members of Parliament, and those which forbade new buildings about London, and the making of starch out of wheat, and in most cases disobedience was made punishable in the Star Chamber. James gave a reassuring reply, and consulted his chief judges. An important consequence followed. The consulted judges, led by Coke, were unanimously of opinion that by his proclamation the king could not create an offence. He could only admonish his subjects to keep the law, and could not make an offence punishable in the Star Chamber if it were not so already. James frankly accepted this statement of the law, and desisted from issuing proclamations imposing fine and imprisonment. But in Charles I.'s reign proclamations were greatly multiplied, especially during the long cessation of Parliament. For staying in London despite a proclamation ordering country gentlemen with their families back to their homes, one Mr. Palmer was, in 1632, fined £1,000 by the Star Chamber. "The illegality of these proclamations," says Hallam, "is most unquestionable." It is curious, however, that they afterwards found no place in the Grand Remonstrance. In the ecclesiastical province the sovereign's action in this respect is less disputable. Proclamations for and against certain religious tenets, practices, and ritual were frequent between 1529 and 1640. That of Charles I., in 1626, "for the establishing of the peace of the Church," is one of the latest examples. The practice survived, but only just survived, the convulsion of 1640–60. To only one or two of Charles II.'s reign has exception been taken. It is significant that no mention is made of them in the Declaration of Rights. Those that are still issued by the Privy Council are invariably warranted, sometimes commanded, by the statute law.

Brodie, *Const. Hist.*; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*

[J. R.]

Prophesyings was the name given in the reign of Queen Elizabeth to meetings of the clergy, under the superintendence of the bishops, for the discussion and explanation of passages of Scripture. The meetings, which were held in public for the edification of the people, were presided over by a moderator. The system began during the primacy of Archbishop Parker, and was very obnoxious to Elizabeth, as savouring of Puritanism. Most of the bishops were in favour of them, as were many of the Privy Council, and Archbishop Grindal was sequestered for five years from the exercise of his jurisdiction for refusing to put down the "prophesyings" at the queen's command. They were finally suppressed by a special command of Elizabeth, about 1577, and never subsequently revived.

Mosheim, *Eccles. Hist.*; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops.*

Protector, The Title of, was first given to the governors appointed during the minority or incapacity of the king. It was borne by the Duke of Bedford during the minority of Henry VI. (or in his absence by the Duke of Gloucester), and by the Duke of York in 1454, and again in 1455 during Henry's illness; the Duke of Gloucester in 1483, and the Duke of Somerset from 1547 (Jan.) to 1548 (Oct.). The House of Lords, in answer to Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, thus defined the meaning of the word. "It was advised and appointed by authority of the king assenting the three estates of this land, that ye, in absence of my lord your brother of Bedford, should be chief of the king's council, and devised unto you a name different from other counsellors, not the name of tutor, lieutenant, governor, nor of regent, nor no name that should import authority of governance of the land, but the name of protector and defender, which importeth 'a personal duty of attendance to the actual defence of the land, as well against enemies outward if case required, as against rebels inward, if any were, granting you therewith certain power, the which is specified and contained in an Act of the said Parliament, to endure as long as it liked the king.'" In the case of the Duke of Somerset he was in the instrument signed by the Privy Council on Jan. 31, 1547, said to be appointed because the good government of the realm, the safety of the king, and "the more certain and assured direction of his affairs" required "that some special man of the number aforesaid (the executors) should be preferred in name and place before the other, to whom, as to the head of the rest, all strangers and others might have access, and who for his virtue, wisdom, and experience in things, were meet and able to be a special remembrancer, and to keep a most certain account of all our proceedings." The title of Protector given to Cromwell (which may be compared with that of "*custodes libertatis Angliæ*," assumed by the Long Parliament) was chosen because it was not altogether strange to English ears, and, perhaps, also because it left the definite form of government, whether monarchical or republican, an open question. Cromwell's title was "Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland." It was given to him first in the Instrument of Government, and

after his refusal to accept the crown, confirmed by the Petition and Advice.

Hallam, *Middle Ages*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.* The discussions on the question of the titles of king and Protector are to be found in Burton, *Parliamentary Diary*. See also Cromwell's own speeches in Carlyle's *Cromwell*, and Whitelocke's *Memorials*.

[C. H. F.]

Protestant Refugees in England.—As soon as the Reformation was established in England, this country became the principal resort for the oppressed Calvinists of the Low Countries and of western and northern France, just as Switzerland was for the central and southern provinces of the latter. The immigration began before the end of King Henry VIII.'s reign; it received a powerful impulse through the policy which guided the ministers of King Edward VI; and in 1550 a charter was granted to the Protestants settled in London, allowing them free exercise of their religion, and appointing the church of Austinfriars for the joint worship of Dutch, Walloons, and Huguenots. The whole community was placed under the superintendence of John A Lasco, a devoted minister who had abandoned high preferment as a Catholic priest in Hungary in order to found a Protestant church at Emden, in East Friesland. Driven from his charge there, A Lasco had sought refuge in England in 1548, and took an active part in securing public support for his fellow exiles. A few months after the establishment of the congregation of Austinfriars, the French-speaking portion of it—Huguenots and Walloons—separated to found a distinct church in Threadneedle Street, known as "The London Walloon Church;" in 1840 they removed to St. Martin's-le-Grand. Meanwhile colonies were being formed in other parts of England. The silk-weavers of Canterbury settled there as early as 1547, and from 1561 until the present day, although now their industry can hardly be said to exist, they have worshipped in the crypt of the cathedral. By 1575 colonies were in existence at the seaports of Southampton, Winchelsea, Rye, Dover, Sandwich, and Yarmouth; and inland at Glastonbury, Wandsworth, Maidstone, Colchester, Norwich, Thetford, and Stamford. All, or nearly all, of these had their own religious services. Other sporadic Walloon settlements appear to have existed at Buckingham, Stony-Stratford, Newport-Pagnell, and other places in the southern Midlands. In the first years of this immigration the Dutch and Walloon element seems to have greatly outnumbered the Huguenots. An account of the year 1567 reckons 2,993 Dutch to only 512 French within the City of London proper; but on the south coast the French appear to have almost exclusively prevailed. The success, however, of the Dutch in the resistance to Spanish rule soon put an end to the emigration from that quarter; and the issue also of the Edict of Nantes (1598), which gave a legal status to the Calvinistic community in France, had the natural result of keeping the Huguenots at home. There was, therefore, a pause in the inflow into England until the fourth quarter of the seventeenth century. But the measures preliminary to the revocation of the Edict of Nantes (1685), had their effect in a great multiplication of the French settlements in England. Between 1686 and the beginning of the eighteenth century no less than thirty French churches sprang into existence in London and its immediate vicinity. Others arose at Bristol, Barnstaple, Bideford, Plymouth, Stonehouse, Dartmouth, and Exeter, at Faversham, at Thorpe-le-Soken in Essex, and in Edinburgh. A whole set of colonies was founded in Ireland, at Portarlington and Youghal, in Dublin (where the French had three churches), as also at Lisburn, Waterford, Cork, and other places. The last influx of Protestant refugees was that of the mixed multitude of French and Germans who were ejected from the Palatinate in 1709; several thousands of whom were received in England, and the majority, probably, sent on to America. Many of the English congregations named were from the beginning attached to the National Church; nearly all in time became so. The foreigners soon adapted themselves to English customs, and although they experienced much opposition from native tradespeople, were able to exercise their handicrafts to the signal advantage of the country. There are few industries that have not benefited by the work of the immigrants. In particular may be mentioned those in silk (at Canterbury and Spitalfields), linen, cotton, wool, paper, beaver (at Wandsworth), sailcloth, glass, &c. The total number of those who settled in English territory after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes can hardly be short of 80,000.

J. Southerden Burn, *Hist. of the Foreign Protestant Refugees settled in England*, 1846; C. Weiss, *Hist. of the French Protestant Refugees*, bk. iii. (English translation, 1854); D. C. A. Agnew, *Protestant Exiles from France in the Reign of Louis XIV.*, 2nd Ed., 1871, etc.; R. L. Poole, *Hist. of the Huguenots of the Dispersion*, chs. vii.—ix., 1880. [R. L. P.]

Prussia, Relations with, began with the commercial and crusading intercourse between England and the Teutonic Order. The towns of the old Prussian state were all Hanse Towns, and the intimate dealings between England and the Hansa [Hansa] extended to Elbing, Danzig, and Riga. At last rising English commerce was checked by the exclusive system of the Hansa. At the end of the fourteenth century, the quarrels between Prussian and English merchants led the Hochmeister in 1385 to confiscate all English merchants' goods. In 1388 an understanding was arrived at, but the

desire of the English for more privileges involved constant disputes all through the fifteenth century. Despite this, crusading expeditions to help the Teutonic knights in their struggle against the heathen were not unfrequent. In 1352 Duke Henry of Lancaster took the cross, and in 1391 Thomas of Gloucester projected, and Henry of Bolingbroke accomplished, a crusade against the Lithuanians. Meanwhile, relations with Brandenburg became friendly during the tenure of the Margraveship by the Bavarian and later Luxemburg houses. The Reformation united Prussia and Brandenburg under the Hohenzollern. The acquisition of the Rhenish duchies brought the Prussian House into relations with James I. and Charles I. The close connexion of the Hohenzollerns with Holland, at first a cause of disunion with England, ultimately became a bond of connection. The Great Elector's last act was to contribute powerfully to the Revolution of 1688, by sending his troops into Holland to invade England. He had felt himself threatened by James II.'s alliance with Louis XIV., and had strongly urged William to seize the English crown. Common alliance with Austria, common hostility to France, now united England and Prussia. Frederick I., the first king, married the sister of George I., Sophia Charlotte. His son, Frederick William I., married his cousin Sophia Dorothea, daughter of George I. Frederick William I. for many years remained on good terms with England. In 1725 he signed the Treaty of Hanover; but secretly deserted the English for the Austrian alliance, and the double marriage project by which Prince Frederick of Wales was to marry Wilhelmina, the king's daughter, and his heir Frederick, the Princess Amelia of Hanover, was never carried out. The accession of George II. hardly mended matters. He bore no goodwill to his brother-in-law, or to his nephew Frederick II., who became king in 1740. The Elector of Hanover feared the growing power of Prussia; yet so important was Prussia's help against France that English diplomacy did its utmost to compel Maria Theresa to acquiesce in Frederick's conquest of Silesia. During the Seven Years' War, Frederick found in England his one important ally. His brilliant feats of strategy won him great popularity in England, where he was regarded, strangely enough, as the "Protestant Hero." The accession of George III. led, however, to England's sudden desertion of Prussia in a way that Frederick never forgave. His later policy of Russian alliance was largely the result of his conviction that no stable alliance could be formed with England. Frederick William II., however, found in England an ally, first against Austria and Russia, next in the intervention in Holland to restore the House of Orange, and, lastly, in the war against Revolutionary France. But in 1796 Prussia concluded peace with France at Basel, and refused to join the second coalition of 1799; and delayed in 1805 to join the war until Austria was defeated and Prussia itself threatened by the French. After Jena Prussia was compelled by Napoleon to exclude English manufactures and join in his measures to reduce the power of his great enemy. The War of Liberation renewed the alliance between Prussia and England, and Blucher and Wellington destroyed Napoleon's last army at Waterloo. The Tory government, after the Peace of 1815, found in Prussia a congenial ally. The refusal of Prussia to cooperate against Russia during the Crimean War, its attacks on Denmark in order to restore Schleswig-Holstein to Germany, caused some discontent in England. But the sympathy felt for the Power which alone could give unity to Germany, and the alliance between the royal houses, long sufficed to maintain a general friendliness hardly yet permanently disturbed either by English jealousy of German industrial competition or by German suspicion as to English foreign and colonial policy—a suspicion indicated in the telegram of Jan. 3, 1896, in which the German Emperor congratulated President Kruger on his "maintenance of the independence" of the Transvaal.

Voigt, *Geschichte von Preussen*; and Schanz, *Englische Handelsgeschichte*, for the early relations with Prussia under the Teutonic Knights and Hansa. Ranke, *Eng. Hist.*; Carlyle, *Frederick the Great*; Seeley, *Life of Stein*; Stenzel, *Geschichte des Preussischen Staats*; Reimann, *Neuere Geschichte des Preussischen Staats*.

[T. F. T.]

Prynne, William (*b.* 1600, *d.* 1669), matriculated at Oxford 1616, and entered at Lincoln's Inn 1620. He was an untiring student of ecclesiastical and legal antiquities, a bitter Puritan, and a voluminous writer on controversial subjects. In 1632 he published a work entitled *Histriomastix*, attacking the immorality of the stage, and containing words supposed to reflect on the queen. For this he was fined £5,000 by the Star Chamber; degraded from his degree and the practice of his profession, and sentenced to be pilloried and to lose both his ears. Again, in 1637, for attacking the bishops in his *News from Ipswich*, he was sentenced to imprisonment for life. The Long Parliament released him, and declared these sentences illegal. He was most active in the prosecution of Laud, and was appointed one of the Visitors of the University of Oxford. He was elected to Parliament in 1648, but as he opposed the king's trial, and considered his answers to the Parliamentary propositions to offer grounds for a treaty, he was expelled by Pride's Purge. In 1659 he exerted himself to procure the restoration of the "secluded members," and when re-admitted, worked to bring about the king's return. In the discussions on the

punishment of the Regicides, he was one of their severest opponents. In the debates on religion he supported the Presbyterian view. From 1660 to his death he was Keeper of the Records in the Tower.

Public Worship Regulation Act (1874), The, was introduced into the House of Lords by the Archbishop of Canterbury, and into the House of Commons by Mr. Russell Gurney. The object of the bill was to give parishioners a ready way of invoking the authority of the bishop, and to enable the bishop to prohibit by his own mandate any practices which he considered improper, or else to submit the question to a special court. All that was requisite to put this machinery in motion against any clergyman was that three of the parishioners should declare themselves dissatisfied, and proceed to make use of the law. A new court was erected, to which was transferred all the authority of the Court of Arches, and at its head was placed Lord Penzance, as the first judge, who thus became the direct successor of the Dean of Arches. There was a very warm debate on the subject in both Houses. Lord Salisbury, Mr. G. Hardy, and Mr. Gladstone opposed it with great vehemence as destructive of the independence of the Church. Mr. Disraeli and Sir William Harcourt stood forward as its most prominent champions. The Act has not been successful. [High Church.]

Puckering, or **Pickering,** Sir John (*d.* 1596), after having distinguished himself as a Parliamentary lawyer, was elected Speaker of the House of Commons, 1584, and again in 1586. He was active in promoting the execution of Mary Queen of Scots, and subsequently prosecuted Secretary Davison for the despatch of the warrant for her death. He was counsel for the crown on the occasion of the prosecutions of the Earl of Arundel and Sir John Perrot for treason; and in April, 1592, received the Great Seal with the title of Lord Keeper as the reward of his services to the queen, succeeding Sir Christopher Hatton. He maintained in his new position his reputation as a sound lawyer.

Campbell, *Lives of the Chancellors*; Foss, *Judges of England.*

Pucklechurch, a village of Gloucestershire, a few miles north-east from Bristol. There was a royal palace there in Anglo-Saxon times, where, in 946, King Edward was stabbed by a robber named Liofa, while keeping the feast of St. Augustine of Canterbury.

Punjaub is the district lying about the five rivers, the tributaries of the Indus. It was inhabited by a half-religious, half-military community, the Sikhs, or Akalees. Their commonwealth was divided into fraternities called *misils*, the chief of each of which was the leader in war and arbiter in time of peace. Of these chiefs twelve were deemed the foremost in rank. In 1806 Runjeet Singh, the chief of one of these misils, ended a long and gradual course of encroachment by becoming the ruler of the whole Punjaub. The old independence still survived, and the "Khalsa," or Sikh, commonwealth was regarded with almost superstitious devotion by the chiefs, people, and soldiery. Runjeet was but the head of the Khalsa, the army was the army of the Khalsa, everything was done in its name and to its honour. On his death (1839) the government fell into anarchy for six years. In 1845 the fears of the ministers launched 60,000 Sikhs, the magnificent army of the Khalsa, across the Sutlej [Sikh Wars]. The victory of the English involved cessions and submission (1846). The Sikh indignation at this humiliation produced the second Sikh War, ending in the annexation of the Punjaub (1849). It was placed under a board of commissioners, but its government has since been assimilated to that of the other provinces.

Cunningham, *Hist. of Sikhs.*

Puritans, The. During the course of the English Reformation a difference sprang up between the moderate Reformers and those who wished to make the forms and ceremonies of religious worship as simple as possible. Besides, "the English bishops" (writes Fuller under the date 1564) "conceiving themselves empowered by their canons, began to show their authority in urging the clergy of their dioceses to subscribe to the liturgy, ceremonies, and discipline of the Church: and such as refused the same were branded with the odious name of 'Puritans.'" Up to about 1570 the question at issue between the Elizabethan Puritans and the authorities of the Church was a question of ritual. After that date the institution of Episcopacy was attacked, especially by Cartwright, on the ground of the apostolic ordination of Presbyterianism, and the question of Church government added to the former cause of division. Thus was founded the Presbyterian section of the Puritan party. The first Puritans were anxious to remain within the national Church and reform it after their own ideas. But from the first attempt to enforce conformity some of them began to form separate conventicles. In June, 1567, a company of more than 100 were seized at worship in Plummers' Hall, London, and fourteen or fifteen sent to prison. This is "the first instance of actual punishment inflicted on Protestant Dissenters" (Hallam). Later in the reign a sect arose, called—from their leader, Robert Brown—Brownists (or Separatists), holding that each congregation was in itself a complete Church, denying that the State, or any assembly of the clergy had any right to control it, and proclaiming the duty of separation from the National Church. This was the origin of the Independent section

of the Puritan party. The result of the spread of these views was the Act of 1573, enacting imprisonment, banishment, and death as penalties for Nonconformity.

The demands of the Puritan clergy were expressed in the Millenary Petition presented to James in 1603, and at the Hampton Court Conference (1604). They asked for certain definite alterations in the ritual, for a preaching ministry, and for the amendment of the articles in a Calvinistic direction. They wished to maintain uniformity in ritual and in doctrine, but to change the characters of both. After the rejection of their demands, conformity to the existing order was enforced, and about 300 of the Puritan clergy were ejected from their livings, as many had been expelled by Whitgift during the previous reign. English Puritanism in the earlier part of the seventeenth century continued to adhere more and more exclusively to Calvinistic doctrine, and by the mouth of the House of Commons to demand the suppression of the opposite views. The resolution passed by that body on March 2, 1629, declared that "whosoever shall bring in innovation in religion, or by favour seek to extend or introduce Popery or Arminianism or other opinions disagreeing from the true and orthodox Church, shall be reputed a capital enemy to this kingdom and the commonwealth." During the same period questions of ritual and ceremonial became of less importance in Puritan teaching, and the demand for a purer morality and a reformed life more and more its characteristics. The number of Puritans within the Church increased. Baxter describes them thus: "Most men," he says, "seemed to mind nothing seriously, but the body and the world. . . . . The other sort were such as had their consciences awakened to some regard of God and their everlasting state; and according to the various measures of their understanding, did speak and live as serious in the Christian faith; and would much inquire what was duty and what was sin, and how to please God; and made this their business and interest, as the rest did the world." Under the government of Charles I. and Laud, a series of measures were directed against the Puritans. Controversial preaching was silenced by a royal proclamation, so that the doctrines at issue between the two parties in the Church could not be freely discussed, the lectureships were suppressed, and writers against the hierarchy or the Prayer-book severely punished. The summoning of the Long Parliament at length gave the Puritans the ascendency, and they set to work to carry out their ideas on Church Reform. The Grand Remonstrance set forth their programme. They wished (1) to reduce within bounds the "exorbitant power" of the prelates; (2) to unburden the consciences of men of needless and superstitious ceremonies, suppress innovations, and take away the monuments of idolatry; (3) to effect this intended reformation, a synod of British divines, "assisted with some from foreign parts professing the same religion," was to be assembled to discuss and submit to the confirmation of Parliament the necessary measures. At the same time they meant to maintain uniformity of doctrine and discipline. "We hold it requisite that there should be throughout the whole realm a conformity to that order which the laws enjoin according to the Word of God." To carry out these views the Presbyterian system of church government was established in England, and a new Prayer-book and Confession of Faith drawn up, two or three thousand of the clergy were ejected from their livings, and a severe law passed against all heretics and sectaries. But the Independent section of the Puritan party, the successors of the Separatists, defended the cause of toleration and congregational government, purged the Parliament, put a stop to the Assembly of Divines, and finally dissolved both. The advanced section of the Independents would have abolished altogether an Established Church. Cromwell, however, was determined to carry out a more conservative policy, "his definite ideal had come to be a State Church that should comprehend Presbyterians, Independents, Baptists and pious men of all sound evangelical sects with an ample toleration of dissent round about it." This ideal he carried out during the Protectorate. After his death, when the secluded members had been readmitted to sit in Parliament, Presbyterian government was re-established (March, 1660), and the Restoration found it in possession. Charles had promised a liberty for tender consciences, and led the Presbyterians to hope for their comprehension within the Church Establishment. Negotiations for that purpose were carried on, and a conference took place at the Savoy (1661), but attempts at a compromise failed, and the Act of Uniformity was passed (May, 1662). About 2,500 of the Puritan clergy were deprived of their livings in consequence of this change. Those who conformed and remained within the Church formed the Low Church party, those who now definitely separated themselves from it, the Nonconformist, or Dissenting party.

Neal, *History of the Puritans*; Gardiner, *Hist. of England*; Masson, *Life of Milton*.

[C. H. F.]

Purveyance. "Purvey" is but another form of "provide." Purveyance, in its general sense, was the obligation believed to be of immemorial antiquity, imposed upon all people of the country-side through which the king was making progress, of providing him and his multitudinous following with the means of support and conveyance, at prices fixed by the royal officers, and paid, if paid at all, in tallies, the value of which was to be

deducted from the next taxes that the several victims of the exaction would have to pay. Reduced to particulars, it meant the right of buying for, and the duty of selling goods to, the king in preference to any other purchaser (called pre-emption), the power of demanding personal services, horses, and carts, and everything else that the case needed, from those of the neighbourhood who could give them, at whatever cost of damage, loss, and inconvenience, with no chance of ever being adequately paid, and little of ever being paid at all. No irregular royal right was of greater antiquity, better established, or of longer continuance. We can track it by the efforts to correct its evils from the Great Charter till the Civil Wars; and it was undoubtedly much older than the Charter. Even in its warranted use it was specially oppressive in England; the very eagerness of our best kings to do their work well, by keeping them constantly travelling from place to place, aggravated its hardships. But its nature lent it readily to abuse; it was accordingly grossly abused, and most galling its abuses were. Not only were the purveyors outrageously unjust, dishonest, and unfeeling, making, as an authority states, every old woman tremble for her poultry till the king had gone by, and perverting their office to their own enrichment, but the son or servant of the king was counted as the king himself, and every other colourable pretext for making the requisition was seized without scruple. It was, moreover, construed into a claim to call upon whole counties for supplies of beef, pork, and corn, on great state occasions. Purveyance was, therefore, odious in itself; and it loaded the crown with a heavy burden of unpopularity. No grievance provoked so much legislation; it is prominent in every remedial movement and measure for centuries; we are told that not less than thirty-six statutes were passed to restrain it, ten in Edward III.'s reign alone. Yet its legality was always admitted, nor was there ever any thought of removing the "accursed prerogative" itself, as Archbishop Islip called it. The curtailing legislation was not altogether useless; after 1362, when Edward III. enacted that purveyance should provide for the personal needs of the king and queen only, and that purveyors should change their name to buyers, its abuses would seem to have been less grievous. In process of time, however, an abundant crop of new ones had grown round it; of these the Commons' petition, in 1604, gives a detailed account that shows a wonderful ingenuity on the part of the purveyors and cart-takers in working the prerogative for their own benefit, and to the oppression and vexation of the people. Bacon told the king that their practices were "the most common and general abuse of all others in the kingdom." It was then proposed to compound the right for an annual payment of £50,000, but the proposal fell through. Two years later the king pruned away the worst of the evils by proclamation; and the rage against the officials subsided. In 1610 a surrender of the right by the crown was almost arranged in the bargain known as the Great Contract, but broke down with the collapse of that negotiation. It was discontinued, however, with the relics of feudalism, at the fall of the monarchy, and was not restored with its restoration. In 1660 purveyance was formally abolished by the Convention of that year.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Hallam, *Middle Ages* and *Const. Hist.*; Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng.*, vol. i.; Spedding, *Bacon's Letters*, vol. iii. [J. R.]

Pym, John (*b.* 1584, *d.* 1643), descended from a good Somersetshire family, educated at Broadgates Hall, Oxford, early obtained a responsible office in the Exchequer, and entered Parliament in 1614 as member for Calne. In the second Parliament of Charles I. he was one of the managers of Buckingham's impeachment, and in the third he took a prominent part in the debates about the Petition of Right. In 1640 he was naturally pointed out to head the popular party, and the great speeches in which he summed up their grievances were widely circulated amongst the people. He moved the impeachment of Strafford, drew up with the aid of St. John the charges against him, and was the chief manager of his trial. The Bill of Attainder was forced on him by the extreme party amongst his followers, and Pym did his best to give the proceedings a judicial form. Not only was he a very able debater and Parliamentary tactician, but he had what Clarendon terms "a very comely and grave way of expressing himself." He was a strong Presbyterian, though not at first disposed to go the length of the Root-and-Branch party, and it was probably on account of this relative moderation that it was at one time intended by the king to offer him the post of Chancellor of the Exchequer. The Protestation and the Grand Remonstrance, two appeals to the people, were particularly his work. The influence which he exercised gained him from the Royalists the nickname of King Pym, and marked him out for impeachment on the charge of treasonable correspondence with the Scots, and attempt to subvert the fundamental laws of the kingdom, brought against him by the king in January, 1642. After the refusal of the guarantees demanded by Parliament, Pym became a leading member of the Committee of Safety (July 4, 1642). He was practically the head of the government, and unceasingly active in directing the conduct of the war, and maintaining the spirit of resistance in city and Parliament. He was excepted from pardon in the king's proclamations, and exposed both to the slanders of the Royalists and to many accusations from the discontented of his own party. But he retained

the confidence of the Parliament to the last, and a month before his death they conferred on him the important post of Lieutenant-General of the Ordnance of the Kingdom. His last important work was the bringing about the alliance with the Scots. He died on Dec. 8, 1643, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. Clarendon thus describes his position in 1640: "He seemed to all men to have the greatest influence upon the House of Commons of any man; and, in truth, I think he was at that time, and for some months after, the most popular man, and the most able to do hurt, that hath lived in any time."

Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng., 1603—1642*; Forster, *British Statesmen*; May, *Long Parliament*; Clarendon, *Rebellion*. [C. H. F.]

Pyrenees, The Battles of the (July 25—Aug. 2, 1813), during the closing period of the Peninsular War, were a series of combats which resulted in the defeat of Soult's attempt to relieve San Sebastian. In July, Soult had been sent to supersede Joseph. On the 25th and 26th, General Cole was vigorously attacked by Soult at Roncesvalles, and only just managed to maintain his position until Picton and Campbell arrived, while, at Maya, Stewart was all but driven from the pass, after losing two successive positions. Wellington, on returning from San Sebastian, heard of these combats at Imeta, and at once gave orders for all the troops to concentrate in communication with the force at Pampeluna. The retreat of the troops was successfully accomplished. On the 28th a combat took place at Santarem, where Wellington, with very inferior numbers, held a strong position against the attacks of Soult. On the 30th, Hill was attacked at Buenzas in a difficult position, and his position was turned; but in the meantime Wellington had assaulted and taken Santarem, and had thrown the French who were engaged against him into hopeless confusion. Soult's position had become desperate, and it was necessary to retreat. In the narrow passes he with difficulty escaped being surrounded and losing his whole army. During nine days' fighting the allies had lost 7,300 men, while the French loss must have been quite double. Soult's army was rendered incapable of further action for the present, and Wellington at once ordered Graham to renew the siege of San Sebastian.

Napier, *Peninsular War*; Clinton, *Peninsular War*.

Q

Quadruple Alliance, The (August, 1718), was the name given to the extension of the Triple Alliance of 1717 between England, France, and Holland by the adhesion of the Emperor to its principles. A treaty was drawn up by the allied powers, with the main object of maintaining the European settlement effected by the Treaty of Utrecht. With a few changes of detail, the chief articles of the treaty were that Spain was to restore Sardinia to the Emperor, and the King of Spain to renounce his claim to succeed to the French crown; while the Emperor renounced all claim to what had been guaranteed to Philip V. by the Treaty of Utrecht. Philip was to renounce his claim to the Italian possessions of the Emperor and to the Netherlands. The Emperor was to be put in possession of Sicily, in return for which the Emperor was to give up Sardinia to the King of Sicily, who was to be confirmed in all the cessions made to him by the Treaty of Turin in 1703; while the Emperor was to acknowledge the house of Savoy's right to succeed to the crown of Spain in case of the failure of Philip V.'s heirs. France and Great Britain promised to aid the Emperor to acquire possession of Sicily; while the Emperor and the French bound themselves to maintain the Protestant succession in England. The Kings of Spain and Sicily were to be forced to submit to these terms, but were allowed three months' consideration. If any one of the mediating powers was attacked, the others should assist him. If both Spain and Sicily held out, Sardinia was to be first conquered, and then Sicily, of which two islands the former was to be put in the guardianship of England; and in case of this resistance on the part of these two powers, the Emperor was allowed to recover the part of Milan ceded by the Treaty of Turin. When once in possession of Sicily the Emperor was to give up all claim upon Spain and the Indies.

Koch and Schoell, *Hist. des Traités de Paix.*

Quakers, The, owe their origin to George Fox, who seems to have commenced preaching about the year 1647, from which time his life was almost constant travel or imprisonment. The term Quaker seems to have been first bestowed upon the new religious body at Derby in 1650, in allusion to Fox's phrase bidding people "tremble at the word of the Lord." Before long his wilder followers began to draw attention to themselves by their strange habits, which disturbed public worship, and by declaiming against all sorts of clergy, against the use of "steeple-houses" and fixed times of assembling. But the extravagances of the new sect were confined to fanatics, and must not be set down to the discredit of its more respectable members like Barclay and Penn. By 1652 the Quakers had already set up assemblies in Lancashire, and, a few years later, held their first separate London meeting in Watling Street. Neal relates, though apparently on somewhat doubtful authority in some cases, the most extraordinary tales of their conduct in these days; and Whitelocke assures us that one Quaker came to the door of the Parlia-

ment-house with drawn sword, being "inspired by the Spirit to kill every man that sat in the house." Such extravagant conduct gained them many enemies; but Cromwell was willing to lend them his protection, and was specially averse to the treatment of Naylor, a Quaker who received a severe sentence as a blasphemer, Dec. 17, 1656. At the Restoration, they petitioned the king in favour of the four hundred men and women of their sect imprisoned in or near London, and petitioned for toleration. The only answer to this petition was a declaration that if, after a certain date, any people should refuse to take an oath—a ceremony which the Quakers considered wicked—or should assemble for worship, they should be liable to two fines of £5 and £10, and for the third offence to transportation. The Acts of Uniformity and the Corporation Act told upon them as upon other Dissenters. On James II.'s accession they petitioned the new king for toleration, and now had a defender at court in the person of Penn. They gladly accepted the privileges of the Declaration of Indulgence. In 1682 Penn had founded the colony of Pennsylvania, and one of the leading articles of its constitution granted freedom of conscience to all who acknowledged the "one eternal God." The Quakers shared in the benefits of the Toleration Act, and in many of the various Acts by which, in subsequent times, the bounds of religious and civil liberty have been enlarged. In 1833 they were allowed to make a "solemn affirmation and declaration" in lieu of an oath in Parliament and courts of law.

Neal, *Hist. of the Puritans*; Bogue, *Hist. of Dissenters*; Stoughton, *Hist. of Religion in England*.

Quatre Bras, The Battle of (June 16, 1815), was an encounter between the left of the French army and the English advanced guard in the short campaign of 1815. Quatre Bras itself was merely a mass of farm-buildings situated at the point where the four main roads to Brussels, Nivelles, Charleroi, and Namur intersect. Napoleon's orders were that, while he attacked the Prussians at Ligny, on the 16th, Ney should simultaneously overwhelm the British force at Quatre Bras. The attacks began at three o'clock in the afternoon, and as evening wore on, Ney became aware that no reinforcements could reach him; and at the same time fresh troops were arriving for the allies, among whom were two brigades of the Guards. As the attacks became feebler, Wellington ordered all the troops to advance. They at once drove the French before them, and carried every position which the French had won. Night had now fallen, and the troops bivouacked on the field of battle. The reinforcements had now given Wellington a numerical superiority over Ney; but the necessity of forming a connection with Blücher, who was falling back from Ligny, compelled him to forego the opportunity of attacking Ney on the 17th, and at ten o'clock next morning he began a retreat to the field of Waterloo.

Siborne, *Waterloo Campaign*; Chesney, *Waterloo Lectures*.

Quebec, Province of. [Canada.]

Quebec, The Capture of (Sept. 13, 1759), was effected by General Wolfe during the campaign in America which formed part of the Seven Years' War. The idea of attacking Quebec, the capital of French Canada, was one of long standing with English ministers, and in 1711 an expedition was sent against it, which returned without being able to make its way through the channel of the St. Lawrence. The town was, from its position, considered impregnable, and was defended by 13,000 French troops under the Marquis de Montcalm. Wolfe's force of 8,000 men, on board Admiral Saunders's fleet, succeeded in landing on the Isle of Orleans, before the city, by June 27, 1759. On the 29th Wolfe took possession of the headland of Point Levi, which faces Quebec. The city was situated on a promontory of lofty rocks, which, continuing beyond the city, were called the Heights of Abraham. Montcalm had so disposed his troops as to command the only dangerous position of assault, with the river and the sandbank in his front, and behind him heavy woods. Wolfe commenced to fire on the city from his two batteries, while Montcalm remained for the most part on the defensive. On July 9 Wolfe carried his troops over to the left bank, while a squadron of English ships, passing further up the river, maintained the blockade. At last, being unable to induce Montcalm to move, Wolfe crossed the Montmorency, but was beaten back. Still the two other English armies failed to appear. To add to the other difficulties, Wolfe fell ill of a fever, and there were only between 3,000 and 4,000 effective men. On the night of Sept. 12 Wolfe determined to attempt to scale the Heights of Abraham. In the darkness of the midnight, half his forces were carried across with the tide. Clambering up the precipice, they startled the French company guarding that part of the heights. Before Montcalm could muster his men, the English were at the back of Quebec. In the engagement that followed Wolfe was wounded, and died in the moment of victory. At the Tercentenary celebrations in 1908, the Plains of Abraham were converted into a national park.

Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; Gleig, *British Commanders*; R. Wright, *Memoirs of General Wolfe*.

Quebec Act, The (1774), was passed at the instigation of Lord North, to conciliate, as far as possible, the French Canadians, and to secure their allegiance to Britain in the approaching war with America. This Act

restored the old French system, and established the Roman Catholic Church, to which the vast majority of the Canadians belonged, whilst it "confirmed the French Canadians in their possessions, their laws, and rights, on condition of their taking an oath of allegiance which was so worded as not to hurt the conscience of Roman Catholics." It also provided for the establishment of a legislative council, with authority over everything except taxation.

Creasy, *Britannic Empire.*

Queen is a word which originally meant no more than woman or wife, though it early came to be used for the wife of a king. Asser, after telling how Ethelwulf upon his return to England with his second wife, Judith, placed her upon a throne by his side, "contrary to the perverse custom" of the West Saxons, proceeds to explain that the evil deeds of Eadburh, wife of Beorhtric of Wessex, had caused the nobles of that kingdom to swear that they would not henceforth allow any king's wife to sit upon the throne beside her husband, or even to be called "queen" (*regina*). According to Professor Freeman (*Norm. Conq.*), this explains the fact that in Wessex the usual title for the king's wife was "Lady," *Hlæfdige*, though in Mercia "Queen," *cwen*, was still used. From the time of Ethelred, however, a special form for the coronation of the queen appears in the rituals; Eadgyth, wife of the Confessor, is said by the chronicler to have been "hallowed to queen," though she is afterwards always spoken of as "lady;" and from the coronation of Matilda, wife of the Conqueror, onward, the title "queen" is always applied to the wife of the king. But it still carried with it the sense of king's *wife*, and this may, perhaps, explain the fact that the Empress Matilda, who claimed the crown in her own right, is never spoken of as "queen," or "regina," but in the chronicles appears as "Empress," and in William of Malmesbury and a charter, as "Domina." On the other hand, Stephen's wife, Matilda, is spoken of as "the king's *cwen*."

Henry I.'s attempt to secure the accession of his daughter broke down, partly because the rule of a woman was unprecedented, and opposed alike to the old English theory of election and the new feudal spirit, but still more because of her marriage with the Count of Anjou, the hereditary enemy of the Normans. But till long afterwards there were doubts whether a queen could reign in England. The accession of Mary Tudor was secured alike by her father's will, authorised by Act of Parliament, and by the strong legitimist feeling of the country. To extinguish, however, "the doubt and folly of malicious and ignorant persons," a statute was passed declaring that a queen regnant has the same powers and prerogatives as a king. Mary, wife of William III., occupied a curious position, midway between that of queen consort and queen regnant, for while the Bill of Rights declared the Prince and Princess of Orange joint sovereigns, and her name accompanied his in all public documents, "the sole and full exercise of the regal power" was entrusted to the prince.

The mediæval queens consort of England usually possessed considerable estates separately administered, and had their own chancellors. In modern times they have had their attorneys and solicitors-general, though the offices are merely nominal. Apparently even before the Conquest the queen consort received "queen's gold" (*aurum reginæ*, probably the same as the *gersamma reginæ* of Domesday), *i.e.*, one mark of gold for every one hundred marks of silver paid to the king in feudal dues and the like. As there was no queen consort from the death of Henry VIII. to the accession of James I., its payment was suspended, and Anne of Denmark never exacted it. In 1635 writs were again issued for levying it, but Charles afterwards bought the right from his wife for £10,000, and it was never enforced.

By the Act 25 Edward III. it was rendered treason to compass or imagine the death of the queen, or to violate her, and in the latter case the queen herself, if consenting, was guilty of treason. For this offence Anne Boleyn was tried before the peers of Parliament; Caroline, wife of George IV., was proceeded against in a like case by a bill of pains and penalties. The legal position of a queen consort is that of a *feme sole*, and not of a *feme covert*. She "is of ability to purchase lands and convey them, to make leases, to grant copyholds, and do the other acts of ownership (without the concurrence of her lord), which no other married woman until very recently could do. She may likewise sue and be sued alone without joining her husband. She may also have a separate property in goods, as well as in lands, and she has a right to dispose of them by will." (Stephen.) But though she can be sued, she is not liable to any amercement.

A queen dowager is not protected by the Statute of Treasons. An Act is said to have been passed in the reign of Henry VI., though of this there is little evidence, rendering any person who dared to marry a queen dowager without special royal licence liable to the forfeiture of his lands and goods. No action, however, seems to have been taken when it was discovered that Lord Seymour of Sudeley had married Catherine Parr before leave was given.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, i. § 118; Freeman, *Norman Conquest.* For the legal position of the queen consort and dowager, Stephen, *Commentaries*, bk. iv., pt. i., ch. iv. [W. J. A.]

Queen Anne's Bounty was instituted in 1704 for the relief of the poorer clergy. The tax known as the first-fruits and tenths

of livings on the Church (the surrender, that is, of the entire income of the first year of every ecclesiastical living, and the tenth part of the income of every subsequent year), had been originally imposed by the papacy, but this had been transferred to the crown by Henry VIII. Under Charles II. the condition of the clergy was miserable in the extreme; their incomes hardly ever amounted to £100 a year —they were often less than £15. At this time the tax only produced £14,000 a year, and the king used it as a fund from which to pension his mistresses and their offspring. In 1697 Bishop Burnet presented to William III. a plan for transferring the proceeds of the tax from the crown to the poor clergy, but the king set it aside. The design was carried out in the next reign. On Feb. 7, the day after the queen's birthday, Sir Charles Hedges, Chancellor of the Exchequer, announced to the House that her Majesty intended to make a grant of her whole revenue arising out of the first-fruits and tenths of livings, for the benefit of the poorer clergy. The project was warmly approved by the House, and a bill passed empowering the queen to incorporate such persons as she should select as trustees for her bounty. The measure passed through the Lords after some opposition. Various regulations have been made with reference to this fund since it was first handed over for the benefit of the clergy. Of these Acts the principal are 2 and 3 Anne, c. 20, authorising the queen to establish a corporation for the management of the fund, which was done the same year, consisting of archbishops, bishops, privy-councillors, various law officers, the mayors of cities, *custodes rotulorum*, and lieutenants of counties, &c. By 1 Geo. I. these trustees were allowed to examine witnesses on oath. £200 was to be invested for the increase of each living with a stipend of less than £10 a year: then those not exceeding £20. To every living under £45 a year the governors might make a grant of £200 on condition of a similar amount being raised from other sources. By 46 Geo. III., c. 133, £6,000 a year was granted for the augmentation of livings not exceeding £150 a year. By 28 & 29 Vic., c. 69, any five of the governors (three being archishops or bishops) are constituted a quorum. Other statutes have allowed certain advances for repairing chancels, building parsonages, and other similar purposes.

Burnet, *Hist. of his Own Time*; Stanhope, *Reign of Queen Anne*; Wyon, *Hist. of Great Britain during the Reign of Queen Anne.*

Queen-gold (*Aurum Reginæ*) was a claim made by the Queens of England on every tenth mark paid to the king on the renewal of leases or crown-lands on the granting of charters—matters of grace supposed to be obtained by the powerful intercession of the queen.

Queensberry, James Douglas, 2nd Duke of (1662—1711), succeeded to his father's title in 1695. He had been a staunch supporter of the Prince of Orange, and in his earlier years had served in the army. In 1700 he was appointed High Commissioner to the Parliament of Scotland, and in 1702 and 1703 occupied the same office for Queen Anne. In the latter year he was driven out of office for his share in what is popularly called "The Queensberry Plot" (q.v.), but two years later was made Keeper of the Privy Seal, and a Commissioner for the treaty of the Union. For the purpose of carrying the Union through, he was appointed Lord High Commissioner to the last Scotch Parliament in 1706, and on his journey to London was received with the utmost honour in England as some recompense for the execrations he had to encounter in Scotland. As a reward for his services on this occasion he was created an English peer (1708), a pension of £3,000 a year was granted him out of the Post Office, and "the whole patronage of Scotland was vested in his hands." In 1709 his vote in the election of the Scotch representative peers was disallowed, as he now sat in the House of Lords in his own right. His death occurred in 1711. His son Charles, the third Duke of Queensberry, was friend and patron of Prior and Gay.

Queensberry Plot, The (1703). In March, 1703, Queen Anne granted a pardon to all Scotch political offenders who would take the oath to her government. Encouraged by this act of generosity several of the exiled adherents of the Stuarts availed themselves of this opportunity of returning to their own country for the purposes of stirring up sedition. Amongst those who took advantage of the new state of affairs was Lord Lovat. Before long it got noised abroad that there was to be a great Highland gathering at Lochaber early in August, and people were not long in discovering or inventing a political meaning to this event. Lovat now availed himself of the general feeling of disquietude to gratify a grudge which he had long held against Lord Athole, the Keeper of the Privy Seal. Having in his possession an unaddressed letter written by the Pretender's queen to some Scotch noble, he filled in the blank of the superscription with the name of Athole, and then forwarded the document to the commissioner, the Duke of Queensberry. The latter nobleman, glad of an opportunity of ruining his colleague, sent on the letter unopened to the queen. Before long, however, one of Lovat's friends revealed the deceit, and the chief plotter had to fly to the Continent. But as a result of his deception Queensberry had to quit office, and even then the effects of this movement were not all over. In December the queen informed the House of Lords in London that there were

French emissaries stirring up rebellion in Scotland, and this body at once commenced investigating the question on its own account, but without coming to any very definite result. In the meanwhile, however, the appointment of a committee of inquiry in the House of Lords had wounded the feelings of the Scotch, who naturally considered that such a question should be dealt with by their own Privy Council. At the same time the proceedings of the House of Lords had stirred up indignation nearer home. The Commons discovered in the action of the Peers that this body were assuming powers of criminal inquiry which did not belong to it, and prayed the queen to give orders for the investigation to be carried on by her officers. Accordingly, when the Scotch Parliament met in January, 1704, the queen desired the Privy Council to ascertain how much truth there was in the suspected plot.

Queensferry Paper, The (June, 1680), was found in the pocket of Henry Hall, one of the leading Covenanters in Scotland. He was captured at Queensferry, and the document that had been in his possession read at the council board. This document was a preliminary sketch of the more famous Declaration of Sanquhar (q.v.).

Queensland. [Australia.]

Queenston, The Battle of (Oct., 1812), was fought on the shores of Lake Ontario between an invading force of Americans, and the English and Canadian forces led by Generals Brock and Sheaffe. The victory remained with the English, who, however, purchased it by the death of General Brock.

Querouaille, Louise de, Duchess of Portsmouth (*d.* 1734), came over to England in the train of Henrietta of Orleans, the sister of Charles II., whose mistress she shortly became, and who soon created her Duchess of Portsmouth (1673). She appears to have been friendly with Arlington, and to have long kept up a communication with the French ambassadors, being very anxious for the friendship between Louis XIV. and Charles II. to continue. Towards the close of the reign she became a strong partisan of the Exclusion Bill. A little later she became on good terms with the Duke of York, finding that he was willing to guarantee her £5,000 a year from the receipts of the Post Office. Next year (1682) she was mainly instrumental in securing Sunderland's recall to office, and in 1684 was one of the prime movers of the ruling ministers, Sunderland and Godolphin. When the king was seized with his fatal apoplectic stroke, it was she who reminded the Duke of York that his brother was at heart a Catholic, and who thus succeeded in calling Francis to the royal deathbed. By Charles II. she was the mother of the Duke of Richmond; but her own title died with her.

Quia Emptores is the name given to the statute enacted in 1290, which directed that in all future transfers of land the new tenant should hold the land not from the alienor, but from the next lord. Thus if B holding land from A transferred some of that land to C, C would hold it not from B but from A. In this way sub-infeudation was checked, and no new manors could be formed. The real importance of this act consisted in its stopping the creation of fresh manors, and, by putting a great bar to the practice of sub-infeudation, largely increasing the chances of the greater landlords, and above all the landlord *par excellence*, the king, to escheats. From this point of view it may well be compared with the Statute of Mortmain.

Stubbs, *Select Charters* and *Const. Hist.*; Digby, *Hist. of the Law of Real Property.*

Quiberon, The Battle of (Nov. 20, 1759), was fought between the English and French during the Seven Years' War. Sir Edward Hawke had been engaged during the summer of 1759 in blockading the French fleet, which lay at Brest under De Conflans, and when, in the autumn, he was forced to stand off, the French admiral seized his opportunity to sally forth in the hope of overpowering a few English frigates that were cruising about under Captain Duff, before Sir Edward Hawke could come up to their aid. In this plan, however, De Conflans was unsuccessful, and the united English fleets drove the French—to whom they were slightly superior in numbers—back from the point of Quiberon to coast near the mouth of the Vilaine. The French ships were drawn up close to a shore rocky and set with islands. Shoals and quicksands rendered their position still more dangerous to attack. Nevertheless, Hawke determined on an engagement, and refused to listen to the representations of his pilot, whom he answered with the words, "You have done your duty in this remonstrance; now lay me alongside the French admiral." The battle resulted in a decisive victory for the English, who only lost forty men, and by night two French ships had struck, four were sunk, and the others had drawn up the Vilaine. To set against this, two English vessels were stranded, but their crews were saved. In return for this victory, which relieved England from all fear of invasion, and shattered the French naval power for a time, a pension of £1,500 a year was conferred upon Admiral Hawke.

Quiberon, The Expedition to, took place in the year 1795, and was intended to assist the Royalist insurgents of La Vendée and Britanny. After much delay, the expedition, consisting largely of French royalist refugees, left England (July, 1795), and landed at the peninsula of Quiberon, near Carnac. Here they were joined by a large number of

"Chouans" and irregular troops, commanded by the Royalist generals De Puisaye and D'Hervilly. The little fort of Penthièvre was captured by these troops; but after that nothing was done, owing to jealousies among the leaders. Meanwhile, Hoche, the Republican general, had raised 10,000 troops, and managed to recapture the fort, and to shut the invaders up in the Peninsula of Quiberon. They were then attacked by the Republicans, and cut to pieces, or driven into the sea. About 900, with the leader, De Puisaye, escaped to the English vessels. The remainder were killed or taken captive. Of the prisoners 700 were shot by their captors after the fighting was over.

Alison, *Hist. of Europe;* Von Sybel, *French Revolution.*

Quorum, Justices of the. When justices of the peace were appointed in each county, it was customary, in empowering any two or more of them to inquire into offences, to specify the names of some few of these justices, without whose presence business could not be transacted. The specifying words were "quorum (*i.e.*, of the whole number) aliquem vestrum, A., B., C., D., &c., unum esse volumus," and from this phrase these more important justices were called "justices of the quorum." It has now, however, become customary to make no distinction between special justices and others; and as a rule, the "*quorum*" clause simply repeats all the preceding names, with perhaps one exception, for the sake of form. The writ at present used in the appointment of these justices, has continued with very little alteration indeed since the year 1590.

Quo Warranto Commissions were issued by Edward I., for the purpose of inquiring into the questions—(i.) what were the royal manors; (ii.) by what warrant estates that were formerly crown lands, or (iii.) judicial rights that were once exercised by the crown, had passed into the hands of private individuals or corporations. In 1274 the king had appointed a commission of inquiry, which resulted in the "Rotuli Hundredorum," and by the Statute of Gloucester (1278), the itinerant justices were to order the people by proclamation "to show what kind of franchises they had, and by what warrant." These commissions were frequently resisted, notably by Earl Warenne; but the inquiry was continued through a period of more than twenty years. The most important effect of these commissions was that they prevented any further encroachments on royal property or rights.

R

Rabbling the Curates, was the name given to the expulsion of Episcopalian clergymen from the south-west of Scotland by the Cameronians in 1689—90. There seems to have been comparatively little mob violence. Cameronian committees were formed to superintend the ejectment, and formal notices to quit were sent to the curates. A subsequent act of the Scottish Parliament legalised these proceedings by declaring the parishes vacant.

The expulsion is described in the Cameronian pamphlet, *Faithful Contendings Displayed.* Somewhat opposing accounts will be found in Burton, *Hist. Scot.*, ch. lxxxi., and Cunningham, *Church History*, ch. xxi., 16—19.

Radcot Bridge, The Battle of (1387), was a skirmish on the Thames near Faringdon, between De Vere, Duke of Ireland, the favourite of Richard II., and the baronial forces under the Earl of Derby (afterwards Henry IV.). De Vere, finding himself outnumbered, fled, and his men surrendered after a slight skirmish. The result of this defeat was to place the king entirely at the mercy of Gloucester and the other Lords Appellant.

Radical. The exact origin of this term as applied to a political party is unknown; possibly it was derived from a speech delivered by Fox in 1797, wherein he declared that "radical reform" was necessary. The word seems to have come into general use about 1816, and was applied to persons agitating on behalf of extreme measures of Parliamentary reform. The best account of the early character of the movement is given by the weaver Samuel Bamford (*Passages in the Life of a Radical*). Describing a meeting of representatives from several "Hampden Clubs," he says, "Resolutions were passed declaratory of the right of every male to vote who paid taxes; that males of eighteen should be eligible to vote; that parliaments should be elected annually; that no placeman or pensioner should sit in Parliament; that every twenty thousand inhabitants should send a member to the House of Commons. It was not until we became infested by spies, incendiaries, and their dupes, that physical force was mentioned among us." The most important leaders of the party were "Orator" Hunt, Cobbett, and Major Cartwright; it was also patronised by Sir Francis Burdett. Some of the extreme Radicals, however, seem to have planned an armed movement; and the action of the government and public fear caused the terms Radical and rioter to be used as synonymous. Even Brougham said in 1819, "The Radicals have made themselves so odious, that a number even of our own way of thinking would be pleased enough to see them and their vile press put down at all hazards." During the struggle over the Reform Bill of 1832, the term began to be adopted by some comparatively moderate Parliamentary advocates of reform. In the Parliaments which followed they numbered from fifty to seventy, including Grote,

Molesworth, Roebuck, Joseph Hume, etc. Henceforth the term came to indicate little more than an advanced Liberal; and after the Reform Bill of 1867 was often used as a scornful designation for the whole Liberal party.

For the early Radical movement, besides Bamford, see Martineau, *History of the Peace*, bk. i.; and Spencer Walpole, *Hist. of Eng.*, vol. i., ch. v.

Raffles, Sir Thomas Stamford (*b.* 1781, *d.* 1826), a colonial administrator and naturalist, was the son of a naval captain. He became a clerk in the India House, and was appointed in 1805 under-secretary at Prince of Wales' Island. His ability brought him under the notice of Lord Minto, to whom he suggested the conquest of Java from the Dutch. This island he administered as Lieutenant-Governor from 1811 to 1816. From 1818 to 1824 he was Lieutenant-Governor of Bencoolen in Sumatra, and succeeded in establishing the settlement at Singapore. In Java and in Sumatra he emancipated the slaves, and introduced many reforms.

Raglan, Lord (*b.* 1788, *d.* 1855). Fitzroy Henry Somerset, youngest son of the fifth Duke of Beaufort, entered the army in 1804. In 1808 Sir Arthur Wellesley appointed him his aide-de-camp; in this capacity he served all through the Peninsular War, and was present at Waterloo, where he lost an arm. In 1852 he was appointed Master General of Ordnance and elevated to the House of Peers. In 1854 he became Field Marshal. On the breaking out of the Crimean War Lord Raglan was appointed commander-in-chief of the British Army. He reached the Crimea in September, 1854, and shared with Marshal St. Arnaud the command of the allied forces during the winter and the following spring [Crimean War]. Lord Raglan was heavily weighed down by the anxiety caused by the sufferings of his men in the trenches. His health had been gradually failing before he was seized by a fatal attack of cholera.

Kinglake, *The Invasion of the Crimea; Annual Register*, 1855.

Ragman Rolls, The, are a collection of documents recording the homage performed by the Scotch barons and clergy to Edward I. on his progress through Scotland in 1296. They are a most important source of information upon the condition of Scotland in the fourteenth century. The Bannatyne Club published the documents in full in 1834.

Railways and Railway Legislation. The first public English railway, as distinct from the tram-lines of colliery owners, was authorised by Act of Parliament in 1801. The railway was for goods and mineral traffic, and connected Croydon and Reigate with the Thames at Wandsworth. In 1814 an application was made to Parliament for power to construct a railway for coals and goods, to be worked by animal power or stationary engines, between Stockton and Darlington. The Bill became law in 1821; in 1823 George Stephenson was appointed engineer of the company, and at his suggestion the company obtained Parliamentary powers to use locomotive engines and to carry passengers. In 1825 the Liverpool and Manchester Railway was authorised; it was opened in 1830. The dates of the Acts incorporating some of the other great undertakings are:—London and Birmingham (afterwards London and North-Western), 1833; London and Southampton (nucleus of the South-Western), 1834; Great Western, 1835; South Eastern, 1836; Great Northern, 1846. The first general Railway Regulation Act, passed in 1840 and modified in 1842, empowered the Board of Trade to inspect all passenger railways before their opening, and to require returns of railway traffic, accidents, and rates. But a more important Act was passed in 1844 (7 & 8 Vict., c. 85). This provided that the Board of Trade might revise the rates charged by any line when its clear annual profits exceeded ten per cent.; it also secured to the State the option of purchasing any line opened after 1844 after twenty-one years from its completion. This Act also introduced "Parliamentary trains"—*i.e.* it enacted that along every line one train each way must be run on every weekday at a speed of at least twelve miles per hour, carrying passengers at one penny per mile. In 1846 the "battle of the gauges" was decided by the enforcement by law of a uniform gauge of 4 ft. 8½ in., except in those districts served by the existing broad gauge (Great Western) system. In 1854 the Railway and Canal Traffic Act compelled the Companies to give reasonable facilities for the receipt and forwarding of traffic transferred from one line to another, and prohibited the giving of undue preferences to particular customers.

The Railway and Canal Traffic Act of 1873 (amended by an Act of 1888) set up a Railway Commission of three members, two being legal and one a railway expert, for the settlement of disputes between the Companies or a Company and the public. The Railway Regulation Act, 1893 (56 & 57 Vict., c. 29), conferred important powers on the Board of Trade in revising the hours of labour of railway employees.

The Report of the Royal Commission of 1867 contains much important historical information. *See* also Farrer, in *Social England*, vol. vi., c. 22.

Raipoor Ghaut, The Treaty of (Dec. 24, 1805), terminated the war between the East India Company and Jeswunt Rao Holkar. All his territories were restored to him, but he was obliged to renounce his claims to Boondee and Rampoor, and accept the Chumbul as his northern boundary.

Mill, *British India*, vol. vi., ch. xiii.

Raleigh, Sir Walter (*b.* 1552, *d.* 1618), was the son of Walter Raleigh of Budleigh, in Devonshire. In 1578 he accompanied his half-brother, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, on a voyage of discovery to Newfoundland, which proved unsuccessful. In 1580 Raleigh obtained military employment in Ireland, where he distinguished himself by his ruthless severity, and took part in the massacre of the Smerwick garrison. For his services he received 12,000 acres of the Desmond land, and it was upon these that he first planted the potato in 1596. In 1584 he obtained a charter for the colonisation of any lands not held by a Christian prince; three expeditions were despatched by Raleigh to America, but the colony which had received the name of Virginia had to be abandoned in 1590. After taking an active part in the defence of the country against the Armada, he voyaged to Guiana to find El Dorado in 1595, accompanied Essex to the capture of Cadiz in 1596, and joined in the expedition to the Azores in the following year. On the accession of James I. he was dismissed from court. He was shortly afterwards charged with complicity in Lord Cobham's plot in favour of Lady Arabella Stuart, was found guilty of treason and sentenced to death. The true history of the plot can scarcely be recovered, but it seems certain that Raleigh was guilty of nothing more than vague talk. The sentence of death was, however, not carried into effect, and Raleigh remained a prisoner in the Tower for twelve years, occupying himself in writing his *History of the World*. In 1617 he was released, in order to conduct an expedition to Guiana in search of gold; the gold mine remained undiscovered, and Raleigh returned to England in 1618. He was badly received by James, who, disappointed at the ill success of the expedition, declared his intention of punishing those who had committed acts of violence "against his dear brother of Spain." Raleigh was executed on his old sentence (Oct. 29, 1618).

Edwards, *Life and Letters of Raleigh*, the most complete biography. Pope Hennessy's *Raleigh in Ireland* and Schomburgk's edition of Raleigh's *Discovery of Guiana* are useful for particular periods. The best discussion of his share in Cobham's plot is in Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng.*, vol i., and account of his last expedition to Guiana in vol. iii. A useful little sketch has been written by Mrs. Creighton.

Ralph, James, was a native of Philadelphia. He settled in England in 1725. He devoted himself to literature, and produced some plays and dramas of little merit. Among other works he wrote *The Use and Abuse of Parliaments*, and a *History* of England during the reigns of Charles II., James II., and William III.

Ralph of Escures, Archbishop of Canterbury 1114—1122, was the son of a Norman baron, and became Abbot of Seez. He was ejected from his abbey in 1100 by Robert de Belesme, and sought refuge in England with Henry I. In 1108 he was made Bishop of Rochester, and as such, on the death of St. Anselm in 1109, he acted as administrator of the see of Canterbury. For five years Henry refused to fill Anselm's place, but at length he was obliged to consent to an election, and in 1114 Ralph was chosen archbishop. An attempt to exact from Thurstan, Archbishop Elect of York, an acknowledgment of the supremacy of the Archbishop of Canterbury, is the most important event in Ralph's subsequent career. In 1119 he had a stroke of palsy, and died in 1122.

The fullest modern account is in Hook's *Archbishops of Canterbury*, based on Eadmer, *Historic Novorum*, William of Malmesbury, and Ordericus Vitalis.

Ramillies, The Battle of (May 23, 1706), the second of Marlborough's great victories in the War of the Spanish Succession. Both Marlborough and Villeroi, the French commander, were eager for a battle, and the armies met near Ramillies, between Namur and Louvain. Villeroi's right wing was composed of the household troops, while his left, which he considered sufficiently protected by the swamp created by a stream (the Little Gheet), consisted only of a single line of infantry. Marlborough made a feint of attacking the left; Villeroi was at once deceived, and withdrew troops from his right to strengthen it. Then the main body of the English and Dutch attacked the French extreme right, which was also taken in the flank by the Danish cavalry, which had galloped round unperceived. Thus the French position was turned, and now the main body was attacked. After a hard struggle, the household troops retreated. The difficulties caused by the baggage waggons in the rear created a panic, and the whole army fled in the direction of Brussels. Many towns at once surrendered, and before the end of the year the only places of importance held by the French in the Netherlands were Mons and Namur.

Marlborough Despatches; Mahon, *War of Spanish Succession*; Wyon, *Reign of Anne*.

Ramnuggur, The Battle of (1848). At the beginning of the second Sikh war, the British army, under Lord Gough, attacked Shere Sing at Ramnuggur on the Chenab. His position, however, was too strong to storm; and many lives were lost in a charge of the dragoons to clear the Sikhs from the dry sandy bed of the river. A flanking movement was then attempted, whereupon Shere Sing withdrew to Sadoollapoor.

Ramsay, Sir Alexander, of Dalhousie, compelled the English in 1338 to raise the siege of Dunbar (q.v.). After carrying on a

successful guerilla war against them for some years, he took the castle of Roxburgh (1342), receiving as his reward the sheriffdom of Teviotdale. This aroused the jealousy of Sir William Douglas, who captured him at Hawick and starved him to death in his castle of Hermitage.

Randolph, Sir Thomas (*b.* 1523, *d.* 1590), one of the ministers of Queen Elizabeth, was compelled to seek an asylum abroad during the reign of Mary, owing to his religious opinions. On his return to England, after Mary's death, he was employed on several important diplomatic missions to France and Russia, and more especially to Scotland, in connection with which country his statesmanship was chiefly shown. His first embassy to Scotland was in 1559, when he accompanied the Earl of Arran, and in the following year he was employed by Elizabeth to testify to the Scotch her disapprobation of the Confession of Faith. In 1563—4 he was sent to Mary, Queen of Scots, charged with the delicate mission of recommending a husband for her, the individual selected being Lord Robert Dudley, afterwards Earl of Leicester. In 1564 Randolph was named a commissioner at the Conference of Berwick (q.v.), and in the subsequent year was again ambassador in Scotland, sending to the queen "accounts from week to week of the position of parties and of the progress of the crisis." In the same year he was commissioned to assure the Protestant lords in Scotland of Elizabeth's sympathy, and to promise Argyle and Murray that they should have what aid from England they required. In 1566 the Queen of Scots ordered him to withdraw from her court, knowing, says Mr. Froude, that he "had shared Murray's secrets, that he had been Elizabeth's instrument in keeping alive in Scotland the Protestant faction, and that so long as he remained the party whom she most detested would have a nucleus to gather round." In 1570 he was again sent to the north, but the feeling against England was so strong in Edinburgh that he found that he could not with safety remain. Two years later he was obliged to return to Edinburgh, and was twice shot at. In 1581 he was ordered to demand the release of Morton from James VI.; but the hatred of the English still continued, and the ambassador had to flee for his life. Cautious, trustworthy, and deeply skilled in Scotch politics, Randolph obtained the confidence of the queen and the goodwill of Cecil, who wrote of him, "He is worth more than I fear our time will well consider."

Burghley Papers; Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*

Rangoon, the capital of Burmah, was occupied by the English in 1824, during the first Burmese war. In the second Burmese war, undertaken on account of the oppression of British subjects at Rangoon, the town was taken by storm by the English forces under General Godwin, April 14, 1852. At the conclusion of the war the province of Pegu, including Rangoon, was annexed to British India. Situated at the mouth of the Irrawaddy, it is an extremely favourable situation for trade, and has become one of the most important commercial cities of British India.

Rape, A, is a territorial division of Sussex. Sussex is divided into six rapes, which again are subdivided into hundreds. It is no more than a geographical term, and differs from the lathe of Kent in that the judicial organisation is retained by the hundred. The rape may possibly represent the shires into which Sussex was divided while it was yet an independent kingdom. The original meaning is apparently "share."

Rapparees, were bands of Irish led by dispossessed proprietors who refused to submit to the Cromwellian transplantation to Connaught, and carried on a guerilla warfare against the new English possessors. At first known as Tories, they came later to be called Rapparees, which Burnet, writing in 1690, calls "a new name." But the names Tory and Rapparee came to mean in Ireland only ordinary felons at large. Their numbers were immensely exaggerated: thus in 1707 "there were but six Tories in the county Tipperary, and four in the county of Cork."

Ratcliffe, Sir Richard, was a confidential friend of Richard III. To his advice it was largely due that Richard abandoned the plan of marrying his niece Elizabeth (1485).

Rates are direct taxes levied for specified local purposes by local authorities. All are now based on the Poor-law valuation of the annual value of each separate piece of real property in a given district, which is periodically revised by an assessment committee, from whose decisions there may be an appeal to the Courts. The rates thus fall only on occupiers. Many examples of local rates are found before the sixteenth century in England. But the payment was often apportioned according to the estimated total income of each payer, so that personal property, capital (*e.g.*, stock-in-trade), and real property wherever situate were rated. (For examples, *see* Cannan, *History of Local Rates in England.*) The Poor Rate under the statute of 1601 [Poor Law] was so assessed in some places even in the 19th century. But such a system is practicable only in a small community. As wealth increased and became more varied, only real property and its occupiers could be reached by the rating authorities, and judicial decisions and Acts of Parliament eventually confined rating to occupiers alone. All rates are now levied under statutory authority. Our rating system

conspicuously illustrates the slow and unequal growth and involved character of our modern system of local government. Only an imperfect classification is possible, but the following may be suggested:—1. *Parochial Rates*, or rates associated with the parochial system: (*a*) The Poor Rate, "for the relief of the poor and other purposes," collected by the overseers according to the "precept" of the Board of Guardians of each Poor Law Union. This arrangement dates from 1834. (*b*) Church rates (q.v.) generally have not been recoverable at law since 1868, but are still so recoverable in some parishes under local Acts. (*c*) Parishes were formerly grouped into "highway parishes," which levied rates for the maintenance of the roads (with many exceptions). The highway authority outside boroughs or urban districts is now the rural district council. (*d*) The so-called "Adoptive Acts" enable specified local authorities to levy rates for the maintenance of baths and wash-houses and free libraries, for burials, lighting and watching, and certain public improvements. Where a parish is not superseded by a borough or an urban district council, it is such an authority. Burial rates, however, are levied by a burial board appointed by the local authority; but the legislation on burials is very confused. 2. *Borough Rates* are levied by the corporation of a borough under the Municipal Corporations Act (1834) to make up any deficiency in the borough revenues, which are partly derived from its own property. It has generally statutory authority to levy an improvements rate, or a rate to meet the interest on loans, and often to maintain a police force. It is also a local authority under the "Adoptive Acts" (*see* above). 3. *District Council Rates:* Before the Local Government Act (1894), rates for sanitary purposes were leviable under various Public Health Acts, and rates for improvements, paving, lighting, etc., in "urban districts" under Local Boards or Improvement Commissioners. The sanitary authority was the Board of Guardians in rural, the Local Board or Improvement Commissioners in urban districts, or in a borough the Corporation. Under the Act of 1894, the Rural District Council is the sanitary authority in rural districts; while Urban District Councils replace local boards and commissioners. Urban District Councils are also authorities under the Adoptive Acts. 4. *County Rates*, made by the County Council, are collected by the overseers.

Ravenspur, or **Ravenser,** near Spurn Head in Yorkshire, was in early times the most considerable port on the Humber. In 1298 the privileges of the burgesses of Ravenspur were confirmed, and in 1305 it was represented in Parliament. The encroachments of the sea finally submerged it by the middle of the 16th century. The process of erosion had begun when Henry Bolingbroke—afterwards Henry IV.—landed here at Ravenspur in 1399, on his arrival to make war on Richard II. Here, too, Edward IV. landed in 1471, a little previous to the Battle of Barnet.

Raymond, Michel, was a French adventurer, who entered the service of Nizam Ali in 1785, and soon organised a force of 15,000 disciplined troops, officered by 124 Europeans, chiefly French. In the war between Nizam Ali and the Peishwa in 1795, these forces fought well, and they would have become formidable to the English but for the death of Raymond in 1798. The Marquis Wellesley, on landing as Governor-General, demanded the dismissal of the French contingent, to which the Nizam consented in the treaty of Sept. 1, 1798. No adventurer in India ever stood higher than Raymond did. His death, as the crisis to which he might have been equal was approaching, was the last drop in the cup of ill-fortune which attended French enterprises in India.

Malleson, *Final French Struggles in India*; Owen, *Selection of Wellesley's Despatches*, p. 165.

Reading, the chief town of Berkshire, mentioned first in 871 when Ethelred and his son Alfred were there defeated by the Danes, though the victory of Ashdown near the town was afterwards won. The town was important as defending the frontier of Wessex against Mercia, since Wessex had been deprived of the lands north of the Thames. Under Ethelred the Unready in 1006 the town was reached by the Danes and burnt. Here Henry I. founded a great monastery in which he himself was afterwards buried. "It was not unfit," says Professor Freeman, "that the victor of Tenchebrai should sleep on a spot all whose associations were purely English, a spot which had won its earlier place in history as the scene of some of the greatest exploits of Alfred." It was frequently favoured by the royal presence, and several parliaments were held here by Henry VI. and Edward IV.

"Rebecca Rioters" was the name given to lawless bands of Welshmen who in 1843 gave violent expression to the popular dislike of turnpike-gates. The rioters were dressed in women's clothes, and, in allusion to Isaac's bride (Gen. xxiv. 60), the leader and his followers were known as "Rebecca and her daughters."

Rebellion, The Great. The struggle between the monarchy and the Parliament which led to the Great Rebellion began with the accession of the House of Stuart to the English throne. James I. and Charles I. inherited the Tudor dictatorship, but the authority which Henry VIII. and Elizabeth had exercised in harmony with the feelings of the nation, they endeavoured to use for unpopular purposes. The Commons, who had grown strong and rich during the sixteenth century,

woke to a consciousness of their strength, and headed the opposition to the crown, as the barons had done in the thirteenth. Whilst James I. formulated a dogmatic theory of the sovereign power, and strove to realise it, the Commons revived the constitutional claims of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. The Petition of Right in 1628 was an attempt to limit the king's powers, and secure the subject's rights, but there was no impartial authority to interpret the meaning of the contract, and the Commons claimed by virtue of it much that Charles had not meant to concede. For eleven years the king governed through the Privy Council without calling a Parliament. The judgment on Hampden's case in June, 1637, definitely settled the question of taxation in the king's favour. But at this very time the king's ecclesiastical policy had called forth in Scotland an opposition which obliged him, after an unsuccessful attempt to suppress it by arms, to have recourse once more to an English Parliament. The Short Parliament, which met in April, 1640, instead of supporting the king in the war, demanded the abolition of ship money and the taxes levied for the support of the army, and was about to petition in favour of the Scots, when it was dissolved. The ill success of the second Scotch war, and the invasion of England, obliged Charles again to call a Parliament, known afterwards as the Long Parliament, on Nov. 3, 1640. On the 11th the impeachment of Strafford was moved by Pym, that of Laud followed a little later, and other leading officials fled abroad. Ship money was declared illegal, and tunnage and poundage were no longer to be levied without the consent of Parliament. The Star Chamber, the Court of High Commission, and other extraordinary jurisdictions were abolished. The Triennial Bill bound the king to summon a Parliament every three years, and he was obliged to consent to an Act prohibiting him from dissolving the existing Parliament. Hitherto the Commons had been united, but the question of Church reform caused a division in their ranks. One party wished to abolish the bishops altogether, the other merely to limit their powers. Thus the king was enabled to gather round him a party which gave him their support on the further questions which rose out of this disagreement. In the Grand Remonstrance the Parliamentary leaders appealed to the people, setting forth the king's misgovernment in the past, and the political and ecclesiastical reforms they demanded for the future. The Irish rebellion, which broke out in Oct., 1641, raised the question whether the king could be trusted with an army. In England war began in the autumn. The king set up his standard at Nottingham on Aug. 22, 1642. On the king's side were the north and west of England; in Wales and Cornwall, and on the border he found his strongest adherents, while the south and east, and the manufacturing districts especially, took the side of the Parliament. The battle of Edgehill (Oct. 23) had no decisive results, and a second battle at Brentford (Nov. 12) was equally fruitless. In the campaign of 1643 the advantage was decidedly on the king's side. In the spring and the summer a Cornish army conquered the west, and the Marquis of Newcastle recovered Yorkshire. The fate of the Parliamentary cause seemed to depend on the question whether Gloucester and Hull would hold out. But the Earl of Essex relieved Gloucester, and defeated at Newbury the king's attempt to intercept his march back to London, whilst three weeks later Newcastle was forced to raise the siege of Hull. In one part of the country, however, in the eastern counties, the Parliamentary cause had not only held its own, but gained ground, and an army had been formed there, headed by the Earl of Manchester, but inspired by Cromwell (q.v.), which exercised a decisive influence on the next campaign. Both king and Parliament sought aid outside England. The king concluded a truce with the rebels, and brought over troops from Ireland. The Parliament made an alliance with the Scots, confirmed by the Solemn League and Covenant, which procured them the assistance of a Scotch army, but bound them to endeavour to bring the three kingdoms to religious uniformity, and to reform the English Church "according to the Word of God, and the example of the best reformed Churches." The Westminster Assembly, which had in July, 1643, commenced the deliberations ending two years later in the establishment of Presbyterianism in England, was now joined by Scotch divines, and Scotch repretatives entered the committee which directed the war. A Scotch army, under the Earl of Leven, crossed the border, joined the troops of Fairfax and Manchester, and laid siege to York. Rupert relieved York, but offered battle under its walls, and the victory of Marston Moor (July 2, 1644) was followed by the conquest of all England north of the Trent. In the west and south the king was more fortunate. He defeated Waller at Cropredy Bridge (June 29), and shut up Essex in Cornwall, where the latter's foot were obliged to surrender (Sept., 1644). But the advance of the Royalists on London was put a stop to by the second battle of Newbury (Oct. 27, 1644). Whilst the fruitless negotiations of Uxbridge were going on, the Parliament, urged by Cromwell, resolved to adopt a new system of carrying on the war. By the Self-denying Ordinance the members of Parliament who held commands had to resign them, and by a second ordinance the army was remodelled, reduced to 21,000 men, and placed under the command of Sir Thomas Fairfax. He was allowed to retain the services of Cromwell, who became his lieutenant-general.

Well armed, well disciplined, and well paid, its ranks full of men "who had the fear of God before their eyes, and made some conscience of what they did," the "New Model" changed the face of the war. Fairfax took the field on May 1, 1645, and on June 14th Charles was defeated at Naseby with the loss of half his army. One after another the king's fortresses in the west were conquered. Winter alone stopped the progress of Fairfax; but in March, 1646, the king's last army laid down its arms, and his last fortress, Raglan Castle, surrendered in August. Charles himself took refuge in the Scotch camp at Newark at the beginning of May. In the negotiations which followed, the Parliament's chief demands were the control of the militia and the establishment of Presbyterianism in England. The king delayed giving a definite answer as long as possible, but finally offered to concede the militia for ten years, and the establishment of Presbyterianism for three. The Scots at last, weary of his delays, surrendered him to the Parliament, receiving in return compensation for their expenses in the war (Jan. 30, 1647). The Presbyterian leaders were as anxious to impose uniformity, and as hostile to liberty of conscience and diversity of worship, as Laud himself. The army, on the other hand, had fought for religious as well as for civil liberty, and were resolved to secure it. They believed also that "God's Providence" had "cast the trust of religion and the kingdom upon them as conquerors." They had also a special grievance as soldiers in the proposal to disband them without payment of their arrears, so they did not scruple when their demands were refused to seize the king's person (June 4, 1647), march on London, expel eleven of the Presbyterian leaders from Parliament (Aug. 7), and treat directly with the king themselves. The king still continued his attempt to play off one party against the other, and refused to accept the terms of the soldiers. He escaped from the hands of the army (Nov. 11), and took refuge in the Isle of Wight, where, whilst publicly negotiating with the Parliament, he privately concluded a treaty with the Scots, promising in return for his restoration to establish Presbyterianism for three years, and suppress all dissident sects. Parliament replied to his rejection of the Four Bills, in which they had embodied their demands, by a vote that no more addresses should be made to the king (Jan. 3, 1648), and a meeting of the officers of the army decided that it was their duty so soon as the expected war was over to call "Charles Stuart, that man of blood," to account for the blood he had shed, and the mischief he had done. In April the second Civil War broke out. Fairfax defeated the Kentish Royalists, shut up the main body of the insurgents at Colchester, and starved them into surrender (Aug. 28). Cromwell, after putting down the insurrection in Wales, attacked and destroyed the Scotch army under the Duke of Hamilton in a three days' battle in Lancashire (Aug. 17, 18, 19). Meanwhile the Presbyterian majority in Parliament had seized the opportunity to pass a severe law against heresy, and reopen negotiations with the king (Treaty of Newport). The victorious army trusted nether king nor Parliament, but resolved to put a stop to the negotiations, and effect a settlement of the kingdom itself. The king was seized at Carisbrooke, and removed to a place of security (Dec. 1). The House of Commons, purified by the exclusion of ninety-six Presbyterian members (Dec. 6), and the voluntary abstention of many others, became the obedient instrument of the army. It passed a resolution to bring the king to justice (Dec. 13), assumed the supreme power (Jan. 4, 1649), and erected a High Court of Justice to try Charles (Jan. 9). The trial lasted from Jan. 20 to 27, and the king was executed on the 29th, but out of the hundred and thirty-five members of whom the court was composed only fifty-nine signed the death warrant. The new government, which took the name of Commonwealth, consisted of a Council of State of forty-one persons exercising the executive power, and a House of Commons, which rarely numbered more than sixty members. [COMMONWEALTH; LONG PARLIAMENT.]

Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion;* Carlyle, *Cromwell's Letters and Speeches;* May, *Hist. of the Long Parliament;* Whitelocke, *Memorials;* Thurloe, *State Papers;* Ludlow, *Memoirs;* Scobell, *Acts and Ordinances made in Parliament, 1640—1656;* *Memoirs of Col. Hutchinson* by his Wife; Rushworth, *Collections;* Brodie, *Const. Hist. of Eng., 1625—1660;* Guizot, *Oliver Cromwell and the Eng. Commonwealth;* Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng., 1603–42,* and *Great Civil War, 1642–49,* and *The Puritan Revolution.* [C. H. F.]

Rebellion, THE IRISH. [IRELAND.]

Rebellion, CADE'S. [CADE'S REBELLION.]

Rebellion, WAT TYLER'S. [TYLER'S REBELLION.]

Record, COURTS OF, are those "where the acts and judicial proceedings are enrolled in parchment . . . . . which rolls are called the records of the court, and are of such authority that their truth is not to be called in question." (Stephen's *Commentaries.*) They have power also to impose fine and imprisonment for contempt of court. A court must either be a Court of Record by immemorial recognition or by modern creation through Act of Parliament. James I., by yielding to the Commons in the case of Goodwin (1603), recognised that their house was a Court of Record.

Record Office. In 1800 a committee of the House of Commons was appointed to examine into the condition of the public records, and in accordance with its recommendations, a royal commission was appointed, which was renewed six times, and

lasted till the accession of Victoria. The Record Commission published its Report in 1837, and on its recommendation, by an Act of 1838, the guardianship of the Records was conferred upon the Master of the Rolls, with power to appoint a deputy. Under this Act the documents have been placed in the Record Office in Chancery Lane, London, and a staff of officials and clerks is employed in their preservation and arrangement. In 1856 the Master of the Rolls began the publication of the Calendars of State Papers, and in 1858 the Chronicles and Memorials known as the Rolls series (q.v.).

Recorder. Before the Municipal Corporations Act of 1835, 159 out of the 246 corporate towns in England had recorders or stewards. Most of these were nominated by the Common Council, sometimes, however, by the aldermen only, sometimes by all the burgesses. "They were mostly magistrates within their boroughs, and quorum judges of the Courts of General and Quarter Sessions, and Courts of Record where those existed." But few recorders, however, actually resided in the towns, and in many cases the office was obtained only in order to facilitate the exercise of political influence. By the Act of 1835 all towns without a separate Court of Quarter Sessions were deprived of their criminal jurisdiction; but boroughs were permitted to petition the crown for a separate Court of Quarter Sessions, stating the salary they are ready to pay the recorder. If the petition is granted, the crown henceforward nominates the recorder. He must be a barrister of at least five years' standing. He holds his court four times a year, or more often if necessary, and is sole judge therein.

Vine, *English Municipalities*; Stephen, *Hist. of Criminal Law*, 1, ch. 4.

Recruiters. The Royalist members who deserted the Parliament at Westminster after the outbreak of the Civil War were one by one "disabled" by the House of Commons in 1645. Writs were moved for new elections in their place. More than 230 new members were returned, who were called by the Royalist writers "Recruiters."

Redan, The, was a fortress protecting the southern side of Sebastopol. [Crimean War.] On Sept. 5, 1855, the English attempted to take it by storm, while the French attacked the Malakoff. The attacking party, were, however, so diminished while crossing the open ground immediately in front, and there was so much difficulty in sending for reinforcements, that the handful of men who had entered the works were forced to retire. The evacuation of the southern side of Sebastopol during the night made a further attack unnecessary.

Redcliffe, Stratford de, Viscount, K.G. (*b.* Nov. 4, 1786; *d.* Aug. 14, 1880), diplomatist, was the son of a London merchant named Canning, and cousin of George Canning. In 1812 he negotiated the Treaty of Bucharest, and, after holding several diplomatic appointments, was sent to St. Petersburg in 1824 with a special object, when he so aroused the hostility of the Grand Duke Nicholas that when the latter became Czar he refused to receive him as British ambassador (1833). In 1825 he went as ambassador to Constantinople to support the cause of the Greeks, but his mission was unsuccessful, and after the battle of Navarino diplomatic relations were broken off. He returned to Constantinople in 1841, and for seventeen years was the supreme director of Turkish policy, positively causing the Sultan Abd-el-Medjid to tremble before him. His great aims were to stave off the ruin of Turkey by internal reforms, and to exclude all other foreign influence, especially that of the Czar Nicholas, against whom he cherished a personal hatred as frank as it was bitter. In the diplomacy which led up to and accompanied the Crimean War he displayed ability of the highest order.

Redeswire, The Raid of (1575), was a disturbance on the borders arising from a dispute between Forster, the English warden, and Carmichael, the Scotch warden, of the marches. The English were defeated, their warden and the Earl of Bedford being taken prisoners. The affair nearly led to a rupture with the English court.

Red River Expedition, The. In 1869 the Red River Settlement, in North America, which had been in the territories of the Hudson's Bay Company, was transferred to the new Dominion of Canada. Some of the settlers, however, refused to acknowledge the transfer. On Nov. 24 the rebels, under Louis Riel, took possession of Fort Garry, and resisted by force an attempt of Major Boulton to get possession of the place. One of Boulton's followers, named Scott, was seized and shot. An expedition, consisting of about 350 British troops and a number of Canadian militia, under the command of Colonel (afterwards Lord) Wolseley, was sent against them. After a three months' journey in boats across the lakes and rivers, it reached Fort Garry (Aug. 23, 1870). The rebels surrendered without resistance. The territory became a province of the Dominion (Manitoba). Riel headed a rebellion of the half-breeds of the N.W. provinces in 1885, and was convicted of high treason and hanged.

Red Sea Expedition, The. In 1800, the Marquess Wellesley despatched 4,000 Europeans and 5,000 sepoys, under General Baird, to co-operate with the forces under Abercromby in the expulsion of the French from Egypt. The expedition proceeded up the Red Sea to Cosseir; thence they marched 120 miles over the desert to the Nile, reached Cairo Aug. 10, and encamped on the shores

of the Mediterranean on the 27th. Before, however, the Indian contingent could be brought into action, the report of its approach, and the energy of General Hutchinson, who succeeded to the command on the death of Sir Ralph Abercromby, induced the French general to capitulate.

Wellesley, *Despatches;* Alison, *Hist. of Europe.*

Reduction, Action of, is a process of Scotch law by which a settlement wrongly made is questioned. Acting upon this analogy, the Scotch Government in 1628 drew up "a summons or initial writ of an Action of Reduction against all copyholders of ecclesiastical property," declaring the king's right to all kirklands. Charles's object was to restore to the Scotch church part of the lands of which it had been deprived at the Reformation.

Redwald, King of East Anglia (*s. circ.* 599), became a Christian probably owing to the pressure of his overlord, Ethelbert of Kent. Returning home from Kent, where he had received baptism, he was "led astray by his wife and certain perverse teachers, so that, like the ancient Samaritans, he seemed at the same time to serve Christ and the gods whom he had served before; and in the same temple he had an altar to sacrifice to Christ, and another small one to offer victims to devils" (Bede). But it would appear from Bede that even while Ethelbert was living, his place as overlord in Central Britain had been taken by Redwald. So that it is probable a war had arisen between Ethelbert and Redwald from this religious compromise, and had ended in Ethelbert's defeat. "If middle Britain threw off the supremacy of Kent, its states none the less remained a political aggregate; and their fresh union under the King of Eastern Anglia was only a prelude to their final and lasting union under the lordship of Mercia" (Green). In 617 Edwin of Northumbria took refuge at his court from Ethelfrith, and in the same year Redwald attacked and defeated Ethelfrith on the Idle —"the first combat between the great powers which had now grouped the English peoples about them." But Redwald died soon after, and the East Anglian power seems to have broken up under his son, Eorpwald. Bede, ii. 5, after describing Ethelbert's overlordship (*imperium*), says that Redwald was the fourth king who gained a power of this kind (*imperium hujusmodi*). In the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* Redwald is placed fourth on the list of Bretwaldas.

Besides Bede and the *Anglo-Saxon Chron.*, see Green, *Making of England.*

Reeve (Sax. *gerefa*, a name applied to many classes of officials, especially to those charged with the management of some territorial division; as the so-called Laws of Edward the Confessor say, "est multiplex nomen; greve enim dicitur de scira, de wapentagiis, de hundredis, de burgis, de villis." [Of these the most important was the shire-reeve, for which see Sheriff.] Besides the sheriff, the following uses of the term are to be noted:— *High-reeve* (heah-gerefa) mentioned in the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicles*, s. a. 778, 780, 1001, and 1002. *Port-reeve* (port-gerefa), *borough-reeve* (burh-gerefa), and *wic-gerefa* also frequently occur, in the sense of the chief officer of a town, who presided over its courts, &c. The first title was only used in trading towns (not necessarily ports), and was borne by the presiding officers of several of the smaller towns until recent times. *Tun-gerefa* is the usual term for the headman of a township. He was probably chosen by the inhabitants in free townships, but would be nominated by the lord in dependent townships. He appeared with the four best men in the hundred court, and in dependent townships was legally responsible for his lord's men. The position of the manor-reeve (the representative of the earlier tun-gerefa) in the thirteenth century is clearly described in Fleta. He was to be a good husbandman chosen by the *villati*, and was responsible for the cultivation of the land, having especially to watch over the ploughs, and see that due service was rendered. A kind of co-ordinate authority was apparently exercised by the lord's bailiff, and both alike were subject to the seneschal or steward, who often supervised several manors. The term *hundred-reeve* nowhere appears. But a reeve is mentioned as holding the court of the hundred in the laws of Edward the Elder and Ethelred, and it is possible that there were two officers in the hundred, the reeve, representing the king's interests, becoming, after the Conquest, the bailiff of the hundred, and the hundreds-ealdor representing the freemen.

Schmid, *Gesetze der Angelsachsen*, and Kemble, *Saxons*, ii., Bk. ii., ch. vii., discuss all the uses of the term. See also Stubbs, *Const. Hist.* i., §§ 39, 45; and for the High-Reeve, Green, *Conquest of Eng.*, especially ch. x. [W. J. A.]

Reformation, The. The process which ended in the separate organisation of the English Church was due to three principal causes: (1) dissatisfaction with the practical operation of the papal headship; (2) a desire to reform the clergy, and render the Church more useful; (3) a conviction that the system of the mediæval Church had in many ways deviated from the teaching of Christ and the apostles, and from primitive custom. The first of these causes showed itself in England in the reign of Henry III., and gradually led to legislative acts by which England endeavoured to protect itself from undue interference on the part of the pope. The Statutes of Provisors and Præmunire secured England against the heavy exactions by which the papacy during the Great Schism oppressed Christendom. [Papacy.] In the reforming councils of the fifteenth century,

which laboured in vain, England did not take a prominent part, because it already had the means of keeping in check the claims of the papacy. It was, however, an Englishman who first gathered together and expressed the dissatisfaction of Europe. John Wycliffe began his career by maintaining the independence of the State from hierarchical interference. To this he added a longing after greater simplicity and spirituality of life. He sent forth preachers among the people. He denounced the worldliness of the papacy as anti-Christian. He undertook the noble task of translating the Bible into English. He wrote numerous tracts to stir up the people to greater earnestness in religion. He asserted the existence of a true spiritual Church founded on faith in Christ, and depending for its rule in the law of the Gospel. Moreover, as a means of reducing the organisation of the Church to greater purity, he attacked the central point of sacerdotalism—the material conception of transubstantiation in the sacrament of the altar. He did not deny the presence of Christ in the Eucharist; he denied only the change of substance in the elements after consecration. Thus Wycliffe united in his teaching the three principles which brought about the Reformation—a strong sense of national patriotism, a deep desire for greater spirituality of life, and an acute criticism of the doctrines on which the existing system of the Church was founded. Wycliffe's teaching drew upon him ecclesiastical condemnation. His opinions spread in Bohemia, and gave birth to the rising of the Hussites. In England his followers, the Lollards, were unfortunately associated with political risings, and were suppressed. Still Wycliffe's translation of the Bible, and many of his writings were passed from hand to hand, and bodies of "Bible-men" scattered here and there throughout the land prepared the way for more decided efforts. [WYCLIFFE.]

The end of the Wars of the Roses saw a great change in the social condition of England. The ideas of the Middle Ages were languishing. The Feudal System had practically passed away. While the nobles were fighting, the middle class had grown more prosperous. A narrow but practical spirit prevailed, which looked enviously on the wealth of the Church, which was unaffected by its sentiment, and which in a dim way wished to see it made more useful. As the new learning made its way in England men like More dreamed of a new organisation of society, and Colet bestirred himself in the cause of a broader system of education. The Church itself was vexatious to the people by the wide extension of its inquisitorial courts of spiritual discipline. The rabble of useless and lazy priests excited the contempt of thinking men. There was small hope of reform from within; for the organisation of the Church depended on Rome, and the secularised papacy of the sixteenth century was powerless to initiate reforms. Politically the English Church, through fear of the Lollards, had relied for help on the crown, and had trusted to the balance of parties. The overthrow of the baronage by the Wars of the Roses left the crown practically supreme, as the people were too much engrossed in business to care for anything save a strong and peaceful government.

The desire for some reform in the Church was felt by Wolsey, who obtained from the pope permission to suppress thirty monasteries, and devote their revenues to educational foundations at Oxford and Ipswich. Perhaps Wolsey's schemes for internal reform would have progressed further, if a crisis in the relations between Church and State had not been brought about by the self-will of Henry VIII. Henry VIII., fascinated by Anne Boleyn, was resolved on a divorce from his wife Catherine. He had married Catherine, his brother's widow, by virtue of a papal dispensation; he needed the papal consent for a divorce. The papacy was the source of ecclesiastical law, the supreme judge, with equitable powers in cases of grievance. So long as Henry VIII. expected to obtain his divorce he was content to wait. But when Wolsey's plans failed, and Pope Clement VII. showed that he dared not gratify the English king at the expense of offending the Emperor, Henry VIII. resolved to give the pope a sample of his spirit. The powerful minister Wolsey was declared subject to the penalties of the Statute of Præmunire, because he had exercised legatine powers without the king's consent. He fell, and no voice was raised in his favour (1529). Henry VIII. appealed from the pope to the learning of Christendom, and proceeded to gather the opinions of the universities on the legality of his marriage, and the propriety of his divorce. Further, to terrify the pope by a display of his power, he involved all the clergy of the realm under the penalties of Præmunire, because they had recognised Wolsey's legatine authority. The Convocation of 1531 was compelled to sue for the king's pardon, and grant him a large subsidy by way of a fine. Moreover, the king demanded that he should be called in the preamble of the Bill granting the subsidy, "sole protector, and supreme head of the Church and clergy of England." With difficulty Archbishop Warham modified the term "supreme head" by the limitation "as far as the law of Christ allows." In the Parliament of 1532 the pope was still further threatened by an Act forbidding the payment of annates to Rome. The clergy were terrified by the presentation by the Commons of a long petition concerning ecclesiastical grievances. It was clear that Henry VIII. was in a position to do what he would. The Commons, as representing the middle class, were on his

side, because they had many practical grievances which they hoped to see redressed. The clergy had no strong hold on the people, and had little organisation amongst themselves. They were helpless before the king, and the pope was unable to give them any succour. What is known as "the submission of the clergy" was simply the practical recognition of this fact. Convocation in 1532 "submitted themselves humbly to his highness," and undertook thenceforth to promulgate no ordinance which had not received the royal approval, and to submit the provincial constitutions then in force to revision by a committee of sixteen laymen and sixteen clergy appointed by the king. In 1533 the new Archbishop, Cranmer, took cognisance of the question of the king's divorce, and pronounced his marriage invalid from the first. As the pope had pronounced in favour of its validity, this was a decided assertion of the Act passed in 1532 that appeals in such cases as had hitherto been pursued in the Court of Rome should thenceforth be had within the realm. Henry VIII.'s marriage with Anne Boleyn announced his breach not only with the papacy but with the public opinion of Europe. He had advanced step by step till there was no return possible. The Parliament of 1534 passed Acts confirming the submission of the clergy to the jurisdiction of the crown, forbidding the payment of annates and all other dues to the pope, establishing the king as supreme head of the Church, with authority to reform all abuses, and conferring on him all payments that previously were made to the pope. All that was implied in the papal headship over the Church was now swept away from England. The secular privileges of the pope were conferred upon the crown. The Church, whose machinery had already been broken down by papal encroachments, was left without any power to repair that machinery. Its legislative power was subject to the royal assent, its courts were left unreformed, and appeals were to be heard and decided in some court approved by the crown.

Henry VIII. had overturned the papal headship, and was no doubt aided in so doing by the example of those German states where the ideas of Luther had prevailed. But Henry himself was opposed to Luther's teaching, and had no sympathy with the cause of doctrinal reform. He wished the Church to remain as it had been, save that the rights of the pope were transferred to the crown. Even Cranmer, though he had broken the rule of clerical celibacy, did not meditate any great change. But in Oxford and Cambridge especially men turned their attention to German theology. At the end of 1534 Convocation petitioned the king to decree a translation of the Bible into English, a work which was not allowed till 1537. The visitatorial power of the crown, vested in the hands of Cromwell as Vicar-general, was not allowed to slumber. The visitation of the smaller monasteries led to an Act in 1535 giving to the crown all religious houses below the annual value of £200. In 1539 the suppression of the greater monasteries followed. The centres of the reactionary and papal party were abolished. The wealth and social importance of the Church was greatly diminished. The political power of the Church in the House of Lords was reduced. Those who were accused, with some reason, of making the ecclesiastical profession a cloak for idleness were dispersed.

These changes were not made without profoundly affecting English society. The bulk of the lower classes were attached to the old state of things, and suffered from the abolition of the monasteries. The number of those who were influenced by the teaching of Luther increased in activity. The middle class alone was satisfied, and Henry VIII. took care to satisfy them in his measures. To define the position of the English Church, Ten Articles "to stablish Christian quietness" were put forward by the southern Convocation in 1536, which asserted as "laudable ceremonies" the chief uses of the old Church. In 1537 was issued the *Bishop's Book*, or *Institution of a Christen Man*, which discarded the papal monarchy, but otherwise maintained the existing system. Free discussion of dogmatic questions was not according to Henry VIII.'s views. He valued his reputation for orthodoxy, and in 1539 the *Six Articles* inflicted the punishment of death on all who should call in question the chief dogmas and practices of the mediæval Church. So long as Henry VIII. lived no further changes were made in the position of the Church of England. His strong hand kept contending parties from struggling, and his strong will impressed itself on the nation.

With the accession of Edward VI. long pent-up antagonisms made themselves felt. One party, headed by Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, was contented with the abolition of the papal headship, and was opposed to further change. The reforming party was divided into three chief bodies—one consisted of revolutionary sectaries, whose wild talk had already created alarm; another body of advanced reformers had absorbed much of the theology of the Swiss teacher Zwingli, and regarded the sacraments as external symbols; the more moderate reformers, headed by Cranmer, leaned to the teaching of Luther and Melanchthon; they were willing to reform superstitious errors, but they held by the sacraments and the system of the Church. This last party succeeded in getting matters into their hands, and expressed their views in the first prayer-book of Edward VI., and in the *Book of the Homilies*. The prayer-book provided a uniform use for the service of the English Church; the homilies pro-

vided for the restoration of preaching as a means of teaching the people; the Bible was already translated. The practical character of the English Church was thus emphasised. It aimed at meeting the national needs, and appealed to the national intelligence. But the first Prayer-book did not satisfy the more ardent reformers, whose numbers were reinforced by a large influx of foreign teachers driven by religious persecution from the Continent. Under their influence Cranmer's views developed, and in 1552 a second Prayer-book was issued, which simplified vestments, omitted some usages which were deemed superstitious, and re-modelled the Communion Service that it might be more acceptable to the followers of Zwingli and Calvin. The formularies of the Church were also set forth in Forty-two Articles, which in the main followed the ideas of the Saxon reformers, while retaining much of the conservatism which especially marked the beginnings of the English movement. No sooner had this been done than the accession of Mary produced a reaction, which the bulk of the people regarded with indifference. The progress of the Reformation under Edward VI. had been too rapid. It had been accompanied by many outrages on the opinions of those who held by the old forms. It showed little tenderness or consideration for others, and was endured rather than welcomed.

Under Mary, Gardiner and his party prepared to return to a recognition of the papal headship. England was again reconciled to the papacy. Many of the English reformers fled to the Continent; many who remained, amongst them Cranmer, suffered death for their opinions. But Mary's government was a failure. Her religious persecution was carried on in a spirit of narrow fanaticism, which stirred the popular mind against her. Her brief reign of five years undid the ill effects of the excessive zeal of the reformers under Edward VI., and disposed men to look regretfully on the reign and policy of Henry VIII. Elizabeth had lived through both, and had conformed to Romanism under Mary. She made no change at first, but Anne Boleyn's daughter could not seriously contemplate a reconciliation with the papacy. Her first Parliament in 1559 passed an Act to "restore to the crown the ancient jurisdiction over the estate ecclesiastical and spiritual, and abolish all foreign jurisdictions repugnant to the same." Elizabeth explained the meaning of the royal supremacy so re-established to be "under God to have the sovereignty and rule over all persons born within these her realms of what estate, either ecclesiastical or temporal, soever they be, so as no other foreign power shall or ought to have any superiority over them." At the same time heresy was defined to be what was contrary to the canonical Scriptures, or the first four general councils. The Prayer-book was revised and legalised, and uniformity of worship was enforced by an Act bidding all men to resort to their parish church. The greater part of the Marian bishops refused to take the oath of supremacy, and were deprived of their sees. Matthew Parker, the new Archbishop of Canterbury, brought great learning and much moderation to the difficult task of re-organising the English Church upon a basis which should be at once comprehensive and definite enough to form a strong institution. The exiles who had fled before Mary's persecution returned to England, strongly imbued with the ideas of Calvin. The Catholic party resented its loss of supremacy. Elizabeth supported as a compromise the system which her father had devised. The old order and ceremonies of the Church were left untouched, while room was made for the exercise of the spirit of personal religion. At first the Elizabethan system was not strong in its hold on the popular mind. It was tolerated because it was the only means of securing peace. Soon the feeling of the mass of the people gathered round it, and the events of the reign of Elizabeth identified it with the English spirit. A body of Calvinists, known as Puritans or Precisions, objected to some of its ceremonies, and to its episcopal organisation. They vainly strove to make alterations, and the "Martin Marprelate" controversy (1588) is a testimony to their zeal. They were strong in the House of Commons, and grew in strength under James I. and Charles I., so that the Great Rebellion was as much a religious as a political controversy. On the other hand, the Romanists organised themselves into a political party. Elizabeth was excommunicated in 1570, and Jesuit missionaries flocked into England. They were persecuted, and the great mass of the English Catholics remained loyal to their queen and country against the attacks of Spain. Practically the reign of Elizabeth saw England established as a Protestant country. The Church of England has in the main adhered to the lines then laid down, while Romanists and Nonconformists have gradually been admitted to civil and religious equality.

Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.*; Strype, *Memorials*; Dixon, *Hist. of the Church of Eng.*; Heylin, *Hist. of the Reformation*; Foxe, *Acts and Monuments*; Burnet, *Hist. of the Reformation*; Pocock, *Records of the Reformation*; *Calendar of State Papers of Henry VIII. and Elizabeth*; the publications of the Parker Society; Seebohm, *Oxford Reformers*; D'Aubigné, *Hist. of the Reformation in the Time of Luther*.

[M. C.]

Reformation in Ireland. The Parliament which met at Dublin in May, 1536, rapidly copied the measures which the English Parliament had just passed. In the first session the king was declared supreme head of the Church of Ireland, and given the first-fruits; and appeals to Rome were abolished. To facilitate the work, Poynings' Act was

suspended, so that the English statutes needed only to be copied, and it was not necessary to send drafts to London and back. No opposition was offered by the laity ; but the spiritual peers sturdily resisted the progress of the bills; and the proctors of the clergy (who were in Ireland members of Parliament, though not apparently sitting with the Commons, but in a separate house) were so energetic in obstruction that the Privy Council decided that they had no right to vote, and caused an Act to be passed in the next session depriving them of the privilege. In 1537 certain monasteries were suppressed, and this was soon followed by a general dissolution. A small part of the monastic revenues were transferred to bishoprics; but, as in England, the greater portion of the land was sold at nominal prices to private persons. An important part was played in these transactions by George Browne, the "Cranmer of Ireland," who had been Provincial of the Austin Friars, and had been created Archbishop of Dublin in 1535. The Bidding Prayer issued by him in 1538 is the first document in which the union of the churches of England and Ireland is declared. Until the accession of Edward VI., no change was made in worship or belief. But when an attempt was made by the council without Act of Parliament to enforce the use of Edward's Prayer Book, the Archbishop of Armagh and most of the bishops and clergy refused to obey. Only Browne and five bishops accepted the new liturgy. As Armagh was in the land of O'Neil, and beyond the control of the council, the primacy was transferred to Dublin, and some of the vacant bishoprics were filled up by advanced Reformers, of whom the most important was Bale of Ossory. Under Mary the old state of things was restored. Browne, the conforming bishops, and the married clergy were deprived. In the second year of Elizabeth, a carefully packed Parliament passed the Act of Uniformity, and copied the contemporary English measures. Three bishops alone refused to conform ; but in a large part of the country mass continued to be performed, and where the new system was really introduced, the dissolution of the monasteries, which had in many places served the parish churches, left half the parishes without clergy. The English Church, which had been imposed by the English Government, and was used as a means of Anglicising the Irish, never laid hold of the Irish people. They adhered firmly to the old opinions, and persecution only intensified their steadfastness. The disestablishment of the Irish Church in 1869 was an admission that the Reformation in Ireland had been a failure, and that the people were practically Roman Catholic.

Dixon, *History of the Church of England*, vol. ii. ch. ix.; Walpole, *Kingdom of Ireland*; Mant, *Hist. of the Church of Ireland*; Elrington, *Life of Usher*; O'Sullivan, *Historia Catholica Iberniæ*.

Reformation in Scotland. The Reformation was the first national movement in Scotland which originated with the people, who now came forward for the first time as a power in the State. By the beginning of the fifteenth century the church in Scotland had become very unpopular. Favoured by the crown it had amassed riches and lands. Its prelates held the great offices of state, and were arrogant and overbearing, delighting in displays of their pomp and power. This roused the jealousy of the baronage. The burden of the tithes and church dues, and the greed and injustice that were exercised in extorting them by the clergy, in whom the spirit of avarice was dominant, woke the hatred of the people, who lent a willing ear to the reformed doctrines. These doctrines were imported by the fugitives, who fled over the Border to seek safety from the Marian persecution in England. Sympathy with their sufferings overcame the prejudice against their nation, and roused a Protestant reaction among the people. Many of the landowners, inspired by a desire to get hold of the church lands, joined the popular movement. The Reformers signed the bond which pledged them to united support [COVENANT] in 1557. Abjuration of Papal authority and adoption of the English Bible and Prayer-book were its principles. The "Lords of the Congregation," as the supporters of the bond were called, demanded of the regent, Mary of Guise, a reformation of religion in accordance with these principles. She refused, and summoned their preachers before the Privy Council. This roused a tumult. The mob, excited by John Knox, rose in Perth, sacked the religious houses, and defaced the churches (1559). Their example was followed throughout the country. The regent employed French soldiers to quell the insurgents, and thereby excited a civil war. The congregation took up arms and appealed to England for support. On the death of the regent the estates passed the Reformation Statutes, which abjured the authority of the pope, adopted the Genevan Confession of Faith, and declared the celebration of the mass a capital offence (Aug. 25, 1560). Thus the Church of Scotland was nominally separated from that of Rome. But these statutes were not confirmed by the crown, for the queen, Mary Stuart, was in France. When she arrived in Scotland (1561), though she did not attempt to restore the old church, she demanded toleration for herself and her attendants, and re-established the mass in her private chapel. Meanwhile the ministers and the lairds fell out over the disposal of the church lands. Most of the richest of the ecclesiastical estates had been already secured by laymen. Of the lands that were still unappropriated the Privy Council set aside one third to pay the stipends of the ministers of the reformed Church. The

rest remained in possession of the churchmen who held it, and as they died off it was to fall to the crown. But the Lords refused to accept the *First Book of Discipline*, a code of stringent statutes drawn up by the ministers for the government of the Church, even more tyrannical in spirit than the exactions of the old church, which had been found so galling. For the Presbyters imagined that they had succeeded to the power of the pope, and assumed the right of interfering in matters secular as well as spiritual. On the deposition of the queen (1567) the Earl of Murray, her half-brother, was made regent for the infant king. He had been foremost as a leader of the Congregation, and during his regency Presbyterianism was in the ascendant. The government of all ecclesiastical matters was committed to the General Assembly, a council of Presbyters elected by their brethren. Liturgical worship, however, was not altogether swept away with the rites and ceremonies of the Romish Church. A prayer-book, called the *Book of Common Order*, was in daily use in the churches. Under the regency of Mar episcopacy was again restored (1572). But the bishops were merely nominal, as they had neither lands nor dignities, and were subject to the authority of the General Assembly. In 1592 this shadowy episcopacy was again abolished, and the Presbyterian polity established. Each Presbyter was supreme in his own parish. A certain number of parishes formed a Presbytery or council of Presbyters, who despatched the ecclesiastical business of the district. The Synod, composed of several Presbyteries, was a court of appeal for matters of graver import, while the supreme court, the General Assembly, met yearly at Edinburgh. It was formed of ministers and laymen, elders as they were called, sent up as deputies by the several Presbyteries. The king, or his commissioners, was the secular president. There was also a moderator elected from among the Presbyters as acting president. The Covenant, based upon the principles of the first bond, was very generally signed, and the second *Book of Discipline*, drawn up by Andrew Melville, was accepted as a code for the government of the church. Shortly after, the accession of King James to the English throne again restored episcopacy. The General Assembly was not, however, abolished, though deprived of its despotic power. No change was made in the established form of worship. The attempt made by Charles I. to substitute the English *Liturgy* for the *Book of Common Order*, and a *Book of Canons* for the *Book of Discipline* led to the outbreak of the Civil War. Under Cromwell Presbyterianism was again established, and again displaced by episcopacy under Charles II. After the Revolution the bishops and the episcopal clergy were turned out. The Presbyterian Church was re-established by law (1690). Since that date it has been the Church of Scotland. And at the Union the liberty of the Church was secured by a provision that the Presbyterian should be the only church government in Scotland from that time forward.

Peterkin, *Books of the Universal Kirk of Scotland*; Calderwood, *Hist. of the Kirk of Scotland*; Spottiswoode, *Hist. of the Church of Scotland*; Knox, *Hist of the Reformation*; McCrie, *Life of John Knox*; Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*; Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng.* i., ch. ii. The best modern account of the Reformation from the Presbyterian side will be found in Cunningham, *Church Hist. of Scotland*; from the Episcopalian side in Grub, *Eccl. Hist. of Scotland*; and from the Catholic side in Bellesheim, *Geschichte der Kathol. Kirche in Schottland* (1883).

[M. M.]

Reform Bills. The question of Parliamentary Reform was first raised in a practical shape by Pitt, when he brought forward in 1785 a motion proposing to disfranchise thirty-six rotten boroughs returning two members each, and to give the members to the counties and to London. The motion was rejected by 248 to 174. The breaking out of the French revolution a few years afterwards, and the European war, diverted men's minds from the subject, and produced a disinclination towards the extension of popular liberty. In 1793 both Burke and Pitt opposed Mr. Grey's Parliamentary Reform motion, which was negatived by 232 to 41, and met with no better fate when brought forward again in 1797. The Fox ministry had no leisure, and the Portland ministry no inclination, to attend to the matter. In 1817 a motion of Sir Francis Burdett was lost by 265 to 77, and a bolder attempt of the same member to introduce manhood suffrage the following year found not a single supporter besides the mover and seconder. In 1820 Lord J. Russell carried a Bill for withholding writs from the rotten boroughs of Camelford, Grampound, Penryn, and Barnstaple, which was thrown out by the Lords. Each year from 1821 to 1829 Lord J. Russell or some other Whig introduced a motion for reform, which in each case was rejected. In Feb., 1830, the Marquess of Blandford moved an amendment to the address in favour of reform, which was rejected by 96 to 11. The same year Calvert's Bill to transfer the representation of East Retford to Birmingham, and Lord J. Russell's motion to enfranchise Leeds, Manchester and Birmingham, were rejected. When Lord Grey became Prime Minister in this year the subject was at once taken up by the Cabinet. On March 1, 1831, Lord J. Russell introduced the Reform Bill. After most animated debates the second reading of the bill was carried (March 2) by a majority of one (302 to 301). On an amendment in committee for reducing the whole number of members the ministry were defeated. On April 22 Parliament was dissolved, to meet

again in June with the reformers in a great majority. The Reform Bill was again carried, this time by 367 votes to 231. On Sept. 22 the bill finally passed the Commons, but was thrown out by the Lords (Oct. 8) by 199 to 158. In December a third Reform Bill was brought in and carried by a majority of 162. The Bill sent up to the Lords in 1832 passed the second reading on April 14 of that year. But on May 7 the Peers, by a majority of 35, postponed the disfranchising clauses of the Bill, thus virtually rejecting it. The king refused to create new Peers, the ministers resigned, and the Duke of Wellington attempted to form a Tory ministry. But the attempt was hopeless, and the nation almost in a state of insurrection. On May 15 the Grey ministry returned to office, and the king was prepared to create new Peers if necessary. The Lords, however, at length gave way, and on June 4 the Bill was passed. The Reform Bill of 1832 disfranchised 56 boroughs, having less than 2,000 inhabitants, and deprived 30 other boroughs of one member each. Of the 143 seats gained, 65 were given to the counties, 22 of the large towns received two members each, and 21 others one each. A uniform £10 household franchise was established in boroughs, and in the counties the franchise was given to copyholders, leaseholders and tenants-at-will holding property of the value of £50 and upwards. Reform Bills with analogous provisions were also passed for Scotland and Ireland in 1832. Between 1832 and 1850 motions for further extending the franchise were frequently made and lost. In 1852 and 1854 Lord J. Russell introduced Reform Bills which were withdrawn. In 1859 Mr. Disraeli, on behalf of the Conservatives, introduced a bill, which was defeated by 39 votes. In 1866 (March) a comprehensive Reform Bill was introduced by Mr. Gladstone. The "Adullamite" section of the Liberals had, however, seceded from their party, and the Bill, after fierce debate, was carried only by 5 votes, and in June the government were defeated on an amendment. The Liberals resigned and the Conservatives, in Feb., 1867, brought forward and passed (Aug.) Mr. Disraeli's Reform Bill of 1867. This bill conferred a household and lodger franchise in boroughs, though it still left a property qualification in counties [ELECTIONS]. Between 1872 and 1883 motions in favour of household franchise in the counties were moved (generally by Mr. G. O. Trevelyan) and rejected. In 1884 Mr. Gladstone introduced a Reform Bill intended to render the franchise uniform in England, Scotland and Ireland, and to assimilate it in counties and boroughs. No provisions for the redistribution of seats were made, but the government undertook to bring in a Bill dealing with the subject at an early date. After several amendments in favour of joining the Franchise Bill with a Redistribution Bill had been thrown out in the Commons, the bill passed its third reading in the lower house by a majority of 130. The Lords, however, declared by a majority of 51 that no bill would be satisfactory which did not deal with the two subjects of extension of the franchise and redistribution. The two bills were brought in the next Session and carried.

Molesworth, *Hist. of the Reform Bill*; Alpheus Todd, *Parliamentary Govt. in Eng.*; Pauli, *Englische Geschichte seit, 1815*; Walpole, *Hist. of Eng. from 1815*; J. McCarthy, *Hist. of Our Own Times*; *Hansard's Debates*; *Annual Register*.

Regalia, the insignia of royalty, including various articles used at coronations and on state occasions. The most important of these were under the charge of the Abbot of Westminster till the Reformation; they are now preserved in the jewel office at the Tower. In 1649 the crowns were broken to pieces; new ones were made for the coronation of Charles II., which have been used ever since.

Regency may exist during the absence or the incapacity of the sovereign through nonage or disease. William I., on his visit to Normandy in 1067, left Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, and William Fitz Osbern, Earl of Hereford, joint guardians of his kingdom, though he assigned to each a special province. When the functions of the chief justiciar became defined, the vice-gerency of the kingdom was reckoned among them, though the relative rights of this officer and of the members of the royal house were not settled. Henry II., during his absence, caused his authority to be vested in his son, the younger Henry, even before he associated him with himself in the kingship. On the death of Henry II. Eleanor acted as regent until the return of her son, and on the fall of the justiciar Longchamp, while Richard was on the crusade, the barons recognised John as the vice-gerent of the kingdom. From the time of Henry III. it became customary for the king to appoint certain lieutenants, and sometimes his eldest son, though an infant, to act during his absence. Accordingly William III., on leaving England in 1695, Queen Mary being then dead, appointed seven lords justices for that purpose. George I. left the Prince of Wales as regent during his first absence from England, but never did so again on any like occasion. The question of the exercise of the royal authority during the absence of the monarch is now of little moment.

As the common law does not recognise incapacity in the sovereign, special provisions have been made as to regency when occasion required. On the accession of Henry III. at the age of nine, the barons appointed the Earl of Pembroke as regent with the title *rector regis et regni*, and associated certain councillors with him. When Edward III. succeeded his father at the age of fourteen, the

Parliament nominated a council to advise him. No regent was appointed during the nonage of Richard II., but the magnates in this case nominated the council. On the accession of Henry VI., his uncle, the Duke of Gloucester, claimed the regency as next of kin, and by the will of the late king. Both these claims were disallowed by the council, and Parliament constituted the Duke of Bedford protector, allowing Gloucester the protectorate during the absence of his brother. When the king fell ill in 1454, the Duke of York was appointed protector by the Lords, with the assent of the Commons. On his renewed illness the next year, the lords in again appointing the duke assumed the right of choice, though the assent of the Commons appears in the Act of Ratification. On the death of Edward IV. his widow tried to obtain the guardianship of her son, but the Duke of Gloucester was made protector by the council. In 1536 Parliament granted Henry VIII. authority to name such guardians as he chose, in the event of his leaving a successor under eighteen, if a male, or under sixteen if a female. The king accordingly appointed his sixteen executors as guardians of his son Edward VI., constituting them a council of government. In spite of this arrangement these councillors invested the Earl of Hertford with the protectorate.

After the death of Frederick, Prince of Wales, in 1751, Parliament provided for a possible minority by enacting that the Princess of Wales should be regent and guardian of the king's person, and by nominating a council of regency to which the reigning king had the right of adding four members. George III., after a severe illness in 1765, wished Parliament to allow him the right of appointing any person regent whom he chose. A bill, however, was passed naming the queen, the Princess of Wales, and any descendant of the late king, as those from whom a regent might be selected. When the king was deprived of reason in 1788–89, Fox [Regency Bills (3)] asserted that the Prince of Wales had a *right* to the regency, and, though he substituted "legal claim" for "right," maintained that Parliament had only to recognise the prince's claim, and could not lay restrictions on his authority. Pitt on the other hand declared that the prince had "no more right to the royal authority than any other subject," and having caused Parliament to be opened by commission under the great seal, introduced a bill restricting the power and patronage of the proposed regent. The recovery of the king prevented the settlement of these questions for the time. On a like occasion in 1811, Parliament passed a bill imposing restrictions on the regent's authority. The next regency bill, passed in 1830, provided that, in the event of the death of William IV. before the queen was of the age of eighteen, the Duchess of Kent should be regent, no council being appointed. As on the accession of the queen, the King of Hanover became heir presumptive, a Regency Act passed 1837, provided that, on the decease of her majesty, the royal function should be discharged by lords justices until the arrival of the king. Another Act, passed on the marriage of the queen in 1840, provided that, should Her Majesty leave a successor under age, Prince Albert should be regent, without any council, and with full powers save that he might not assent to any bill for altering the succession, or affecting the rights of the Church of England or the Church of Scotland. From these examples it will be gathered that the right of selecting the person and determining the power of a regent pertains to the estates of the realm assembled in Parliament. [For the various Regency Bills see the next Article.]

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, i., 563; ii., 20, 368; iii. 97, 167, 221; Hallam, *Middle Ages*, iii., 184—194; May, *Const. Hist.*, iii., c. 3; Sir G. C. Lewis, *Administrations*, 112, 121; Sir N. Wraxall, *Posthumous Memoirs*, iii., 201—339. [W. H.]

Regency Bills. "In judgment of law the king, as king, cannot be said to be a minor," says Coke; he has, therefore, by common law no legal guardian, nor has any provision been made for the exercise of the regal authority during his youth or incapacity. It has accordingly been necessary to make special provision as occasion has arisen, and the various measures which have been adopted have been of considerable political importance.

(1) 1751. Upon the death of Frederick Prince of Wales, a Bill was passed appointing the Princess of Wales regent in the event of the death of George II. before the Prince of Wales was eighteen years old. She was to be assisted by a council of regency nominated in the Act, to which the king was empowered to add four others.

(2) 1765. Upon the recovery of George III. from his first attack of mental disease, it was thought desirable to provide for the regency during any such illness as should incapacitate him, or in case of his death, during the childhood of his children. With his lofty views of royal power, George III. was not ready to place the nomination of a regent in the hands of Parliament, but proposed that Parliament should confer on him the power of appointing any person he pleased as regent. He almost certainly intended to nominate the queen, but the ministers feared lest the Princess of Wales should be nominated, and thus her favourite, Bute, become all powerful. George had so far yielded to his ministers that he consented to the limitation of his choice "to the queen and any other person of the royal family usually resident in England," and a bill had been introduced into the House of Lords to this effect. After the doubt as to whether the queen was naturalised, and so capable of acting as regent, had been set at rest by the

opinion of the judges that marriage with the king naturalised her, the question arose as to the meaning of the term "the royal family," and most of the ministers, moved by hatred of Bute, declared it did not include the Princess of Wales. Having caused a resolution introducing her name to be rejected, they persuaded the king to consent to the introduction of a clause limiting his choice to the queen and the descendants of the late king, on the ground that otherwise the Commons would exclude the princess by name. The Commons, however, reinserted her name, and this evidence of the duplicity of his ministers was one of the main causes of the fall of the Grenville ministry. It is to be noticed also that the Act nominated a council of regency, consisting of the king's four brothers and of his uncle, the Duke of Cumberland, and the great officers of state, and empowering the king, in the event of the death of a brother or of an uncle, to nominate another person in his place.

(3) 1788—89. In 1788 the king, after proroguing Parliament, lost his reason, and it became necessary to provide for the regency. Parliament met without royal summons on the day to which it had been prorogued, and, after a fortnight's adjournment, proceeded to discuss the question. Fox laid down that "the Prince of Wales had as clear a right to exercise the power of sovereignty during the king's incapacity as if the king were actually dead, and that it was merely for the two Houses of Parliament to pronounce at what time he should commence the exercise of his right," while the Premier, Pitt, declared that "unless by decision of Parliament, the Prince of Wales had no more right—speaking of strict right—to assume the government than any other individual subject of the country." The position taken up by the two statesmen is explained by the fact that if the prince had become regent, Fox would at once have been made Prime Minister; and Pitt was anxious to delay the creation of a regent. In this he was assisted by the Opposition, who resisted the proposal to limit the future regent's authority. At last, on Feb. 5, 1789, after Parliament had been formally opened by letters patent under the Great Seal affixed by authority of Parliament, the bill in which, among other limitations, the prince was forbidden to bestow peerages except on royal princes, was introduced in the Commons, and soon sent up to the Lords; but the king's sudden recovery put an end to further proceedings, and, though the king was anxious for some permanent provision for a regency, nothing was done.

(4) 1810. When George III.'s mind finally gave way, the precedent of 1788—89 was followed exactly. The bill passed both Houses; and consent was given to it by commission under Great Seal affixed by authority of Parliament.

(5) 1830. The Duchess of Kent was appointed regent, in the event of the Princess Victoria succeeding to the throne before arriving at the age of eighteen. The regent was not to be controlled by a council, as in previous Regency Acts, but to govern through the ordinary ministers.

(6) 1837. On the accession of Victoria, as the King of Hanover was presumptive heir, an Act was passed providing, in the event of the queen's dying while the successor was abroad, for the carrying on of the government by lords justices until his return.

(7) 1840. Upon the marriage of Victoria, an Act was passed enacting that in the event of any child of her Majesty coming to the throne under the age of eighteen, Prince Albert should become regent, though without power to assent to any bill for altering the succession, or affecting the worship of the Church of England, or the rights of the Church of Scotland.

May, *Const. Hist.*, i., ch. iii. [F. S. P.]

Regiam Majestatem (so called from its opening words) was a code of Scotch law dating from the reign of David I., which was regarded until recent times as the independent work of Scotch lawyers of the twelfth century. It is, however, scarcely more than a copy of Glanville's *Treatise on the Laws and Customs of England*, and was probably prepared by some Scotch lawyer, who incorporated with it fragments of earlier local usage, and of the ancient customs known as "the Laws of the Brets and the Scots." The character and history of the Regiam Majestatem illustrate the process of feudalisation in Scotland and the extent of English influence.

Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*, ii., p. 58; Preface to vol. i. of *Scots' Acts*, by Innes.

Regicides, The. Those persons who sat in judgment on Charles I., or were instrumental in his death, were both at the Restoration included under this title. The ordinance nominating the High Court of Justice finally appointed 135 persons to judge the king. Not half of these attended the trial, the number present at the opening, counting Bradshaw, the president, was sixty-seven, and sixty-seven also were present on Jan. 27, 1649, when sentence was pronounced. Out of these sixty-seven, fifty-eight, and one other person (Ingoldsby) signed the death warrant. At the Restoration, the House of Commons ordered that "all those persons who sat in judgment upon the late king's majesty when the sentence was pronounced for his condemnation," should be forthwith secured (May 14). In all the House of Commons placed in the category eighty-four persons, viz., sixty-seven present at the last sitting, eleven frequently present, four officers of the court, and two executioners. Out of these the Commons proposed to punish capitally only twelve persons, viz., seven judges,

three court officers, and two executioners. The House of Lords went further, and proposed that all those who had been present at the last sitting, or signed the warrant, saving only Colonels Hutchinson, Tomlinson, and Ingoldsby — in all sixty-six persons — should be punished capitally. But the Commons resolutely opposed the Lords' amendment. In the Bill of Indemnity as it finally passed (Aug. 29, 1660), the penalties of the Regicides were ordered as follows :— (1) Four dead Regicides excepted by posthumous attainder for high treason, viz., Cromwell, Ireton, Bradshawe, and Pride. (2) Twenty dead Regicides excepted as to their estates, to be subject to future fines or forfeiture. (3) Thirty living Regicides (viz., twenty-two judges and eight others) absolutely excepted. (4) Nineteen living Regicides, excepted with a saving clause, stating that they might be legally attainted; but that their execution should be suspended "until his majesty, by the advice and assent of the Lords and Commons in Parliament, shall order the execution by Act of Parliament to be passed for that purpose." (5) Six more living Regicides were excepted, but not capitally. (6) Two Regicides excepted, but with the sole penalty of incapacitation for office, viz., Hutchinson and Lascelles. Tomlinson and Ingoldsby escaped without any penalties whatever. The trial of the Regicides took place in October before a court of thirty-four commissioners (Oct., 1660). Twenty-nine were condemned to death, of whom ten were executed; the remaining nineteen, with six others who had not been tried, were mostly imprisoned till their deaths, though the fate of some is still obscure. There were still nineteen fugitives living in exile, of whom three were subsequently caught in Holland, brought over and executed, and one (Lisle) assassinated in Switzerland.

Masson, *Life of Milton*, vol. vi.; Noble, *Lives of the Regicides*; Howell, *State Trials*; Willis-Bund, *Selections from the State Trials*.

[C. H. F.]

Registration Act, The (1836), created an elaborate machinery for the registration of births, deaths, and marriages. It regulated the method of registration, the appointment of the necessary officials, and the creation of a central registry office at Somerset House under a Registrar-General, who was to present annual reports to Parliament. The system then established has remained substantially unaltered till the present.

Regium Donum was the endowment of £1,200 a year granted by William III. to the Presbyterian clergy of Ireland to reward them for their activity against James. In 1695 the Lords Justices advised the discontinuance of the grant, but William refused consent. From 1711 to 1715 the Irish House of Lords succeeded in preventing its being paid. But on the accession of George I. it was revived and increased to £2,000. In 1870, in consequence of the Irish Church Act, it was abolished, but a compensation was granted to all interested parties.

Regni, The, were a British tribe occupying the present county of Sussex, with a chief town Regnum (Chichester).

Regulating Act, Lord North's (1773), was the first important intervention of the English government in the direct administration of British India. The difficulties of the East India Company drove them in 1772 to seek a loan from Parliament, and the ministry in consequence brought in a bill for the better government of India, which was carried in spite of the opposition of the India House. Its provisions were that the administration of Bengal should be vested in a Governor-General and four councillors, and that this government should be supreme over the other presidencies; that the first Governor-General and councillors, who were nominated in the Act, should hold office for five years, and be irremovable except by the crown on representation of the Court of Directors; that vacancies should be supplied by the court subject to the approbation of the crown; that a Supreme Court of Judicature should be established at Calcutta to consist of a chief justice and four puisne judges to be nominated by the crown, and paid by the Company; that the qualification for a vote in the India House should be the possession of £1,000 stock, and that the possession of more should entitle to a plurality of votes in a fixed proportion; that the directors should be elected for four years, and that one-fourth of the entire number should be renewed annually; that all the Company's correspondence relating to civil and military affairs, the government of the country, or the administration of the revenues, should be laid before one of his Majesty's secretaries of state, and that no servant of the crown or Company should receive presents.

Mill, *Hist. of India*.

Remonstrance, The Grand. In the first week after the Long Parliament met, it was moved by Lord Digby "to draw up such a remonstrance to the king as should be a faithful and lively representation of the state of the kingdom." In the following August it was resolved that this proposal should be adopted, and the Remonstrance was brought forward on Nov. 8th, finally discussed on Nov. 22nd, and passed by 159 votes to 148. It was presented to the king on Dec. 1st, ordered to be printed on Dec. 15th, and answered by Charles on Dec. 23rd. In aim and substance the remonstrance was "an appeal to the nation rather than address to the crown." It stated the case of the Commons against the king, described the con-

dition in which they had found the nation, what reforms they had already effected, what they proposed for the future, and what difficulties they had to struggle against. The preamble explained the causes which made a remonstrance necessary. Clauses 1 to 104 traced the history of the king's misgovernment from his accession to the meeting of the Long Parliament. Clauses 105 to 142 described the abuses abolished and reforms effected and prepared by the Parliament. Clauses 143 to 180 enumerated the obstructions to the work of reformation, evil counsellors and slanderers, the army plots, and the Irish rebellion. Clauses 181 to 191 explained and defended the scheme of the Parliamentary leaders for the reform of the Church. The last fourteen clauses (192 to 206) pointed out the remedial measures the Commons demanded: the establishment of certain safeguards against the Roman Catholic religion; securities to be given for the better administration of justice; the king to choose for ministers and agents such persons as the Parliament "might have cause to confide in." The earlier clauses, which merely set forth the king's past misgovernment, were adopted without opposition, but the ecclesiastical clauses met with an able and vigorous opposition from Hyde, Colepepper, and others. The final debate also was long and excited, and the two questions whether the Remonstrance should be printed, and whether the minority might enter their protestations, nearly led to a personal struggle. It was the fact that it was a party manifesto which led to this opposition, and brought the Civil War nearer.

Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng.*; Forster, *The Grand Remonstrance*; Rushworth, *Historical Collections*.

[C. H. F.]

Remonstrants, The. In 1650 a schism took place amongst the Scotch Presbyterians. Warned by the defeat of Dunbar (Sept. 3), and the attempt of Charles II. to join the Scotch Royalists, Argyle and his followers determined to unite with the Royalists to oppose Cromwell. Against this policy two leading divines, Guthrie and Gillespie, with Johnston of Warriston, and the chiefs of the rigid Presbyterians of the south-west, presented to the Committee of Estates "a remonstrance of the gentlemen commanders and ministers attending the forces in the west" (Oct. 22, 1650). Those who joined in this opposition were called Remonstrants or Protesters.

Repeal Agitation is the name given to the movement headed by Daniel O'Connell for the repeal of the English and Irish Union. From his first appearance in public life, O'Connell displayed a steady hostility to the Act of Union. His activity was long absorbed in the great struggle for Emancipation, but he consistently avowed his purpose of using Emancipation as a step to Repeal. The Catholic controversy had two abiding results: it substituted the power of the priests for the power of the landlords in Ireland, and it gave an immense impetus to the system of organised agitation in English politics. When the Act became law, O'Connell applied the machinery which carried it to the promotion of Repeal. The agitation was suspended in 1831, renewed after the Coercion Act of 1833, and again suspended on the accession of Lord Melbourne to power in 1835. The Emancipation Act had been in force for six years, but Catholics were still systematically excluded from office by the government. O'Connell believed that the new premier would admit them to the equality they demanded, and upon those terms he was prepared to drop the question of Repeal. His expectations were not altogether disappointed. The Whig administration carried many just and useful reforms, and dispensed its Irish patronage between the rival creeds. But in the end O'Connell's support was fatal to his allies. Sir Robert Peel returned to office in 1841. The Repeal agitation was at once revived. It was conducted by a "Repeal Society," modelled on the lines of the Catholic Association. The ecclesiastical organisation of the popular Church, which necessarily permeated every corner of the land, was again the basis of a political movement. The subscribers were classified according to the amount of their payments, which were collected by the priests. Repeal wardens administered the several districts. The great agitator himself controlled the whole. The educated Catholics had dissevered themselves from O'Connell early in the Emancipation contest. They held utterly aloof from Repeal. Their conduct gave a last blow to their political power. The Repeal Society manipulated elections, prepared gigantic petitions, and, above all, devoted itself to the promotion of "monster meetings." These enormous gatherings proved in O'Connell's hands the most striking feature of the agitation. It is credibly reported that at Tara (Aug. 15, 1843) he addressed an audience of 250,000 men. On Oct. 1 there was a demonstration at Mullaghmast, in Kildare. Arrangements were made to hold another at Clontarf on the 8th. The government were seriously alarmed. The Clontarf meeting was prohibited by proclamation on the 7th. Ample military measures were taken to enforce obedience. The action of the government, as O'Connell afterwards complained, had made a massacre imminent. Such an event would probably have strengthened his position; but he shrank from bloodshed. By strenuous exertions he succeeded in inducing his followers to disperse. The Repeal movement virtually ended with the Clontarf proclamation. O'Connell was tried for conspiracy, and convicted on Feb. 12, 1844. The judgment was reversed by the House of

Lords on Sept. 4. The agitation completed the division of classes in Ireland, and made the minority feel that the Union was essential to their existence.

Annual Register; Lecky, *The Leaders of Public Opinion in Ireland.* [J. W. F.]

Repingdon, Philip (*d. circâ* 1424), was one of the chief supporters of Wiclif at Oxford, but subsequently being alarmed at the progress of Lollardy he became one of its strongest opponents. In 1408 he was made Bishop of Lincoln and cardinal by the Pope, but in 1419 he was compelled to resign the see, having violated the Statute of Præmunire in accepting the cardinalship without royal consent. After this he seems to have lived in obscurity for some years longer.

Representation. [Elections; Parliament.]

Representative Peers are those peers of Scotland and Ireland selected by their order to represent them in the House of Lords. By the Act of Union with Scotland (1707) it was enacted that Scotland should be represented in the British House of Lords by sixteen peers chosen by the whole body of the Scotch nobility (at this time numbering 154). The proportion of Scotch to English members of Parliament had been fixed at one to twelve, and the same proportion was observed in the House of Lords. The representative peers were to be elected for each Parliament by open voting, and proxies of absent nobles were allowed. No fresh Scotch peerages were in future to be created. In 1711 the House of Lords denied the right of Scotch non-representative peers who had been given English peerages to sit among them. This, however, did not prevent the conferring of English titles on the eldest sons of Scotch peers, and after a decision of the judges in 1782 the crown recommenced to grant patents of peerage in Great Britain to Scotch peers. More than half the Scotch peers are now also peers of England, and ultimately only sixteen will remain without an hereditary right to sit, and these will perhaps be made hereditary peers of Parliament. It may be added that one of the proposals of the Peerage Bill of 1720—21 was to substitute twenty-five hereditary for sixteen elected peers from Scotland. By the Act of Union with Ireland (1801), twenty-eight Irish representative peers were added to the House of Lords: these, however, were to be elected for life, and not, as in Scotland, for one Parliament only. A new Irish peerage may only be created when three have become extinct. But when the number shall have fallen to 100 it is to be kept at that figure by the creation of one new peerage whenever a peerage becomes extinct, or an Irish peer becomes a peer of Great Britain.

Lords' Report on the Dignity of a Peer; May, *Practical Treatise.*

Requests, The Court of, was an offshoot of the Privy Council in its judicial capacity. The creation of a minor court of equity was necessitated by numerous failures of justice in the common law court, which refused to afford any remedy beyond that specified by the king's original writ. Accordingly an order for regulating the Council, of the 13th Richard II., required the Keeper of the Privy Seal and a certain number of the Council to meet between eight and nine o'clock in order to examine and despatch the bills of people of lesser charge. In the 41st of Elizabeth this court, which was frequently resorted to, was declared illegal by a decision of the Court of Queen's Bench, and was finally abolished, together with the Star Chamber, by the Long Parliament. There were also local tribunals, known as courts of request or courts of conscience for the recovery of small debts, limited at first to sums under 40s., and afterwards under £5. The first of these was established by Act of Parliament in 1625, which confirmed a court which had been instituted in London by order of Council in the reign of Henry VIII.; and similar courts were soon afterwards set up by Act of Parliament in various parts of the kingdom. They proved, however, very inadequate, and were suppressed by the County Court Act of 1846.

Spence, *Equitable Jurisdiction of the Court of Chancery*; Tidd Pratt, *Abstract of Acts of Parliament relating to Courts of Request*; Stephen, *Commentaries*, vol. iii.

Rescissory Act, The, was an Act passed by the Scotch Parliament of 1661. "It rescinded or cut off from the body of the law all the statutes passed in the Parliament of 1640 or subsequently. This withdrew from the statute-book all legislation later than the year 1633, for the Parliament of 1639 passed no statutes" (Burton). It was proposed by Sir Thomas Primrose with the object of annulling the Acts establishing Presbyterianism in Scotland. It was brought in and passed in one day (March 28th), and immediately approved by Lord Middleton, the High Commissioner, without waiting for leave from the king. Burnet says of it, "This was a most extravagant thing, and only fit to be concluded after a drunken bout."

Burnet, *Hist. of his Own Time*; Burton, *Hist. of Scotland.*

Resolutioners was the name given to the supporters of the coalition between the Scotch Royalists and the Presbyterian party proposed by the Argyle government in the autumn of 1650. In the Kirk commission, which met at Perth, a resolution was passed empowering the government to relax the Act of Classes, and allow the Royalists to take part in the war. Those who supported this policy were called Resolutioners.

Responsibility of Ministers. As now understood, this phrase expresses the

grand working and motive principle of parliamentary and party government. That every holder of a ministerial office should have at any moment to give an account of his stewardship, not to the power that nominally appoints and dismisses him, but to the Commons and the country, who can withdraw from him the confidence that is essential to his staying in office, is a practical doctrine that has turned the nobler parts of government into a self-acting machinery of rare efficiency hitherto. This is now the outcome and function of ministerial responsibility, when the great officers of state have come to be clothed with the whole prerogative of the crown. Once it was something different, and served another purpose. It was once a device for reconciling the inviolability of the sovereign with the rights of the subject, and the legal saw, "the king can do no wrong," with the fact that the subject was often wronged by the crown, and the rule of law that every wrong has a remedy. Officers of the king were answerable for the king's measures to the courts of justice and to the High Court of Parliament, and might have to smart for them. This principle was early admitted; Hallam finds it to have been an essential check on the royal authority, though somewhat halting in its operation, in 1485; and it was ruled to be the law on a most solemn occasion—the trial of the Regicides in 1660. "The law in all cases," said Bridgman, "preserves the person of the king, but what is done by his ministers unlawfully, there is a remedy against his ministers for it." The higher action of the principle, that which has brought the entire ministerial system into subjection to the Commons and the country, has only recently reached its final development. Its germs, however, were sown with the rise of Parliament, and attempts to reduce it to practice were made from time to time as Parliament became strong. In 1341 a pledge was exacted from Edward III. that the Chancellor and other great officers should be appointed in Parliament, and their work tested by Parliament; according to Bishop Stubbs this implies "that it is to the nation, not to the king only, that ministers are accountable." In 1378 another was given, that during Richard II.'s minority the great ministers should be chosen by Parliament. But neither of these engagements stood; Parliament has never succeeded in permanently enforcing its will by the direct method. In the invention of impeachment the right path towards the indirect and smoother way of working the principle was hit upon; but even impeachment was premature. Under the house of Lancaster signs that this first of constitutional powers was among the births of time are easily discoverable; but under the Tudors there is not a trace of such a promise. With the Stuarts they reappear. The Parliamentary prosecutions of Bacon and Cranfield, the proceedings against Buckingham, Strafford, and others, were all manifestations of the instinct that was pushing the Commons towards the momentous issue; and when Charles I. thought of admitting Pym and Hampden to important office, and actually bestowed such on Essex and Falkland, he gave a hint, the earliest in history, of what proved to be the true manner of working the principle. But Pym had no perception of this; his aim was to make Parliament immediate master of the administration. After the Restoration the movement began in earnest, and on the right line; in the fall of Clarendon, of the Cabal, and of Danby, we see one thing clearly, that the Commons had learned the secret of turning out ministers. The incidents of Danby's overthrow are specially instructive; they show that the responsibility of ministers had become a reality, and was on its way to great ends. When the Revolution had been consummated, the doctrine was established beyond dispute; it became the rule that the sovereign should choose the ministers, but Parliament should decide whether his choice should hold good. By one power office was given, to another the men who held it were responsible; gained by favour of one, it could be kept only by favour of the other. The voting power in the country could take away but not give. By getting the control of this voting power, at one time the great families, at another King George III., contrived to intercept the effect of the principle, and for more than a century it operated only in seasons of unusual excitement. But the first Reform Bill first brought into play its logical consequence. Since 1835 the Commons and voting power of the country have virtually indicated to the sovereign the men who must compose the ministry, as well as dismissed it when so minded. However, since a ministry is now a solid mass, usually entering on and resigning power with unbroken ranks, it would be more accurate to name the doctrine the responsibility of ministries.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*; May, *Const. Hist.*; Bagehot, *The English Constitution.* [J. R.]

Resumption Bill (1700). At the time of the conquest of Ireland by William III., a bill had been introduced providing for the application to the public service of forfeited Irish lands. This bill, however, had not been carried through, and William had freely disposed of the forfeitures—some 1,700,000 acres in all. Of these a quarter was restored to the Catholics in accordance with the Articles of Limerick; sixty-five other great proprietors were reinstated by royal clemency; and a part was bestowed on persons who had commanded in the war, such as Ginkel and Galway. But the greater part was lavishly granted to courtiers and favourites, chief among them Woodstock, Albemarle, and

Lady Orkney. In 1699 the Commons "tacked" to a Land Tax Bill a clause nominating seven commissioners to examine into forfeitures. The majority report of these commissioners, with its exaggeration of the value of the grants, and bitter attacks upon the government for favouring Catholics, was welcomed by the Commons, who finally passed a Resumption Bill, appointing trustees, in whose hands the lands were to be vested. This they again tacked to the Land Tax Bill; the Lords were inclined to resist, but the country was on the side of the Commons, and the peers were induced to yield.

Burnet, *Hist. of his Own Time*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*, c. xxv.

Revenue, The. The collection and assessment of the revenue previous to the Conquest was a simple matter. The machinery of government was supplied by the people themselves, notably by the obligations of the Trinoda Necessitas (q.v.); and all that had to be supplied were the personal wants of the crown. These were met by the fee-farm of the folkland, fines in the law courts, market and harbour dues, the right of maintenance, afterwards known as purveyance and heriots. Extraordinary taxes, such as the Danegeld, were imposed by the Witenagemot. Under the Norman kings the rents from the public lands were commuted and became the ferm of the shire; the Danegeld continued, while the heriot was supplanted by the feudal aids. The fines of the local courts, and the port and market dues, were still raised. Under Henry II. the towns began to be an important source of taxation; aids were raised from them, which subsequently acquire an evil significance under the title of tallage (q.v.). Taxes on movables, afterwards so frequent in the form of thirteenths, fifteenths, &c., were established by the Saladin tithe in the same reign. By the fourteenth century they had supplanted scutage and tallage, which were levied on land. They fell chiefly on the clergy, who, with the merchants, contributed from this time the greater part of the revenue. In the reign of Richard the principle of sworn recognitors was first applied generally to purposes of taxation. The reigns of John and Henry III. are noted for the illegal pretexts by which all classes were oppressed, and the more or less successful resistance of the baronial party. Edward I. first instituted the customs by the tax on wool imposed in 1275, although this important article had frequently been seized by previous kings. [Customs.] In this reign taxes ceased to be imposed locally, and were voted by the estates sitting in Parliament. Among the financial experiments of the fourteenth century we may note the poll-tax, which was afterwards abandoned; and tunnage and poundage, which was perpetuated. The kings showed great ingenuity in evading the maxim, "What touches all should be allowed of all." Among illegal sources of revenue were loans from foreign merchants, forced loans from individuals, which became known as benevolences, purveyances, and exactions from the towns for forced levies of men, known as commissions of array. The revenue in the fourteenth century may be estimated at about £65,000 in times of peace, and £130,000 in times of war. To go into the financial devices of the Yorkist and Tudor dynasties with any minuteness is not possible here; it is enough to notice the creation of monopolies in the latter period, and the institution of fines for religious nonconformity. When the king became the head of the Church, the support of the establishment fell upon the crown, and then the tithe system originated as it existed until commuted in 1836. The Stuarts were adepts at inventing methods for raising revenue. A permanent source of income which dates from the reign of Charles I. is the excise, first imposed by the Long Parliament in 1643, and presented to the crown after the Restoration upon the surrender of the feudal dues. At the Restoration the revenue was fixed at £1,200,000 a year, and after the Revolution at the same figure. The hearth-tax was abolished at the latter date. [For the arrangement by which the hereditary revenues of the crown were separated from the taxes for the support of government, see Civil List.] It would be impossible here to give a thorough account of the many devices for raising revenue adopted since the Restoration. We may notice the rapid multiplication of import and export duties under the mercantile system, and their abandonment on the introduction of free trade, which followed the abolition of the Corn Laws in 1846; the stamp duties introduced 1671, and diminished in the reign of Queen Victoria, the land tax imposed in 1689 and first commuted in 1798, the succession duty enacted in 1853, and lastly the income-tax. The chief sources of revenue at present are (1) from taxation, the customs, excise, stamps, estate, legacy, and succession duties, property and income tax, land taxation, and the house duty; (2) from other sources, that from the post office.

Revolution, The (1688—89), is the name usually given to the series of events by which James II. was expelled, and William and Mary established on the throne. Two events precipitated James's fall — the trial of the Seven Bishops and the birth of the Prince of Wales. So long as the clergy could expect that in a few years James would be succeeded by the Princess Mary, they were able patiently to bear reverses. But the Prince would be brought up a papist, and take the leading place, surrounded by papist counsellors. So necessary was it to the success of James's

plans that Mary of Modena should have a son, that the majority of the people sincerely believed the Jesuits had schemed a great imposture. The whole nation, Whig and Tory, were anxious to be saved from the rule of a Catholic prince, however parties might differ as to the means to be employed.

Such was the state of things when, on June 30, 1688, an invitation was sent to William of Orange to come to England at once with an armed force. It was signed by seven persons of influence—the Earl of Devonshire, one of the chiefs of the Whig party; the Earl of Shrewsbury; the Earl of Danby; Compton, Bishop of London; Henry Sidney, brother of Algernon Sidney; Lord Lumley, and Edward Russell. The Prince of Orange at once determined upon action. The birth of the young prince destroyed the hopes which he had built upon the probability of his wife's accession to the English throne. If he could succeed in dethroning James, he might expect to gain far more power than that of a king-consort; if he could bring the power of England into the confederation against Louis XIV., his pre-eminence among the allies would be assured. But there were almost insuperable difficulties in the way. The magistrates of Amsterdam had long been opposed to the Orange princes and attached to France; the opposition of one town would be sufficient to prevent the States-General from consenting to the expedition to England, and if it did not altogether stop it, might cause a dangerous delay. If Louis determined to begin the impending war by an attack upon Holland, William's troops must be retained at home to defend their country. And, finally, if only James could induce his English troops to fight one battle against the Dutch invaders, whatever its issue might be, national feeling would be enlisted upon his side, and he might be able to retain his throne. But the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, and the recent alterations in the French tariff had destroyed the French party in Amsterdam, and all the states and towns of the republic were enthusiastic in support of Orange. The preparations which were being made in Holland did not escape the observation of the French ambassador, and his master did what he could to save James. A French envoy was sent to London to offer naval assistance. But James petulantly declared he would not be patronised; the French envoy could gain no answer to his message; and the European powers were informed that the close alliance of England and France was a mere invention on the part of Louis. In anger Louis left him to his fate; he determined to open the war by an invasion of Germany, and William could venture for a while to leave Holland unprotected. In his negotiations with Catholic powers, William was able to represent his undertaking as one which had little to do with religion, and his expedition certainly had the good wishes of the sovereign pontiff. And the folly of James in bringing Irish troops into England, and William's wise policy of putting forward his English supporters on every occasion when a conflict seemed likely to occur, threw national sympathy on the side of the Prince of Orange, and removed the most formidable difficulty out of his way.

Before the expedition started, a declaration was drawn up and published. It set forth that the fundamental laws of England had been violated, illegal measures had been taken to favour Catholics, prelates venturing to petition their sovereign had been imprisoned, judges had been dismissed, and preparations were being made to bring together a packed Parliament. Moreover, just doubts were entertained as to the birth of the Prince of Wales. For these reasons, it was declared, William was about to enter England with an army in order to assemble a free Parliament, to whose decision all the questions in dispute should be referred.

James was terrified when at last he heard of the impending storm. A formidable fleet was put under the command of Lord Dartmouth, and troops were brought from Scotland and Ireland. All the dismissed magistrates and deputy-lieutenants were replaced, and a proclamation was issued announcing the king's intention to abandon the attempt to repeal the Test Act, and his desire to carry out the Act of Uniformity. Witnesses were brought before the Privy Council to prove the birth of the young prince; and at the request of the bishops the Court of High Commission was abolished and the borough charters restored. But these concessions were too evidently dictated by fear to be of use, and James still obstinately refused to give up the dispensing power.

On Oct. 19 William set sail from Helvoetsluys with a force of some 14,000 men, the fleet being wisely placed under the command of the Englishman Herbert. He was driven back by a gale, but set out again on Nov. 1. A favouring breeze carried the fleet into the Channel, while it held Dartmouth in the Thames; on the 5th William landed unmolested at Torbay. Hence he proceeded to Exeter, where he began to be joined by the neighbouring gentry. Soon the defections from James became numerous; very significant was the desertion of Clarendon's son, Viscount Cornbury, doubtless prompted by Churchill. James at once set out for Salisbury, but here Churchill and Grafton left him, and no longer daring to trust his army, the king returned to London. On his way he was abandoned by Prince George and Ormonde, and when he reached the capital he found that the Princess Anne had taken flight. In desperation the king yielded to the advice of the Council, and issued writs for a Parliament. Halifax, Nottingham, and Godolphin were appointed commissioners to

treat with William, but this negotiation, as James told Barillon, was only a feint to gain time. Meanwhile the prince had advanced to Hungerford, and there, on Dec. 8, the commissioners met him. William's terms were scrupulously moderate; all questions should be referred to a Parliament, and in order that its deliberations might be free, neither army should come within forty miles of the capital, though James and William were each to be allowed to visit Westminster with a body-guard. These terms were arranged on Dec. 9; on the 10th Mary of Modena and the young prince were sent out of the country under the care of the Count of Lauzun, and next day James himself took flight. Such peers as were in London met in the Guildhall under the presidency of Sancroft, and drew up a declaration that now that the king had left the country they had determined to join with the Prince of Orange, and until his arrival would act as a provisional government. But greatly to the vexation of William, James was stopped in his flight, and returned to London. It now became William's object to terrify him into again leaving the country. Remaining himself at Windsor, William sent Dutch troops to occupy Whitehall, and peremptorily insisted that James should remove to Ham. Again meditating flight, James proposed Rochester instead, and to this Orange readily consented. Next day, Dec. 19, William entered London, and on the 22nd James fled from Rochester, and this time succeeded in reaching France.

William had already called together the Lords and the members of Charles II.'s Parliaments, together with the City magistrates. These advised the prince to assume the administration provisionally, and summon a Parliamentary convention. The Convention Parliament met on Jan. 22, 1689. One party, especially among the clergy, were in favour of negotiating with James and restoring him upon conditions, but they could scarcely venture to propose this when James was himself issuing manifestoes declaring all their grievances imaginary. Another party, headed by Sancroft, proposed that the royal title should be left to James, but that the government should be put into the hands of William with the title of regent. A third but smaller section, the chiefs of which were Danby and Compton, urged that by the flight of James the throne had been vacated, that judgment must go by default against the claims of the young prince, and that Mary was already *de jure* queen. But Mary refused to exclude her husband from the throne, and William himself declared that he would not remain merely as his wife's usher. The Whigs, meanwhile, were unanimous in proposing to confer the crown on William and Mary together, and to put the executive into the hands of the prince, and after long discussions this was agreed to by both Houses. The principal resolution of the Commons accepted by the Lords, ran thus: "King James the Second, having endeavoured to subvert the constitution of the kingdom by breaking the original contract between king and people, and by the advice of Jesuits and other wicked persons having violated the fundamental laws, and having withdrawn himself out of the kingdom, has abdicated the government, and the throne has thereby become vacant." Of this resolution, as Macaulay justly says, the one beauty is its inconsistency; "There was a phrase for every subdivision of the majority. The mention of the original contract gratified the disciples of Sidney. The word abdication conciliated politicians of a more timid school. There were, doubtless, many fervent Protestants who were pleased with the censure cast on the Jesuits. To the real statesman the single important clause was that which declared the throne vacant; and, if that clause could be carried, he cared little by what preamble it might be introduced." On Feb. 13, the crown was offered to William and Mary, accompanied by the Declaration of Rights. This they accepted, and the same day were proclaimed king and queen.

The same general plan had been followed in Scotland. There the withdrawal of troops had left the ground clear for the Whig lords. While the Covenanters rose in the west, and carried out a violent ecclesiastical change, the leading peers went to London, and advised William to call a Convention of Estates. This was done, and upon its advice the Estates were summoned for March 14. After an easily balked attempt of the Jacobite minority to hold a rival convention, a declaration was drawn up almost in the same terms as in England, with the addition that prelacy was an insupportable grievance. In Ireland, Londonderry and Enniskillen declared for William, but the rest of the country under Tyrconnel's administration remained firm in its allegiance to James, and not till the Irish had been crushed in war was the Revolution settlement accepted by them.

Burnet, *Hist. of his Own Time* (criticised in Ranke, *Eng. Hist.*, vi., and compared with the Dutch Reports); *Life of James II.*; Reresby, *Memoirs*; Evelyn, *Diary*; Luttrell, *Diary*; Dalrymple, *Memoirs of Gt. Britain* (1773), giving extracts from Barillon's despatches; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*

[W. J. A.]

Reynolds, Walter, Archbishop of Canterbury 1313—1327, was a man of humble origin. He was made by Edward I. preceptor to Prince Edward, and subsequently treasurer. He obtained a considerable influence over the prince, and on Edward II.'s accession, Reynolds was made almost at once Chancellor, and Bishop of Worcester. On the death of Winchelsey, the king obtained from the Pope his nomination to the archbishopric. After the defeat at Bannockburn, Reynolds resigned the great seal, and later

on sided with the queen against his benefactor. He crowned Prince Edward, and preached the coronation sermon. Dean Hook says with truth that few Archbishops of Canterbury have been less fit for their work.

Rhé, Expedition to, 1627. In 1627 a rupture took place between England and France, and Charles resolved to defend the independence of the French Protestants, and maintain his own claim to the mastery of the sea. For both these objects the possession of the island of Rhé, lying in face of Rochelle, and commanding the commerce between France and Spain, would be valuable. The English fleet, commanded by the Duke of Buckingham, sailed on June 27, and a landing was made on the island on July 12. St. Martin's, the capital, was besieged from July 17 to Oct 29. The destruction by a storm of the expedition destined to reinforce the besiegers, and the failure of an assault attempted on Oct. 27, combined with the landing of a French force in the island, compelled the duke to raise the siege. These French troops, to the number of 6,000, commanded by Marshal Schomberg, had gradually been collected at the fort of La Prée, which Buckingham had neglected to take immediately after his landing. They now assailed the English during their retreat, and inflicted a very heavy loss on them.

Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng., 1603—1642*, vol. vi.; Lord Herbert of Cherbury, *The Expedition to the Isle of Rhé.* [C. H. F.]

Rhodes, The Right Hon. Cecil J., having completed his education at Oxford, went to South Africa, and by his astute direction of diamond mines at Kimberley acquired a large fortune. Turning to politics, he soon became a member of the Cape Government—that of Sir T. Scanlon. When the Sprigg ministry fell, in 1890, he became Premier, and held the office until early in 1896, when, as a result of Dr. Jameson's abortive raid into the Transvaal, he resigned. For his share in promoting the raid he was severely censured by the House of Commons Inquiry Committee in July, 1897. As director of the British South Africa Company, he, in 1893, conducted the campaign against the Matabele. He died in 1902.

Rhodesia. [South Africa.]

Rhuddlan Castle. A fortress was first built at Rhuddlan, a position of considerable military importance commanding the vale of Clwyd, by Llewelyn ap Sitsyll early in the eleventh century. Upon the rebellion of the Prince Gruffydd, in 1262, Harold marched upon him at Rhuddlan; Gruffydd escaped to the sea about two miles distant, but Harold burnt the castle. It was rebuilt, and afterwards conquered by a nephew of Hugh Lupus. Edward I. caused a stately castle to be erected near the site of the former one; here Queen Eleanor gave birth to a daughter; and here a baronial assembly was held, by the advice of which, in 1284, the "Statute of Wales" was drawn up, assimilating the administration of that country to that of England. The castle was captured by the Parliamentary general, Mytton, in 1646, and dismantled.

Ribbon Society, The, was a secret Irish confederacy, consisting of small farmers, cottiers, labourers, and in the towns small shopkeepers and artisans, which appeared about 1820 (the name "Ribbon" not being attached to it till about 1826); and gained great strength from 1835 to 1855. "In Ulster it professed to be a defensive or retaliatory league against Orangeism. In Munster it was at first a combination against tithe proctors. In Connaught it was an organisation against rack-renting and evictions. In Leinster it often was mere trade-unionism, dictating by its mandates, and enforcing by its vengeance the employment or dismissal of workmen, stewards, and even domestics." To belong to a Ribbon Society was declared illegal by the Westmeath Act of 1871; since which time the confederacy has died away, or been merged in other secret associations.

A. M. Sullivan, *New Ireland*, ch. iv.

Rich, Edmund, St., Archbishop of Canterbury 1231—1240, was born at Abingdon, came to Oxford at the age of twelve, after staying there several years begged his way to Paris, and upon his return to Oxford became one of the most popular teachers of theology and philosophy. About 1222 he was appointed Treasurer of Salisbury Cathedral and became the spiritual adviser of the Countess of Salisbury, widow of King John's half-brother. Upon the death of Archbishop Richard le Grand some dispute arose as to the election of a successor, and Pope Gregory IX. induced the monks who had gone to Rome to elect Rich upon their return, a measure to which the king's consent was readily obtained. But Edmund was not disposed to act as a tool of king or pope, though the latter had written urging him to persuade the English to overcome their prejudices against the aliens. Immediately after his consecration he visited the king, insisted on the reform of abuses, and the dismissal of foreign ministers, especially Peter des Roches, and threatened him with excommunication if he refused. Henry yielded, and Peter and his creatures were dismissed. "Edmund was a bishop of the type of Anselm, with somewhat of the spirit and practical instincts of Langton; but he lived in an unhappy period for the display of either class of qualities under a pope whom he knew only as a taskmaster, and under a king whose incapacity and want of firmness made it as hard to support as to resist him" (Stubbs). To diminish his influence Henry III. applied to the pope to send a legate to England, and Edmund had to struggle during the rest of

his life against Otho's efforts to obtain benefices for foreigners in England. The archbishop also came into conflict with Henry in the matter of the marriage of Simon de Montfort to the king's sister Eleanor, widow of the Earl Marshal, whom he refused to free from her vow of perpetual widowhood. In 1238 Edmund visited Rome to obtain papal support in his attempt to enforce discipline in the monasteries of Canterbury and Rochester. But the pope, in revenge for his action in the matter of the alien clergy, treated him with studied insult, and decided all the appeals against him. At last in despair Edmund retired to the abbey of Pontigny in France, and died at the neighbouring priory of Soissy in 1240. The popular belief in his sanctity and the miracles reported from his tomb forced Innocent IV., much against his will, to consent to his canonisation in 1246.

Hook, *Archbishops of Canterbury*, vol. iii., based on a contemporary *Life* by Bertrand, Abbot of Pontigny. Green, *Hist. of English People*, gives some account of his Oxford life, and Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, ch. xiv., of his constitutional action. [W. J. A.]

Rich, Richard, Lord Rich (*d.* 1567), who "brought a greater strain upon the bar of England than any member of the profession" (Campbell), was in 1533 made Solicitor-General. He took a prominent part in the trial of Sir Thomas More, giving as evidence an untrue version of a private conversation with More, and so securing his conviction. He was rewarded in 1537 by being recommended to the office of Speaker, and during the rest of the reign was a ready agent of the court in the prosecution alike of Protestants and of Roman Catholics. Under the will of Henry VIII. Rich was appointed a councillor to assist in the government during the minority of Edward VI., and in October (1548) succeeded Paulet as Lord Chancellor of England. In 1549 he drew up the articles charging Lord Seymour of Sudeley with treason, and subsequently joined the Earl of Warwick, taking an active part in the proceedings against his former patron Somerset. In 1551 he resigned the Chancellorship, and remained prominent only as a persecutor.

Richard I., King, (*b.* Sept. 13, 1157, *s.* July, 1189, *d.* April 6, 1199), was the second son of Henry II. and Eleanor of Aquitaine. He was destined by his father to rule his mother's possessions in the south of France, and when still quite young was entrusted with the government of Aquitaine, where he speedily joined in the great conspiracy of 1173 against his father. Pardoned at the suppression of the revolt, he passed several years in a series of chivalrous and brilliant exploits among the wild feudal nobles of Guienne and Poitou. His success made his elder brother so envious that he insisted on Richard doing homage to him, and on his refusal a war broke out between the brothers (1183). In alliance with Bertrand de Born, Richard's great enemy, Henry and Geoffry reduced Richard to such straits that Henry II. had to go to his assistance. The death of the younger Henry concluded the war, but in 1184 another quarrel between Richard and his father ensued on the former's refusal to gratify the latter by surrendering a portion of Aquitaine to his brother, John. Richard's restless temper was constantly involving him in wars with his neighbours, from which nothing but his father's influence could extricate him. Yet in 1189 he inspired that last successful revolt, in the midst of which the old king died.

Despite his constant revolts, Richard secured the succession without difficulty. He hurried to England, not with the view of taking possession of the government so much as to secure means to embark on the projected crusade, into which he threw all his energy. He held a great council at Pipewell, in which he displaced Henry's old ministers, sold a large number of places, and made arrangements for the government during his absence. About three months after his coronation he left England.

The history of Richard's reign naturally divides itself into two main subjects—the personal adventures of the king in Palestine, Germany, and finally in France, and the government of the country during his absence. The brilliant and chivalrous spirit of the king, and that martial prowess which gave him the name of *Cœur de Lion*, were nowhere better displayed than in his adventures in the east. After some delays in France, Richard and Philip Augustus landed in Sicily in June, 1190. After rescuing his sister from the hands of the usurper, Tancred, and incurring the French king's hostility by repudiating the latter's sister, Alice, to whom he had been long contracted in marriage, in favour of Berengaria of Navarre, Richard set out for Palestine, conquering Cyprus on his way, and bestowing it on Guy of Lusignan. He arrived in Palestine in time to save Acre, but the return home of Philip Augustus, and the quarrel of Richard with the Duke of Austria, made the barren victories against the Saracens of little avail in effecting the deliverance of the Holy City. At last in 1192 Richard was glad to conclude a three years' truce with Saladin, which saved the remnants of the Frankish kingdom, and gave pilgrims free access to Jerusalem. On his way home he was imprisoned by his old enemy the Duke of Austria, and handed over to the Emperor Henry VI., who as the representative of the Hohenstaufen, was glad to get hold of the uncle and protector of Otto the Guelf.

Meanwhile the soundness of the administrative system which Henry II. had established was being thoroughly tested in England. Despite the incompleteness of Richard's arrangements, despite the intrigues of Earl

John, England remained in a prosperous condition during the whole of the period. Four successive justiciars ruled the land as practically independent sovereigns, burdened only by the heavy tribute which the absent king exacted. The first, William Longchamp, Bishop of Ely, was unpopular as a foreigner, and Earl John profited by this to excite the baronage against him. In 1191 the Archbishop of Rouen, Walter of Coutances, arrived with a commission from Richard to supersede him. His government, which lasted till 1193, was disturbed by the unsuccessful rebellion of John, in connection with an attack of Philip on Normandy, and by the exertions necessary to raise the enormous ransom of £100,000, which the Emperor required for the release of Richard. At the end of 1193 he was succeeded by Hubert Walter, Archbishop of Canterbury, whose administration continued until 1198. The latter at once succeeded in suppressing John's revolt. When Richard paid his second and last visit to his kingdom in the spring of 1194 the land was in profound peace. At a great council at Nottingham the accomplices of John were punished, the sheriffs removed, and money raised by all possible means. A second coronation at Winchester was a solemn declaration that, whatever humiliation Richard had been subjected to in his captivity, his royal dignity remained unimpaired. As soon as he had got all he could Richard hurried to France, where he spent the rest of his life in a constant petty warfare against Philip of France, until he met his death in 1199, while besieging the obscure castle of Chaluz. Meanwhile Hubert Walter administered England with success. The judicial *iter* of 1194, and the first germs of the offices of coroner and conservator of the peace, showed that he not only maintained, but also developed, the system of Henry II. In 1198 the refusal of a royal demand for money by the great council led to his resignation. His successor, Geoffry FitzPeter, had not long entered upon his office when the king died.

Richard I. is the most un-English of our kings. He knew and influenced England, where he hardly ever lived, either before or after his accession, less than any other prince. Yet, besides his fame as a knight-errant, he had no inconsiderable talent for rough and ready statesmanship. But he was a bad king, careless, extravagant, and neglectful of all his duties. The main interest of his reign in English history is its story of quiet administrative routine and constitutional development.

Bishop Stubbs' Editions of *Hoveden*, and of the *Chronicles and Memorials of Richard II.*, in the Rolls Series, are, with his *Const. Hist.*, the most important works bearing on Richard's reign. *See* also Pauli, *Geschichte von England*; Lyttelton, *Henry II.*; and Michaud, *Histoire des Croisades*.

[T. F. T.]

Richard II. (*b.* Feb., 1366; *r.* June 22, 1377—Feb. 14, 1440) was the son of Edward the Black Prince and Joan of Kent. Soon after his father's death he was created Prince of Wales, and recognised as heir to the throne. During the early years of his reign he was in tutelage, but the boldness and presence of mind which he showed during the peasant revolt seemed to augur a successful and prosperous career. He appears to have been suspicious of the designs of his uncle, Gloucester, and to have determined to surround himself with ministers of his own choosing, and it must be admitted that they were selected with judgment, and (with perhaps the exception of De Vere) they hardly deserve to be stigmatised as favourites. But they were not successful administrators, and the heavy taxes which were imposed afforded an opportunity to Gloucester and his associates to denounce them. In 1386, Richard's minister, Michael de la Pole, Earl of Suffolk, was impeached by the Commons, and the king was compelled to agree to the appointment of a Commission of Regency, consisting of the Dukes of Gloucester and York, and eight other lords and prelates. In the following August (1387), Richard procured from the judges a declaration that the Commission was illegal. But Gloucester entered London with a large force; and the king, unable to resist, was obliged to give way and to allow his chief advisers to be appealed of treason (Dec., 1387). The Parliament of 1388, the "Merciless Parliament," condemned Vere, Suffolk, and six others to death; and though the two chief personages escaped, the sentence was carried out in four cases. The power of Gloucester lasted till 1389, when Richard suddenly declared that he was old enough to manage his own affairs, and dismissed the Council of Regency. But he did not resort to his former methods of government; on the contrary, he was reconciled to Gloucester and his associates, and was content to admit them to a share in the government. For some years nothing happened to disturb the harmony between the king and the nobles, and the first symptoms of a revival of troubles was in 1395, when Richard proposed to marry Isabella of France and form a firm alliance with that country. This was strongly opposed by Gloucester, who was suspected by the king of treasonable designs, was arrested, and sent to Calais to await his trial, but died before it came on, murdered, it was generally believed, by the king's orders. It would seem that Richard was panic-stricken at the thought of a plot against his life, and determined to resort to the most arbitrary measures to secure his position. At any rate a complete change came over his conduct. The pardons granted to the barons in 1388 were annulled; two of the most prominent were appealed of treason. Arundel was executed, and his brother, the archbishop, banished. The proceedings of the Merciless Parliament were

rescinded, and the power of Parliament delegated to a small committee. Thus Richard seemed to have established his absolute power; but still there were rumours of conspiracies. The Duke of Hereford (Henry of Bolingbroke, son of John of Gaunt), and Thomas Mowbray, Duke of Norfolk, accused each other of treason, and were sentenced to banishment, the latter for life, the former for six years. Richard now resorted to various illegal methods of raising money, and he had already alienated the people from him, as well as the leading nobles, when, in 1399, he committed two acts of reckless folly which were the immediate cause of his downfall. He had promised Hereford that if during his exile his father were to die, the Lancastrian estates should be secured to him. Nevertheless, on Gaunt's death, he seized the whole of his domains into his own hands. This gave an excuse to Hereford (or Lancaster, as he had now become) to return to England to claim his patrimony; and the circumstances were most auspicious for him, for Richard had gone upon an expedition to Ireland, leaving the Duke of York as regent in England. Henry of Lancaster landed in England, declared that he came simply to obtain his lawful inheritance, was joined by many of the great nobles, and not opposed by the Duke of York; so that when Richard returned from Ireland he found the kingdom was lost. Discovering his true position, Richard offered to resign the crown. The abdication was accepted by Parliament, which drew up articles of accusation against him, enumerating all the illegal and despotic acts he had been guilty of. Henry challenged the vacant throne and was accepted as king. After this, Richard disappears from history, and nothing is known for certain of the time, manner, or place of his death. According to one account, he was murdered at Pontefract by Sir Piers Exton, while other writers assert that he starved himself to death. The Revolution of 1399 was not a popular movement, but was brought about by a series of circumstances to a considerable extent unconnected with each other, but which all combined to produce one result—a change of dynasty. The Church was opposed to Richard on account of his supposed Lollard tendencies and his treatment of Archbishop Arundel; the nobles hated him because he had refused to govern according to their views, and had endeavoured to curb their independence. The people supported Henry as being the representative of Thomas of Lancaster, and having been unjustly defrauded by Richard; while many asserted that Richard was not the son of the Black Prince, but a supposititious child, and others maintained that Henry was the true heir to the throne as the representative of Edmund Crouchback, who it was said was in reality the elder brother of Edward I. The extravagance and foreign manners of the court were extremely distasteful, and the war party strongly resented the French marriage. Among the charges alleged against Richard by Parliament the most important are these:—The tampering with the judges in 1387; the revocation of the pardons of the Appellants; the murder of Gloucester; the ill-treatment of Lancaster and Arundel; illegal taxation; alienation of crown lands; excessive power of the household courts; and rash words asserting his own absolute authority. The truth probably is that Richard attempted to do what Edward IV. and Henry VII. were able to effect later on—to crush the power of the nobles, rule by means of ministers, avoid expensive foreign wars, and keep the Church in submission. Like them, he worked by means of Parliament, and thus obtained a legal sanction to his most unconstitutional acts. The chief reasons why they succeeded where he failed were, that by the time of Edward IV. the strength of the baronage had been utterly broken by the Wars of the Roses, the Church had lost its power, and the nation was anxious for peace under a strong government. In Richard's own character there was much that is attractive. He is to be compared, says Dr. Stubbs, rather to Edward III., "the chivalrous magnanimous king who left him heir to difficulties which he could not overcome," than to the feeble and worthless Edward II. If his theory of kingship was too lofty for the age, it was at least an intelligible one, and he seems to have kept before him with steadiness and purpose the idea of a despotic but reforming monarchy. Though his fate was immediately caused by his own deeds, the misfortunes of his career were in great part due to the events and policy of his grandfather's reign. "In personal appearance," says Mr. Gairdner, "he was handsome. There was a delicate beauty in his features which corresponded with a mode of life too luxurious for the age. He was a lover both of art and literature; the patron of Froissart, Gower, and Chaucer, and the builder of Westminster Hall. But he was thought too fond of show and magnificence, and some of his contemporaries accused him of too great love of pleasure. Yet of positive immorality we have no real evidence, and his devotion and tenderness to both his queens (child as the second was) is a considerable presumption to the contrary." Richard was twice married, first in 1382 to Anne of Bohemia, daughter of the Emperor Charles IV., and secondly in 1396 to Isabella, daughter of Charles VI. of France He left no issue.

The contemporary authorities are Knighton's Compilation, *De Eventibus Angliæ, &c.* (in Twysden, *Script. Decem*), and the *Annales Ricardi Secundi et Henrici Quarti* (Rolls Series), which forms the basis of Walsingham's *Historia*; a French *Chronique de la Trahison* (English Hist. Soc.), and metrical *Histoire du Roy Richard*; for Lollardism, *Fasciculi Zizaniorum* (Rolls

Series). The best modern account is by M. Wallon, *Richard II.* (1864). *See* also Wright, *Political Songs* (Rolls Series); Mr. Skeat's ed. of *Piers the Ploughman* (Early Eng. Text Soc.); *The Deposition of Richard II.* (Camden Soc).; Rogers, *Six Centuries of Work and Wages*, and Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, vol. ii., chap. xvi.

[S. J. L.]

Richard III., King (*b.* Oct. 2, 1452, *s.* July 6, 1483, *d.* Aug. 22, 1485), was the son of Richard, Duke of York, who was killed at Wakefield, and brother to Edward IV., and George, Duke of Clarence. Porn at Fotheringay in 1452, he was early inducted into state affairs. In 1461 he was recalled from Flanders, where he had been sent for safety, and created Duke of Gloucester and Lord High Admiral. He held faithfully to his brother during his reign, and showed himself a wise councillor to him, a good soldier, and a vigorous administrator in the capacity of Warden of the Scottish Marches and other posts. In 1470, on the outbreak of Warwick's insurrection, Richard left the kingdom, with Edward, and returned with him to take part in the battle of Barnet (April, 1471). Immediately afterwards he engaged in the campaign of the West, and contributed to the victory of Tewkesbury. In 1472 he married Anne Neville, the widow of Prince Edward, and in consequence became involved in a violent quarrel with his brother Clarence about the inheritance of the Earl of Warwick. The rivalry between the two brothers was keen, but it is not certain how far Richard was responsible for Clarence's downfall, or for his murder, if he was murdered. During the remainder of Edward's reign Gloucester was much occupied with Scottish affairs, and the management of the Border. In April, 1483, he left the North, and on the 30th of the month got possession of the young king, Edward V., as he was being taken to London. In May Richard was appointed Protector, and immediately entered upon the functions of government. A violent quarrel broke out between Richard and the queen's party in the council, which was headed by Lord Hastings. In June Richard, at a sitting of the council, charged the queen and her friends with a plot against his life. Hastings was seized and beheaded without trial on the spot. Lords Grey and Rivers, the queen's relations, were beheaded, and the young prince Richard of York was surrendered to the custody of the Protector. On June 22 Dr. Shaw, in a sermon at Paul's Cross, asserted the claim of Richard to the crown, on the ground that Edward V. and his brother were illegitimate; and on June 24 Buckingham, joined by a crowd of the citizens of London, urged Richard to accept the crown. This Richard did on June 26, and on July 6 he was crowned. Richard now adopted a policy of conciliation, but there was considerable disaffection against him, especially in southern England. The young princes disappeared soon after, and though nothing certain has ever been discovered about their fate, it was believed, and it is extremely probable, that Richard had them put to death. The story increased the feeling against Richard, and meanwhile a *rapprochement* took place between the queen's party and the Lancastrians, headed by Henry of Richmond. Richard's chief supporter, Buckingham, joined the conspiracy. In October Buckingham headed a rising in the West of England which came to nothing. The duke was captured and put to death without trial. But the conspiracy was not crushed, and active preparations were made by the Lancastrians during the next year. Meanwhile Richard was becoming thoroughly unpopular in England. His finances were in disorder, and he was obliged to have recourse to the raising of money by benevolences, though he had himself passed a bill through Parliament the previous year to put an end to that system. In Aug., 1485, Richmond landed at Milford Haven. The Welsh were in his favour, for they looked upon him as a national leader; the old nobility were alienated from Richard, and the new nobles disliked him; his own chief followers, the Stanleys, were in correspondence with the enemy; and the people were indifferent or favourable to the invaders. Richard met them at Bosworth (Aug. 22, 1485). In the crisis of the battle Lord Stanley, with his troops, suddenly joined Richmond. The king was killed fighting desperately. Richard has been represented as a monster of iniquity by Sir Thomas More and other historians who wrote under the Tudors. Unscrupulous, cruel, and violent as Richard was, he was, however, probably no worse than contemporary princes and statesmen; no worse, certainly, than his brother or his successor. His capacity was undoubted, and he seems to have made an effort at the beginning of his reign to govern well. He attempted to restore order, to check the tyranny of the nobles, and to develop commerce. He, however, lacked the astuteness that enabled Henry VII. to accomplish in a great measure the work he had attempted.

The Continuator of the Croyland Chronicle; J. Rous, *Hist. Rerum Angliæ* (pub. by Hearne); Fabian, *Concordance of Histories* (Ed. of 1811); Sir Thomas More, *History of Richard III.* and *Life of Edward V.*, all of whom are Tudor partisans. Modern works on the reign are Horace Walpole's ingenious *Historic Doubts concerning the Life and Reign of King Richard III.*; Miss Haxted, *Life of Richard III.*, and J. Gairdner, *Life and Reign of Richard III.* [S. J. L.]

Richard, Archbishop of Canterbury 1174–84, was Prior of Dover, and three years after the murder of Becket was chosen to fill the vacant see. He was essentially a moderate man, and his appointment was welcome to the king as well as to the supporters of Becket's policy. His great work was the rebuilding of Canterbury Cathedral, which

had been destroyed by fire previous to his enthronement.

Hook, *Archbishops of Canterbury.*

Richard, Duke of York (*b.* 1472, *d.* 1483), was the second son of Edward IV. In 1477 he was married to Anne, daughter and heiress of John Mowbray, Duke of Norfolk. Soon after Edward IV.'s death, his mother fled into sanctuary with him, but was subsequently induced to let him join his brother in the Tower, where he was probably murdered by his uncle's orders. [Richard III.]

Richard Fitz-neal succeeded his father, Bishop Nigel of Ely (nephew of Roger of Salisbury), in the office of Treasurer (1169), and became Bishop of London in 1189. He was the author of the *Dialogus de Scaccario*, the main source of information for the administrative system of Henry II.

Richard of Cirencester, a monk of Westminster from 1355 to about 1401, wrote a work entitled *Speculum Historiale de Gestis Regum Angliæ* (edited by Rev. J. E. Mayor in the Rolls Series), which is of some, though not the highest, historical value. He is better known through the forged *De Situ Britannia*, containing tolerably minute particulars of Roman Britain, which was published at Copenhagen in 1757 by one Richard Bertram. This work is never mentioned by any author earlier than Bertram; the MS. he professed to have discovered has never been seen; a (very brief) facsimile he professed to have made of part of it is quite unlike any mediæval writing known; its contents are largely borrowed from Camden or adapted from Cæsar and Tacitus; and its Latinity is eighteenth-century rather than mediæval. It was, however, frequently accepted as genuine till the exposure by Mr. Woodward in the *Gentleman's Magazine* of 1866 and 1867. *See* also Mr. Mayor's preface to his edition of Richard's genuine work.

Richard of Cornwall (*b.* 1209, *d.* 1272) was the son of John by his second wife Isabella. In 1240 he led a crusade to the Holy Land, and succeeded in securing very favourable terms for the Christians by a treaty with the Sultan of Egypt. In 1252 he was offered, but declined, the crown of Sicily; in 1257 he was elected King of the Romans, but was never crowned emperor. During the long years of disputes between Henry III. and his barons, Richard tried to act the part of a mediator, but when war broke out he sided with his brother and commanded the left wing at the battle of Lewes, where he was taken prisoner, and he did not recover his liberty till after the battle of Evesham.

Besides Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, ii., see Blaauw, *Barons' War*, and Prothero, *Simon de Montfort.*

Richborough (Rutupiæ), a Roman town and citadel guarding the eastern entrance to the Wantsum—an inlet of sea between Thanet and the mainland. Richborough was the chief port for commerce with Gaul, and the starting point for the great high road of Kent through Canterbury and Rochester to Dover. The fortress was the headquarters of the legion protecting the Saxon shore, but after the withdrawal of the Romans it was but feebly defended.

J. R. Green, *Making of England*, ch. i.

Richmond, Edmund Tudor, Earl of (*d.* 1456), was the eldest son of Owen Tudor by Catherine, widow of Henry V. He was created Earl of Richmond in 1452, and married Margaret Beaufort, daughter and heiress of John, Duke of Somerset, by whom he had one son, afterwards Henry VII.

Richmond, Henry Fitzroy, Duke of (*b.* 1519, *d.* 1536), was a natural son of Henry VIII. by Elizabeth Blount, wife of Sir Gilbert Tailbois. Before he was seven years of age he was made a Knight of the Garter, and created successively Earl of Nottingham and Duke of Richmond and Somerset. At the same time he was appointed Warden of the Marches towards Scotland, and placed in possession of many great estates. He was also subsequently raised to the dignity of Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, the actual duties of his position being performed for him by his deputy, Sir William Skeffington. He was married to Mary, daughter of the Duke of Norfolk, but died before the consummation of the marriage.

Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*, ch. v.

Ridge Way, The, one of the great Roman roads, was a branch of the Iknield Way, from which it separated at Streatley in Berkshire. It proceeded along the Berkshire and Wiltshire downs to Glastonbury, thence to Taunton, and through Devonshire to Stratton in Cornwall, thence keeping along the hills to Redruth and the Land's End. [Roman Roads.]

Ridings, is the name applied to the three divisions of Yorkshire, and with the arrangement of the country appears to be of Scandinavian origin. The four *things* into which Iceland was partitioned were divided into thirds, *thrithungar;* and the *fylker*, or petty kingdoms of South Norway, were similarly divided. As such a partition of the land is in England only found in Yorkshire and Lincolnshire (for Lindsey, one of the three "parts" of Lincolnshire, was at the time of Domesday divided into ridings, though the name afterwards dropped out of use), it seems natural to attribute it to the Danish occupation. The loss of the *th* of thrithing may be due to misdivision of the compound words "north-thrithing," &c. At the time of the Conqueror the ridings of Yorkshire and Lincolnshire seem to have had their own moots, though these do not appear later; at present each riding in Yorkshire has its own lord-lieutenant, and is treated as a distinct

county for poor-law purposes. By the Reform Bill of 1832 two members each were given to the east and north ridings and four to the west; this arrangement was modified in 1867, while under the Act of 1885 the west riding returns nineteen members, the north four, the east three.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, i., ch. v.; Robertson, *Scotland under its Early Kings*, ii., 433; Worsaae, *Danes and Northmen*, 158; Cleasby and Vigfusson, *Icel. Dict.*, s. v. *thing* and *thrithungr*; Skeat, *Engl. Dict.* [W. J. A.]

Ridley, Nicolas, Bishop of London (*b.* 1500, *d.* 1555), was educated at Pembroke College, Cambridge, where he gained a fellowship. After studying theology for a couple of years at Paris and Louvain, he returned to Cambridge, and became proctor and public orator. His learning and energy commended him to the notice of Cranmer, whose chaplain he was appointed in 1537, and who speedily obtained for him the mastership of Pembroke, and a royal chaplaincy. In 1547 he became Bishop of Rochester, and took a considerable part in the preparation of Edward VI.'s first Prayer-book, and in carrying out the changes which accompanied it. Upon Bonner's deposition by the Privy Council, Ridley was translated to London (April, 1550). In the same year he is found vainly attempting to convince Joan Bocher of her errors, and assisting in the trial of Gardiner. As in Rochester Cathedral so in St. Paul's, he caused the altars to be destroyed; in St. Paul's he substituted a table for the high altar, and in 1557 placed it in the nave before the screen, setting it with its sides north and south. Like Cranmer and Latimer, he was disgusted by the violence of the council, and in a sermon before the king in 1552 spoke strongly of the distress caused by the seizure of the guild revenues. His fear lest Mary might restore the old worship led him to join in the attempt to secure the throne for Jane Grey, and on July 16, 1553, he preached at St. Paul's Cross that Mary and Elizabeth were bastards, and, therefore, without right to the throne. As soon, however, as Northumberland and the council had declared for Mary, he set out to meet the princess to obtain pardon, but he was taken prisoner at Ipswich, and sent to the Tower. Here he remained some eight months, Bonner meanwhile regaining his bishopric. In April, 1554, he was sent to Oxford, with Cranmer and Latimer, and committed to the charge of one of the aldermen. After being made to appear in a disputation, wherein he denied transubstantiation, and being in consequence excommunicated, he was remitted to custody, and nothing further was done till Sept., 1555, when he was tried for heresy before three bishops, commissioned by Pole as legate. On Oct. 16 he was executed, together with Latimer, in front of Balliol College. One of the most careful modern investigators of the period writes:—"Ridley has left few remains to vindicate the reputation for theological learning which has been demanded for him by modern biographers, but he was a learned man; in his way he was a moderate man, and certainly he was a man of great resolution. His decision of character supported the primate; the gravity of his manners commended him to all who knew him, and he rose into notice at a very opportune time for the credit of the Reformation. But his temper had a vehemence which sometimes betrayed him into rashness, and in his nature there was something of severity, and even of hardness" (Dixon).

Ridley, *Works* (Parker Society); Foxe, *Acts and Monuments*; Blunt, *Reformation of the Church of England*, ii.; Dixon, *History of the Church of England*, ii.

Ridolfi Conspiracy, The (1571), so-called from one of the chief agents, Robert Ridolfi, a Florentine banker residing in London, was a plot formed by the Catholic party in England for the deposition of Elizabeth, and the elevation of Mary Stuart to the throne by the help of Spain, and her marriage to the Duke of Norfolk. The chief conspirator was Leslie, Bishop of Ross, who was in communication with most of the Catholic nobles, whilst the Duke of Norfolk was involved in the scheme apparently against his will. During 1571 frequent negotiations were carried on between Mary Stuart, Philip II., the Duke of Alva, and the Pope. Ridolfi was sent to Madrid to request the aid of Philip, which was at once promised. On his way he had an interview with the Duke of Alva in Brussels, but the messenger conveying the news was arrested at Dover in possession of a packet of treasonable letters. For these letters, however, the Bishop of Ross contrived, by the connivance of Lord Cobham, the warden of the Cinque Ports, to substitute others of a comparatively innocent nature, and although the messenger confessed on the rack that he had received the letters from Ridolfi, and although the Bishop of Ross was arrested, and Mary severely cross-examined, nothing definite was discovered. Suspicion had, however, been aroused, and in Sept., 1571, the whole of the plot was discovered through the instrumentality of a merchant, who had been employed by Norfolk to convey money and letters to his secretaries. Several of the leading conspirators, including the Bishop of Ross, the Earls of Arundel and Southampton, and Lord Lumley, were at once arrested. The bishop made a full confession, and Norfolk, as the centre of the plot, was executed (June, 1572).

Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*

Rievaulx, Aelred of. [Aelred.]

Rigby, Richard (*b.* 1722, *d.* 1788), was the son of a Bedford linen-draper, who had

made a fortune as factor to the South Sea Company. He attached himself in early life to the Prince of Wales, but quarrelled with him before long. The Duke of Bedford became his patron, and on becoming Lord-Lieutenant in 1758, took him to Ireland, as his private secretary, and procured for him the sinecure office of Vice-Treasurer of Ireland with a salary of £3,500, to which he afterwards added the emoluments of the Mastership of the Rolls of that country. On returning from Ireland, the duke had procured the return of Rigby for Tavistock; and when the duke became president of the council in 1763, he procured for his faithful henchman the most lucrative of all offices—the paymastership of the forces. When county meetings were being held on all sides in 1769, to protest against the rejection of Wilkes by Parliament, "Rigby made a summer tour through the east of England, and, by the admission of his opponents, checkmated the party of action in at least three counties." After his patron's death, he succeeded in maintaining his position as "boatswain of the Bloomsbury crew," according to one of the lampoons of the day; and still lived on his sinecure offices. He was, however, disturbed for a moment by being accused in 1778 of appropriating public money, as paymaster-general, though as Lord North's administration had strong reason for not inquiring too deeply into cases of peculation, the matter was allowed to drop. Again, in 1782, when he opposed with imprudent warmth a motion for reconciliation with America, Pitt rebuked him sharply, and told him that the nation was tired of paying him. He lived till 1788, drawing money alike from the revenues of Ireland and England, building up for himself a lasting reputation as the most notable placeman of the age.

Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; Trevelyan, *Early Life of C. J. Fox*; Bedford, *Correspondence*; Junius, *Letters.*

Right, Claim of. [Claim of Right.]

Right, Petition of, The, was the manifesto drawn up by the House of Commons in 1628, in the form of a petition to the king, stating the principles of the Constitution which Charles had broken. The events leading up to the Petition of Right may be briefly summarised. Charles I. had dissolved his first two Parliaments before they had granted any supplies, and, as he was determined to retain his minister, Buckingham, and to carry out his policy of war with France and Spain, he was obliged to have recourse to a loan. Those persons who refused to subscribe were imprisoned, but five of them, of whom one was Sir Thomas Darnel, demanded their habeas corpus. The crown lawyers fell back upon the king's prerogative power to imprison without showing cause whenever he deemed it necessary, and this doctrine was accepted by the judges. When, therefore, a new Parliament met in 1628, it at once began to discuss the recent forced loan and the arbitrary imprisonments. Wentworth, at this time leader of the Commons, proposed that a short bill should be drawn up merely reciting and confirming *Magna Carta*, *De Tallagio*, &c., with the addition of a clause confirming Habeas Corpus; but the king objected so strongly even to this moderate proposal that it was resolved, upon the motion of Coke, that a Petition of Right should be drawn up. Not only would such a petition receive an immediate answer, instead of being sent up at the end of the session and almost certainly rejected by the king when he had gained supplies, but it would contain a definite statement that the king had broken the law. As finally drawn up, the petition demanded "that no man hereafter be compelled to make or yield any *gift*, *loan*, *benevolence*, *tax*, *or such like charge*, without common consent by Act of Parliament"; that no one should be imprisoned without cause shown, and that if imprisoned they should be entitled to their habeas corpus; that soldiers and sailors should not be billeted upon private persons without their consent; and that martial law should be abolished. Of these clauses the first two were far the most important, and it is clear that, however Charles may have abused his power, his predecessors had without remonstrance exercised the right of imprisonment without showing cause. The Lords accepted the measure, after in vain searching for a formula which should allow the king to imprison in cases of real emergency. Meanwhile Denbigh had been unsuccessful at Rochelle, and the king needed supplies. He demanded from the judges "whether, if the king grant the Commons' petition, he did not thereby exclude himself from committing a subject for any time or cause whatsoever without showing a cause." They answered that every Act had its exposition, which can only be by the courts of law as each case occurs, "and, although the petition be granted, there is no fear of conclusion as is intimated in the question." Thereupon the king went to the House, and instead of the usual form of assent, read a meaningless declaration that the statutes should be duly executed. The Commons were bitterly annoyed, and proceeded to attack Buckingham. Charles at last yielded, and gave his assent in the accustomed formula (June 7, 1628). In the next session the Commons renewed the struggle on the ground of Tunnage and Poundage, which had been levied, although no Act had as yet granted it to Charles. Its levy was, they declared, in violation of the Petition of Right. But the words of the petition, interpreted by the usage of the day, certainly did not carry that meaning; and neither the Commons nor the king had the matter in mind when the petition was being discussed. The question became involved

with that of religion, and the struggle on these two points led to the dissolution of 1629.

Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng.*, c. lxi.—lxiii., lxvii.—lxvii. [W. J. A.]

Rights, The Bill of. A committee appointed by the Commons in the Convention of 1689 to consider what measures should be taken to protect liberty against future sovereigns, recommended that the main constitutional principles violated by James II. should be solemnly declared to be the ancient rights of the nation, and also that several new laws should be enacted. It was easy to carry out the former proposal; the latter would be a work of considerable difficulty, and might occupy years. After much discussion, therefore, it was resolved to fill the throne at once, but to insert in the instrument which conferred the crown on William and Mary a declaration of the fundamental principles of the constitution; all questions of further reform were postponed till a more suitable opportunity. Accordingly a committee, presided over by Somers, was appointed to draw up a Declaration of Rights, which, when framed, was accepted by the Lords with some unimportant amendments. On Feb. 13, 1689, this declaration was read before William and Mary, and the crown tendered to them; William, in accepting it, assured the two Houses that his conduct should be governed by those laws which he had himself vindicated. In the December of the same year, the Convention having meanwhile been declared by statute to be a Parliament, the Declaration of Rights was confirmed in the form of a Bill, with certain additions. The Bill of Rights, as finally adopted, was arranged as follows:—

Its first section recited the Declaration of Rights. It began by stating the various acts by which James did "endeavour to subvert and extirpate the Protestant religion, and the laws and liberties of this kingdom," and then, almost in the same words, proceeded to declare: That the pretended power of suspending of laws and the execution of laws, by regal authority without consent of Parliament, is illegal; That the pretended power of dispensing with laws by regal authority, as it hath been assumed and exercised of late, is illegal; That the commission for creating the late court of commissioners for ecclesiastical causes, and all other commissions and courts of the like nature, are illegal and pernicious; That levying of money for or to the use of the crown, by pretence of prerogative without grant of Parliament, for longer time or in any other manner than the same is or shall be granted, is illegal; That it is the right of the subjects to petition the king, and that all commitments or prosecutions for such petitions are illegal; That the raising or keeping a standing army within the kingdom in time of peace, unless it be with consent of Parliament, is against law; That the subjects which are Protestants may have arms for their defence suitable to their condition, and as allowed by law; That election of members of Parliament ought to be free; That the freedom of speech and debates, or proceedings in Parliament, ought not to be impeached or questioned in any court or place out of Parliament; That excessive bail ought not to be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted; That juries ought to be duly impanelled and returned, and that jurors which pass upon men in trials for high treason ought to be freeholders: That all grants and promises of fines and forfeitures of particular persons, before conviction, are illegal and void; And that for redress of all grievances, and for the amending, strengthening, and preserving of the laws, Parliament ought to be held frequently.

The second section declared the resolution of Lords and Commons, that William and Mary should become king and queen, to be succeeded by their lawful issue if there were any such; in default of that by the issue of the Princess Anne, &c. The third contained the new oaths of allegiance and supremacy. The fourth recorded the acceptance of the crown by the prince and princess; who (v.) were pleased that the Lords and Commons should continue to sit and make provision for the settlement of the religion, laws, and liberties of the country. Parliament, therefore, now again (vi.) declares the above to be the indubitable rights of the English people; recognises (vii.) that James having abdicated, William and Mary have become their sovereign lord and lady, and fixes (viii.) the succession as above. The ninth section contains an important addition: as it has been found by experience inconsistent with the safety and welfare of this Protestant kingdom to be governed by a popish prince, or by any king or queen marrying a papist, it is enacted that all persons who shall hold communion with the Church of Rome, or shall marry a papist, shall be excluded from the throne, and the crown shall descend to the next heir. Every king or queen therefore (x.), on the first day of their first Parliament, shall subscribe and audibly repeat the declaration mentioned in the statute 30 Charles II., *i.e.*, the Test Act (a declaration against transubstantiation, adoration of the Virgin, and the sacrifice of the mass). Finally in the twelfth section it is declared that no dispensation by *non obstante* of or to any statute shall be allowed, except such dispensation be allowed in the statute, or shall be specially provided for by one or more bills to be passed during the present session of Parliament. The Lords had already softened the article of the Declaration of Rights against the dispensing power by the insertion of the words "as it hath been exercised of late," and now this last section was added to provide for cases where it might be

desirable that the dispensing power should be used. Though, however, in the next Parliament, the judges were ordered by the House of Lords to draft a bill for this purpose, the matter dropped. [REVOLUTION].

Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*, ch. x.; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*, ch. xv. [W.J.A.]

Rinuccini, GIOVANNI BATTISTA, Archbishop of Fermo, was sent to Ireland in 1644 as the Pope's nuncio, with a supply of arms and money. He opposed Glamorgan's treaty in 1645, and the Dublin treaty of 1646. In 1648 he opposed Lord Inchiquin's armistice, and after an unsuccessful tenure of office as president of the Kilkenny Council, fled to Owen Roe O'Neil, and then to Galway. He was recalled in 1649.

Riot Act, THE (1715), was passed at a time when there were apprehensions of Jacobite risings. If twelve persons continued together for one hour after a proclamation bidding them disperse has been made to them by the magistrate, they were guilty of felony. The magistrate was required to apprehend persons refusing to disperse, and those who acted at his orders were indemnified for any injury which they might commit. This practically meant that an hour after the proclamation the military might be ordered to fire on the mob, or charge them. The question afterwards arose as to the legality of military interference without the order of a magistrate. It was decided by Lord Mansfield in a case arising out of the Gordon Riots in 1780, that it is the duty of every subject to resist persons engaged in treasonable or riotous conduct, and that this duty is not less imperative upon soldiers than upon civilians. This decision was confirmed in 1831 in a case arising from the Bristol Riots.

Ripon, FREDERICK JOHN ROBINSON, EARL OF (*b.* 1782, *d.* 1859), was the second son of Lord Grantham. Entering Parliament as member for Ripon in 1807, he received office under Perceval as Under Secretary for the Colonies, and became in 1818 President of the Board of Trade. Created Chancellor of the Exchequer in 1823, he assisted Huskisson in his free trade measures, was made Secretary for the Colonies and Viscount Goderich in 1827, and was for a few months Prime Minister after Canning's death. From 1830 to 1833 he was again Colonial Secretary, becoming in the latter year Lord Privy Seal and Earl of Ripon. Though he afterwards became President of the Board of Trade under Peel, he had ceased to be of any political importance.

Ripon, GEORGE FREDERICK SAMUEL ROBINSON, 1ST MARQUIS OF (*b.* 1827, *d.* 1909), succeeded to the earldom of Grey and Ripon in 1859, and was created Marquis of Ripon in 1871. From 1859 to 1863 he was Secretary for War and (for a short time) for India, from 1863 to 1866 War Secretary, and from 1868 to 1873 President of the Council. He was Governor-General of India 1880 to 1884, First Lord of the Admiralty for a few months in 1886, and Colonial Secretary 1892 to 1895. He was Lord Privy Seal and leader of the House of Lords from 1906 to 1908.

Ripon, THE TREATY OF (1640), concluded the second Scotch war. After the successful invasion of the northern counties, the Council of Peers, assembled at York by Charles I., resolved, on the motion of Lord Bristol, to appoint sixteen commissioners to treat with the Scots (Sept. 24). The first negotiations lasted Oct. 2–26. A cessation of arms was agreed upon, the two northern counties remaining in the possession of the Scots, who were to receive from the contributions of the inhabitants £850 a day for their maintenance. Further negotiations were removed to London, where peace was concluded in Aug., 1641.

Rishanger, WILLIAM (*d.* ? 1312), was a monk of St. Albans, who continued the *Chronicle* of Matthew Paris from 1272 to 1306, the intermediate portion, from 1253 to 1272, being the work of an unknown author. He also wrote an account of the Barons' War, and a Life of Edward I. Though inferior to Matthew Paris, Rishanger takes high place among mediæval chroniclers.

His *Chronicle* has been published in the Rolls Series, and his *Wars of the Barons* by the Camden Society. For the vexed question of the authorship of the St. Alban's *Chronicles* from 1253 to 1272, *see* Sir T. Hardy, *Descriptive Catalogue*, on the one side, and Mr. Gairdner, *Early Chroniclers*, on the other.

Rivers, ANTHONY WOODVILLE, EARL (*d.* 1483), was the son of the first Earl Rivers, and brother-in-law of Edward IV. He married the daughter and heiress of Lord Scales, and in 1462 was summoned to Parliament as Baron Scales. He took part in the siege of Alnwick, and in 1470 accompanied Edward in his flight to the Netherlands, returning with him in the next year. In 1469, by the death of his father, he became Earl Rivers. He received many honours from Edward, and, among other offices, held that of Captain-General of the Forces. On the death of Edward IV., he was appointed one of the Council of Regency during the minority of his son, but the jealousy of the old nobility favoured Gloucester's designs, and Rivers was seized at Northampton and carried to Pontefract, where he was beheaded.

Rivers, RICHARD WOODVILLE, EARL (*d.* 1469), was one of Henry V.'s esquires, and was made by him seneschal, and in 1424 Governor of the Tower of London. He fought in the French wars in Henry VI.'s reign, and married Jaquetta of Luxemburg, widow of the Duke of Bedford. For this clandestine marriage he was fined a thousand pounds, but was soon afterwards restored to

favour, and in 1448 made Baron Rivers. In the Wars of the Roses he fought on the Lancastrian side, but in 1464 his daughter Elizabeth, who was the widow of Sir John Grey, was secretly married to the young king, Edward IV. By his son-in-law Rivers was raised to high honours, made Constable of England, and in 1466 created Earl Rivers, and his sons received equal advantages from their connection with the sovereign. The Woodvilles were hated by the old nobility on account of their rapid rise, while the people complained of their avarice. In 1469 a rebellion broke out, headed by Sir William Conyers, the insurgents complaining of the influence of the queen's friends. Having defeated the Royal troops at Edgecote, the rebels seized Earl Rivers and his son, and put them to death at Coventry.

Rizzio, David, a native of Turin, became musician to Mary, Queen of Scots, and soon afterwards her private secretary. The queen's favour quickly rendered its recipient odious to the Scotch nobles, who banded themselves together against him, and were aided by Darnley, who had become jealous of the Italian. On March 9, 1566, Holyrood Palace, where Rizzio was at the time, was surrounded by an armed force under Lord Morton. Others of the conspirators, chief of whom was Lord Ruthven, entered the queen's apartment at the instigation of Darnley, and dragged her favourite from her presence. He was despatched in Darnley's room, and with Darnley's sword, though not by his hand. It is extremely improbable that Rizzio was, as Darnley coarsely insinuated, the queen's paramour, or that he was any more than a confidential friend and faithful servant. His worst faults, in the eyes of the conspirators, were his arrogance and his religion.

Mignet, *Marie Stuart;* Hosack, *Mary, Queen of Scots.*

Robert I., King of Scotland. [Bruce.]

Robert II., King of Scotland (*s.* 1371, *d.* 1390), the first of the Stuart dynasty, was the son of Walter, Lord High Steward of Scotland, and Marjory, daughter of Robert Bruce. On the death of David II. without children, Robert, then 55 years old, succeeded to the throne unopposed. In early life, as Steward of Scotland, he had done good service against the English; had been present at the battle of Hallidon Hill, and had long acted as regent of Scotland. He married first Elizabeth Mure of Rowallan and secondly Euphemia Ross. In 1375 an Act of Parliament settled the crown on the king's sons by his first wife, a measure rendered necessary by the fact that these children were by ecclesiastical law illegitimate. England at this time was not in a position to be aggressive, and, although the usual border raids continued, Robert's reign was on the whole a peaceful one. A close alliance with France at the beginning of the reign, however, led in 1385 to a French army being sent to Scotland with the view of attacking England from the north. The usual course of border devastation followed; but the French, dissatisfied with their reception by the Scotch, soon returned home. In 1388 an invasion of England was planned, resulting in the defeat of the English under the Percies at Otterburn. In 1390 Robert died, "leaving the character of a peaceful ruler over a quarrelsome people."

Burton, *Hist. of Scotland.*

Robert III., King of Scotland (*s.* 1390, *d.* 1406). He was a man of weak and indolent character, ill fitted to cope with the turbulent spirits of the age. The early years of his reign were disturbed by quarrels amongst the Highland clans and by lawlessness in the Lowlands to such an extent that in 1398 the Scotch Parliament appointed the Duke of Rothesay, his eldest son, lieutenant of the kingdom. In 1400, Henry IV. of England invaded Scotland with the intention of exacting homage from Robert; he failed, however, to take Edinburgh Castle, and retreated without effecting anything. An invasion of England by the Scots was repelled by the Percies at Homildon Hill (1402). On the capture of his son, Prince James, by the English, Robert died, it is said of a broken heart.

Robert (*b.* 1054, *d.* 1134), Duke of Normandy, called Curthose on account of his short stature, was the eldest son of William the Conqueror. In 1073 he was made Count of Maine, which was to be held as a fief of Anjou. In 1077 he rebelled against his father and demanded the Duchy of Normandy. War ensued between father and son; after the Battle of Gerberoi in 1080, peace was made, and the succession to Normandy secured to Robert. On the death of his father he claimed the English throne, but William Rufus's prompt action disconcerted him, and he was obliged to make a treaty by which the survivor was to succeed to the other's dominions if either died without heirs. In 1094 Robert again made war upon William, but shortly afterwards, being eager to join the first Crusade, he pledged Normandy to his brother for the sum of £6,000. In the Holy Land Robert fought with great bravery, and was offered but refused the crown of Jerusalem. Soon after his return he learnt that William was dead, and determined to enforce his claims to the throne. He invaded England in 1101, but was induced by Henry to make a compromise whereby he resigned the crown of England and contented himself with the full possession of Normandy and 3,000 marks a year. Quarrels soon broke out again between the brothers, Henry complaining that the rebellious English nobles found a shelter in Normandy. A war ensued

in which Henry won the battle of Tenchebrai in 1106 and took Robert prisoner. He was sent to the castle of Cardiff, where he was kept in captivity till his death in 1135. By his marriage with Sibyl, daughter of the Count of Conversane, Robert had two children, William Clito and Henry.

Freeman, *Norman Conquest*; Ordericus Vitalis, *Hist. Eccles.*

Robert of Avesbury, keeper of the register of the court of the Archbishop of Canterbury, wrote a *Historia de Mirabilibus Gestis Eduardi III.*, which, after briefly mentioning the deposition of Edward II., gives the history of his son down to the battle of Poitiers. This work is particularly valuable for the original documents it contains.

Robert of Jumièges, Archbishop of Canterbury 1051 — 1052, was a Norman who, after having been Prior of St. Ouen's at Rouen, became Abbot of Jumièges in 1037. Edward the Confessor formed a close friendship with him during his stay in Normandy, and two years after his return (1044) conferred upon him the bishopric of London —the first occupation of an English see by a foreigner since the Conversion. He at once became the leader of the French party at Edward's court, and the great enemy of Godwin and his family. In 1050, upon the death of Archbishop Eadsige, the monks of Christ Church elected in his place Aelfric, a kinsman of Godwin. The king, however, nominated Robert of London, and henceforth the latter's one object was to bring about the fall of Godwin, whose opposition to the French party had been embittered by this frustration of his kinsman's hopes as well as by Robert's refusal to consecrate the Englishman Spearhafoc to the see which he himself had left vacant. The archbishop claimed for the Church certain lands held by the earl, and even renewed the old accusation against him of complicity in the murder of Edward's brother, Alfred. The attack of the men of Dover upon the escort of Eustace of Boulogne and Godwin's refusal to punish them gave Robert his opportunity. By his advice Godwin was summoned before the Witan to answer charges old and new. With Godwin's outlawry the archbishop's triumph seemed complete (September, 1051). Spearhafoc was deposed, and a Norman became Bishop of London; and, what was still more important, William of Normandy was invited to England. But in September, 1052, Godwin returned, and the nation declared in his favour. Robert dared not remain in England, and with Ulf, Bishop of Rochester, fled to Jumièges, where he died in 1058. He was immediately outlawed by the Witan and deprived of his bishopric.

English Chronicle; William of Malmesbury; Hook, *Archbishops of Canterbury*; Freeman, *Norman Conquest*. [W. J. A.]

Roberts of Kandahar and Pretoria, Fredrick Sleigh, 1st Earl of (*b.* 1832), entered the Bengal Army in 1851, and distinguished himself in the Indian Mutiny, gaining the Victoria Cross. After further service in Abyssinia and in South-East Bengal, he successfully commanded the Kurum Valley column in the Afghan War of 1878. In his second campaign (1879–80) he made his celebrated march upon Kandahar. For this he was created a baronet and G.C.B. In 1885 he became Commander-in-Chief in India, was elevated to the peerage in 1892, resigned his command in 1893, and was appointed Commander-in-Chief in Ireland, with the rank of Field-Marshal, in 1895. In 1900 he commanded the army in South Africa. In 1901 he was made Commander-in-Chief (a position he held until the abolition of the office in 1904), created earl, and received the Garter.

Lord Roberts's autobiography, *Forty-one Years in India*, was published in 1897.

Robin Hood, the hero of a cycle of popular ballads, according to tradition an outlaw commanding a band of freebooters in Sherwood forest in the reign of Richard I. Stow, writing in 1590, and doubtless giving the popular story, tells us that "he suffered no woman to be oppressed . . . . poor men's goods he spared, abundantly relieving them with that which by theft he got from the abbeys, and the houses of rich old carles." It is, however, doubtful at what time he lived, or, indeed, whether he existed at all. No contemporary historian mentions him: he is first alluded to in *Piers the Ploughman*, and the earliest chronicle which speaks of him is the *Scotichronicon* (of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries). An inscription is said to have been found on a tomb at Kirklees in Yorkshire in which he is called Earl of Huntingdon, and the date of his death is given as 1247; but this is apocryphal. Thierry thought he was chief of a Saxon band warring against the Norman oppressor; Grimm that he was purely mythical. He has been identified with a "Robyn Hod" who served as "porteur" to Edward II. in 1223, but the evidence is very weak. The earliest ballads concerning him date from Edward III.; Wynkyn de Worde published the *Lytel Geste of Robin Hood* in 1495.

Robin of Redesdale. In 1469 an insurrection took place in Yorkshire, caused by a dispute about tithes due to the hospital of St. Leonard at York, which was led by Robert Hilyard, called Robin of Redesdale. This rebellion was suppressed by Lord Montague. Taking advantage of the discontent existing among the commons of the north, Sir William Conyers, adopting the name of Robin of Redesdale, succeeded in raising a force, estimated at 60,000 men, in the summer of the same year. They published a

manifesto charging the king with misgovernment, and demanding reform. This revolt was probably instigated by Warwick; it was certainly approved, supported, and made use of by Clarence and the Nevilles. The king's forces were defeated at Edgecote, near Banbury, the king's adherents, such as William Herbert, Earl of Pembroke, Humphry Stafford, Lord Rivers, and others, seized and beheaded, and the king himself became the prisoner of the Archbishop of York, and was obliged to issue a general pardon.

Robinson, Sir Hercules G. R., Bart. (*b.* 1824, *d.* 1897), son of the late Admiral Robinson, of Westmeath, became President of Montserrat in 1854, Lieutenant-Governor of St. Christopher's in 1855, Governor of Hong Kong in 1859, of Ceylon in 1865, of New South Wales in 1872, of New Zealand in 1878, and of the Cape in 1880. In 1881 he presided over the Commission which settled affairs in the Transvaal, and acquired such popularity, both with the Boers and in Cape Colony, that, although he had retired in 1889, he was prevailed upon to return to South Africa as High Commissioner and Governor of the Cape, in 1895. The skill and firmness with which he dealt with the crisis arising out of the Jameson raid were generally admired. He was created Lord Rosmead in 1896, and retired from office in 1897.

Robinson, John, Bishop of Bristol, and afterwards of London (*b.* 1650, *d.* 1723), went in 1685 as chaplain to the English embassy in Sweden, where he stayed more than a quarter of a century, and filled the posts, during the absence of the ambassador, first of resident and afterwards of envoy extraordinary. Anne rewarded his political services and good churchmanship with the deanery of Windsor and the bishopric of Bristol. Upon the accession to office of the Tory ministry (1711), and the sudden deaths of the Duke of Newcastle and the Earl of Jersey, to whom the Privy Seal had been offered, the vacant place was conferred on Robinson, the last churchman to hold political office. Next year he was appointed English plenipotentiary, together with the Earl of Strafford, at the Congress of Utrecht, and signed the treaty on March 31, 1713. On the death of Compton, 1714, he became Bishop of London.

Robinson, Sir Thomas, a politician of little ability, who having been minister at Vienna for twenty years, and being acceptable to George II. on account of his sympathy with the king's German policy, was chosen by the Duke of Newcastle, on the death of his brother Henry Pelham, to act as leader of the House of Commons, with the office of Secretary of State. "The Duke," said Pitt to Fox, "might as well send his jack-boot to lead us." In 1755 Robinson retired to his former office of Master of the Wardrobe with a pension of £2,000 on the Irish establishment. In 1761 he was raised to the peerage as Lord Grantham.

Rob Roy, Macgregor Campbell (*b.* 1665, *d.* 1735), was at first a grazier, but entering upon large speculations in cattle-breeding had ill-luck, and finally absconded with money borrowed from the Duke of Montrose, who thereupon seized his small estate. Rob Roy gained the patronage of the Duke of Argyle, and proceeded to wage a predatory warfare against Montrose, and also against all favourers of the union with England. He took part in the rising of 1715 and was attainted, but evaded capture.

Robsart, Amy or Anne, the daughter of Sir John Robsart, married in 1549 Lord Robert Dudley, afterwards Earl of Leicester, by whom she is said to have been murdered at Cumnor, near Oxford, in 1560. The charge against her husband cannot be proved, and it is probable that the crime was committed by some of the earl's friends, who thought to derive benefit from his marriage with Queen Elizabeth, which, it was believed, would at once take place were he free.

Rochelle, Expeditions to. In 1625 Rochelle, the chief stronghold of the Huguenots in the south of France, had rebelled against Louis XIII., but had made terms in the beginning of 1626. James I., who understood that Richelieu represented not the principle of religious intolerance, but that of national union, had promised to lend a certain number of English ships to assist in the attack. But on the accession of Charles an attempt was made to escape from this promise, and though the English government were outwitted, and the ships were actually used against the town, the French king was annoyed by Charles's action. The dismissal of Henrietta Maria's attendants, and the attitude of protector of the Protestants assumed by Charles in his proposals of mediation, led to a declaration of war between England and France. In 1627 Buckingham commanded an expedition to Rhé, where he landed in July. [Rhé.] In May of the next year another English fleet was sent, under Denbigh, to attempt the relief of the town, which was now blockaded by land and sea. But the English ships were unable to break through the barrier of palisades and vessels, and returned in May. In spite of the death of Buckingham another attempt was made in September. But there was no enthusiasm in the fleet, and the commander Lindsey could do nothing. Charles declared he would renew his efforts, but the Rochellese were now starving, and capitulated on October 18.

Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng.*, vi.; Martin, *Hist. of France*, xi.

Roches, Peter des (*d.* 1238), Bishop of Winchester, was a Poitevin friend of John. appointed Justiciar of England on the death of

Geoffrey Fitz-Peter, in 1213. It was he who anointed and crowned Henry III. at Gloucester three years later, and who was associated with the Earl of Pembroke and Gualo the Legate as chief councillors to the young king. On the death of the above-mentioned earl (1219) Peter des Roches seems to have become guardian of the royal person and president of the council; but he soon showed that his policy was at variance with that of his predecessor, as he steadily set himself to support the foreign influence which Langton and the Justiciar had opposed so vigorously. He was soon looked upon as the head of the party of the strangers, and persuaded its members to resist the resumption of the royal desmesne that Hubert de Burgh was striving to accomplish. But in this he was unsuccessful, and was soon forced to go abroad, on pretence of joining a crusade (1221). Three years later his power was still further reduced by the fall of Falkes de Breauté, but only for a time. The young king, however, seems to have continued under the tutelage of Peter des Roches till 1227, when he announced his intention of ruling himself, and his late governor departed on another crusade, from which he did not return till 1231. But on the Bishop of Winchester's return, all his old influence revived; the king, at his instigation, dismissed his old ministers on the plea of peculation, and Hubert de Burgh suffered imprisonment and forfeiture. The new councillor, however, was soon overthrown; the barons, headed by the Earl Marshal, refused to meet him, and the bishops threatened him with excommunication. On the death of that nobleman, Edmund Rich, Archbishop of Canterbury, declared himself ready to excommunicate even the king; and then Henry at last gave way. Peter des Roches was confined to his spiritual duties, and his friends fell with him (1234).

Matthew Paris; Pauli, *Geschichte von England*.

Rochester early gained importance, during the Roman occupation, as commanding the point where the main high road of South-Eastern England, that from Richborough to London, passed the Medway. So strongly was it fortified that the Jutes seem not to have ventured upon attacking it until they had conquered the rest of Kent. It is possible that Rochester was the capital of a West Kentish kingdom dependent upon the King of East Kent, a relation reflected in the dependence of the Bishop of Rochester on the see of Canterbury. The dedication of the church of Rochester to St. Andrew may possibly be due to the fact that it was from the monastery of St. Andrew at Rome that Augustine came. The town walls were strong enough to resist Ethelred, when in 986 he attempted to punish the inhabitants for sedition; and also withstood an attack of the Danes. The cathedral was rebuilt by Bishop Gundulf, in the reign of Rufus, and, in spite of later additions, remains one of the smallest of English cathedral churches. Within the town walls, upon a cliff overlooking the Medway, had very early risen a fortress of earthwork and timber, and here Gundulf built for Rufus a castle of stone. It was probably the earlier fortress which was occupied by Odo of Bayeux, when in 1088 he declared for Robert of Normandy against Rufus. The tower, which was built by Archbishop Walter of Corbeuil in the reign of Henry I., is one of the finest examples of Norman military architecture, and was in vain besieged in 1215 by John, and in 1264 by De Montfort. It was, however, taken by the peasantry in the revolt of 1381.

Freeman, *William Rufus*, i., p. 54, gives a map of the town in the eleventh century.

[W. J. A.]

Rochester, Lawrence Hyde, Earl of, the second son of the great Earl of Clarendon, became First Lord of the Treasury in Nov., 1679. He energetically defended the Duke of York during the struggle over the Exclusion Bill, and was rewarded by being created Viscount Hyde in 1681, and Earl of Rochester in 1682. He was in favour of a return to the foreign policy of the earlier years of the reign, a close alliance with France, while Halifax advocated the policy of the Triple Alliance. The influence of Halifax was the stronger, and Rochester was removed from the Treasury in 1684. But shortly afterwards Charles died; James at once created his brother-in-law Lord Treasurer, and he became practically Prime Minister. But Rochester, though ready to go far in the direction of despotic government, was strongly attached to the English Church, and by no means inclined to support James in his measures for the restoration of Catholicism. A struggle for office ensued between Rochester and the more pliant Sunderland, and when the former definitely refused to change his religion he was dismissed (1687). In 1700 William thought it necessary to court the support of the High Church party, and called its leader, Rochester, to the cabinet. In the same year he was made Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland. Dissatisfied with the admission of a few Whigs into the first ministry of Anne, he came over from Ireland and strenuously opposed the carrying on of the war with France. He was ordered to return to Ireland, refused to do so, and sent in his resignation in 1703. In 1710 he became Lord President in Harley's ministry, and died in 1711.

A sketch of his character is given by Macaulay, ch. ii.

Rochford, George Boleyn, Baron, was ennobled immediately after the marriage of his sister Anne with Henry VIII. In 1536 he was accused of immoral intercourse with his sister, and executed on May 17. His wife was executed with Katherine Howard (Feb.

13, 1542), on the charge of having been an accomplice in that queen's treason.

Rockingham, Charles Watson Wentworth, Marquis of (*b.* 1730, *d.* 1782), succeeded his father in the marquisate in 1750, and was in the following year appointed Lord Lieutenant of the North and West Ridings of Yorkshire. From his great wealth and influential position, rather than on account of any great ability, he was early recognised as one of the chiefs of the Whig party. When George III. succeeded to the throne, and displayed his intention of freeing himself from the Whig control, the Marquis of Rockingham, with the rest of his party, found himself in opposition alike to the ministry and the court, and was one of those dismissed from their lord-lieutenancies in 1762. On the death of the Duke of Devonshire in 1764, Rockingham was at once acknowledged as the leader of the Whig party; and in 1765 the king, unable any longer to endure the haughty independence of Grenville, threw himself into the arms of Rockingham. The king, however, never intended to entrust the government of the country for any length of time to a minister whose principles differed from his own on every point, and soon began to thwart the government in every measure by a secret and thoroughly organised opposition. In spite of this, the marquis managed to carry some beneficial measures. He soothed the ill-feeling which had been aroused in the American colonies by the Stamp Act, by repealing the obnoxious measure; and at home he passed an Act declaring general warrants illegal. But circumstances were too strong for him. He was always a bad speaker, and had thus failed to acquire much personal influence in Parliament, or to offer any effectual opposition to the secret influence of the court party. In May, 1766, he resigned, and for the next sixteen years remained out of office. He offered all the opposition in his power to the ruinous policy which Lord North pursued towards the colonies, and gave what aid he could to Wilkes in his struggle against the tyranny of the House of Commons on the question of the Middlesex election. By his consistent conduct and unfailing integrity he held his party together through a long period of opposition, until, on North's resignation, he for the second time became Prime Minister in March, 1782. He formed a cabinet which had all the elements of strength and apparently of permanence. Negotiations with the American colonies were opened on a broad and liberal basis, which soon resulted in a peace between the two countries. Burke introduced a large scheme of economical reform; but death prevented the execution of the liberal plans which had been the programme of the administration.

Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; Albemarle, *Rockingham and his Contemporaries*; Walpole, *Memoirs of George III.* [S. J. L.]

Rockingham, The Council of (Mar. 11—14, 1095), was held to discuss the question whether Anselm could acknowledge Urban II. as pope, in spite of the refusal of Rufus to recognise either of the contending pontiffs. Anselm himself had asked that a council should meet to decide whether obedience to Urban was consistent with allegiance to William; if it decided against him, he declared he would leave the kingdom. Rufus consented to summon a council of magnates, which met in the castle of Rockingham, in Northamptonshire. But when it had come together, the king's party, including most of the bishops, led by William of St. Calais, carefully evaded the real point at issue, and persisted in treating Anselm as a person on trial. Anselm rejected their advice to submit entirely to the king, and, greatly to the disgust of Rufus, who had been promised by his bishops that Anselm would easily be crushed, the laymen present distinctly showed their sympathy with the archbishop. Rufus vented his spite upon the prelates by demanding that they should abjure all obedience to Anselm, and those who would not go further than to abjure such obedience as was claimed by the pope's authority could only re-win the royal favour by heavy bribes. Finally the king yielded to the proposal of the lay lords, and the discussion was adjourned till May 20. But before that date the legate, Walter of Albano, had induced Rufus to acknowledge Urban.

A detailed account of the Council, based on Eadmer, is given in Freeman, *W. Rufus*, i., ch. iv., § 4. [W. J. A.]

Rodney, George Brydges, Lord (*b.* 1719, *d.* 1792), entered the navy when very young, and in 1742 attained the rank of captain. In 1747 he commanded the *Eagle* in the action off Cape Finisterre. Two years later he was appointed Governor of Newfoundland. On the breaking out of war with France in 1757 he was fully occupied, and served under Hawke and Boscawen on the French coast. In 1759 he was promoted to be rear-admiral of the Blue, and made a most daring and successful raid upon the stores which had been collected in Havre with a view to the invasion of England. In 1761 he was on the West India station. On the conclusion of the war he was made a baronet, and four years later became Master of Greenwich Hospital. In 1768 he was returned, after a very severe contest, for Northampton, and his resources were so crippled that he had to retire to France to retrench. While residing there, according to a very doubtful story, offers were made by the French to tempt him to desert his country; but he rejected them. On his return in 1778 he was promoted to be an admiral. It was not, however, till the following year that he obtained active employment as commander on the Leeward Isles station. On his way to that station, he conducted a convoy of sup-

plies to Gibraltar, which was then in the midst of its long siege. While in charge of this convoy, he captured off Cape Finisterre, on Jan. 8, 1780, a valuable fleet of Spanish merchantmen on their way to Cadiz, and a week later encountered a powerful Spanish fleet, which he totally defeated. On his return to England, he was received with loud acclamations, and was returned with Fox to Parliament for Westminster. Early in 1781 he was ordered to the West Indies, and captured St. Eustatia; but, failing to induce the French admiral, De Grasse, to try an engagement, he returned to England. Being appointed Vice-Admiral of Great Britain, he shortly afterwards sailed again for the West Indies. At length, on April 5, 1782, he obtained his long-wished-for opportunity of meeting De Grasse, who sailed out in the hope of effecting a junction with the French and Spanish fleets at Hispaniola. Rodney pursued, and, after a partial engagement, succeeded in overhauling the French fleet between Guadaloupe and Dominique. The fight on April 10 was gallantly contested, but the English victory was decisive. One of the French ships was sunk, and five others were taken. Rodney returned to England, to receive the title of Baron Rodney and a pension of £2,000 per annum. He survived his accession to these honours ten years. Like Nelson, he was not more brave than kind, and was almost as much beloved by his men.

Munday, *Life of Rodney*; Allen, *Naval Battles*.

Roebuck, John Arthur (*b.* 1801, *d.* 1879), was born at Madras, and in 1831 was called to the bar at the Inner Temple. Soon afterwards he entered Parliament as member for Bath, quickly making his mark as an incisive though often bitter debater. He several times lost and regained his seat, until in 1849 he was elected for Sheffield, which he represented with but one break (1868 to 1874) up to his death. His greatest political achievement was when, in 1855, by a majority of 157, and in spite of the opposition of the Aberdeen Government, he carried a motion for a committee to inquire into the conduct of the Crimean War, and was appointed its chairman. An advanced Radical, he always maintained his independence, and eventually diverged widely from the rest of his party. His Life was published at the end of 1897.

Roger, Bishop of Salisbury, was a poor priest of Caen, who, winning the favour of the Ætheling Henry by the rapidity with which he performed mass, became his chaplain and private adviser. When Henry gained the English throne, Roger became Chancellor, in 1107 Bishop of Salisbury, and at the same time Justiciar. "Under his guidance, whether as chancellor or as justiciar, the whole administrative system was remodelled, and the jurisdiction of the Curia Regis and Exchequer carefully organised" (Stubbs). He swore to the succession of Matilda, though, according to the account he afterwards gave, only on condition that she should not be married to any foreigner without consent of the magnates. Stephen had little difficulty in gaining his support and the royal treasure which he guarded. But in a short time the king began to be jealous of his great minister. Roger and his family monopolised all the important offices in the administration. Moreover, Roger and his nephews had been building great castles in their diocese, the most important being those of Roger at Sherborne and Devizes. In June, 1139, Stephen caused Roger and other members of the family to be arrested at Oxford, and they were not released until the castles had been surrendered. This action on the part of Stephen led at once to the break-up of the administration, and was one of the main causes of the king's later difficulties. Roger died in Dec. (1139).

Dialogus de Scaccario, i; William of Newburgh, i., 6; William of Malmesbury, *Gesta Regum*, v., 408; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, i. §§ 111, 114, 120; Freeman, *Norm. Conq.*, v.

[W. J. A.]

Roger of Pontigny, the possible author of a certain anonymous life of Becket. It was ascribed to Roger, and printed under his name by Dr. Giles (1845-6), because the author speaks of himself as having ministered to Becket at the time of his exile; while another contemporary writer says that a monk named Roger was the minister of Becket while at Pontigny. But the life gives no such information as could be derived from close personal knowledge, and becomes slighter and not more detailed on reaching the settlement at Pontigny.

It was edited by Canon Robertson for the Rolls Series, in 1879, in volume iv. of *Materials for History of Becket*.

Rohilcund was so called from the Afghan Rohillas, who took possession of the country under Ali Mohammed Khan in the first half of the eighteenth century. About 1770 the Rohillas were unable to pay the Vizier of Oudh some forty lakhs, for which he had become security to buy off the Mahrattas. The vizier gained the loan of an English force from Warren Hastings, with which the country was conquered. In 1801 a large part was ceded to England, instead of the tribute which the vizier had bound himself to pay. Rohilcund is now a commissionership in the North West Provinces.

Rohilla Wars. [Rohilcund.]

Rolls, The Master of the. John of Langton was the first person who bore the title "Keeper of the Rolls of Chancery" (1256), though the office had doubtless been some time in existence. At first the Keeper or Master was merely the most important of the clerks of Chancery. As such he naturally

had custody of the Great Seal during the absence of the Chancellor from court. With the fall of the Justiciar from his high political position, his place was taken by the Chancellor, his judicial duties being gradually devolved upon the Master, who began to sit in Chancery and to transact most of the ordinary business of the court. Thus almost all the legal work of the first lay Chancellor, Bourchier (1340—41), was done by the Master, though in important matters the Chancellor insisted on acting himself. The Masters of the Rolls were often also Masters of the House of Converts (for Jews) in what is now Chancery Lane. At the end of the reign of Edward III., the mastership of this house was permanently annexed to the office. In the reign of Richard II. the Master for the first time received his office, "quamdiu bene se gesserit," and by the statute of 12 Richard II. he was given precedence before the judges. In modern times his duties have been defined by an Act of 1833, and by the Supreme Judicature Acts of 1873 and 1875.

Foss, *Judges of England.*

Rolls Series is the name usually given to the collection known officially as *Chronicles and Memorials of Great Britain and Ireland during the Middle Ages.* As early as 1822 the House of Commons urged, in an address to George IV., the advisability of publishing "a complete edition of the ancient historians of this realm." But nothing resulted from this address till 1857, when the government accepted a scheme laid before them in that year by the Master of the Rolls, Lord Romilly. The plan of the volumes is summed up in Lord Romilly's proposal "that each chronicle and historical document should be edited in such a manner as to represent with all possible correctness the text of each writer . . . and that no notes should be added except such as were illustrative of the various readings . . . that the preface to each work should contain a biographical account of the author . . . and an estimate of his historical credibility and value." The series now includes editions by the most competent of English scholars of the chief mediæval chroniclers of England, including works of Hoveden, Matthew Paris, Roger of Wendover, Simeon of Durham, Henry of Huntingdon, Giraldus Cambrensis, the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, such public records as the Muniments of the Guildhall of London, and the Black Book of the Admiralty, and miscellaneous collections, such as Mr. Brewer's *Monumenta Franciscana* and Mr. Anstey's *Munimenta Academica.* In many cases the value of the text is increased by most learned, luminous, critical or historical introductions by the editors. The whole work has been published in a manner in the highest degree creditable to English scholarship. Its value to the student cannot be overestimated.

Many of the works published in the Rolls Series will be found specified, with the letters (R.S.) appended, under AUTHORITIES.

Roman Roads, THE, were perhaps the most durable of the memorials which the Romans left behind them in Britain. Their occupation of the island was primarily of a military character, and the extreme importance of establishing easy means of communication between the various garrisons led to the gradual establishment of a very complete system of roads. The method of their construction largely varies with the nature of the country traversed. But they were uniformly raised above the surface of the neighbouring land, and ran in a straight line, almost regardless of hills, from station to station. The more important lines were very elaborately constructed with a foundation of hard earth, a bed of large stones, sometimes two more layers of stones and mortar, and of gravel, lime, and clay, and above all the causeway paved with stones. The width was generally about fifteen feet, and at regular intervals were posting stations. The distance was regularly marked off by mile-stones. The principal Roman roads were used for traffic many centuries after the Romans had abandoned the island. During the Middle Ages they were perhaps the only good roads in the country. In the eleventh century, the "four Roman roads" (Watling Street, the Foss Way, Icknield Street, and Ermine Street) were specially protected by the king's peace: a privilege afterwards extended to all the highways of the country. Of these Watling Street probably ran from London to Wroxeter (Uriconium). The Peace of Wedmore made it the boundary between Alfred's dominions and the Danelagh. Its northward and westward continuations from Wroxeter into Wales, its southern connection between London and Dover, seem also to have received the same name. The Foss ran from the seacoast at Seaton in Devonshire, the Roman Maridunum, to Lincoln, with a continuation known as High Street to the Humber. The Icknield Way seems to have extended from east to west from Iclingham near Bury, underneath the chalk-ridge of the Chilterns and Berkshire downs, to near Wantage, and thence to Cirencester and Gloucester. The Ermine Street ran north and south through the Fenland from London to Lincoln. Besides the four great lines, "spacious in their dimensions, admirable for their construction, protected alike by the edicts of our kings, and the written laws of the land," as Henry of Huntingdon says, were many scarcely subordinate ones. There were several Icknield Streets. Akeman Street ran from Bath, north-east by Cirencester, through Wychwood Forest and Blenheim to Alcester and Watling Street. One great road ran from the Land's

End to Exeter in continuation of the Foss. Another ran from Venta Silurum to near St. David's Head; another to the Sarn Helen up the western Welsh coast to Carnarvon.

Dr. Guest, *Four Roman Ways*, republished in *Origines Celticæ*, vol. ii.; Burton, *Itinera of Antoninus*; Elton, *Origins of English History*; Scarth, *Roman Britain*. [T. F. T.]

Romans in Britain. Direct intercourse between the Romans and Britons began with the two expeditions of Julius Cæsar in B.C. 55 and 54, but he rather prepared the way for future conquest, by exacting the submission of the tribes of the south-east, than began the conquest himself. Though British kings sought the protection of Augustus, it was reserved for Claudius to add Britain to the Empire. The campaign of Aulus Plautius in 43 A.D., the Emperor's own conquest of the stronghold of Cunobelin, Ostorius Scapula's completion of the conquest of the south and east (50), Suetonius Paulinus's great campaign against Caractacus and the Silures (58), the suppression of the revolt of the Iceni after the inactive governments of Aulus Didius and Veranius, the reduction of the Brigantes by Petilius Cerealis (69—70), and the final submission of the Silures to Julius Frontinus (*circa* 77), prepared the way for the final triumphs of Julius Agricola (78—85). That great general successively defeated the Ordovices and the Brigantes, and, advancing to the north, ravaged the district as far as the Tay, fortified the isthmus between the Forth and Clyde, visited the Western Highlands, and finally, after a three years' war, defeated the Caledonians at "Mons Grampius." But these northern districts were never really subdued, and the building by Hadrian of the first Roman Wall between the Tyne and the Solway (120) marks the northern limit of the organised province. But in 139 Lollius Urbicus, the governor for Antoninus Pius, built a second wall, or rather an earthen rampart, between the Forth and the Clyde, which now became the ultimate northern boundary of the Roman dominions. A series of incursions of the northern barbarians led to its being further strengthened by Severus, from whom it often takes its name. One remarkable feature in the later history of the province is the constant tendency of the legions in Britain to set up Emperors of their own, such as Carausius, who governed the province from 287 to 294, when he was slain by Allectus, while Britain was reconquered in 296 by Constantius Chlorus. That prince effected important reforms in the government, and fought successful campaigns against the Picts, as the inhabitants of the unconquered north now began to be called. In 369 Theodosius restored the province, after it had been ravaged by Picts and Scots, Saxons and Attacots. In 383 the revolt of Maximus, and his unfortunate attempt to win for himself the whole Empire, led to the withdrawal of the army, and to fresh barbarian inroads on the unprotected land. In 396 Stilicho sent a single legion to help the struggling provincials, but its withdrawal in 402 led to fresh invasions. In 406 Stilicho again restored the army, but the successive usurpations of Constantinus and Gerontius showed the feeble Honorius that the army in Britain was a danger rather than an assistance to his struggling Empire. In answer to a request for help he bade the provincials defend themselves. In despair the Britons rose, and drove out the civil governors. The unity of the state at once disappeared. The Roman rule in Britain was at an end.

During more than three centuries the Romans had governed Britain, but they were unable to effect more than a military occupation. They had lost that capacity for assimilating the conquered races with themselves, which had made Gauls and Spaniards more Roman than even the Italians. The Roman civilisation, which Agricola had found the best means of enslaving the Britons, had never penetrated very far. A series of military posts, connected by a magnificent system of highways, a few commercial and mining centres, an occasional urban settlement, were all that could really be called Roman in Britain. The summer villas of the conquerors were planted amidst British tribes, who retained their old language and customs, and, so far as it was compatible with the central government, their old tribal organisation. The continued existence of the Welsh language in a district nearly three hundred years a Roman province, the few traces of Roman influence in the earliest Welsh laws and institutions, their similarity to those of the Irish, never subdued by the Romans, show very clearly the iimited extent of their power. The influence exerted by the Romans in Britain was analogous to that of the English in India, and the diffusion of a thinly-spread veneer of culture is less important than the great material works, such as walled towns, paved roads, aqueducts, and great public buildings, or the development of trade and commerce. These remained to testify to the greatness of Rome long after the more direct civilising influences, and long after the political organisation of Rome had ceased to have much influence in Britain. There is no need to suppose that everything that was Roman left the country in 410, or to think that the English necessarily made a clean sweep of all that had previously existed. Yet the contention that the direct influence of the Roman province on subsequent English history was really great, or that there was any real continuity, as, for example, in municipal institutions, cannot really be sustained, despite the brilliant theories and solid stores of learning that have been wasted in the attempt.

It remains to speak of the military and political organisation of the province of Britain. The number of troops quartered there seems always to have been large. Some

were planted throughout the country in garrisons, but the greater number were massed along the northern wall, and on the east coast, which was so exposed to the assaults of Saxon pirates. The sixth legion had its head-quarters at York, the twentieth at Chester, the second at Caerleon, the second for a time on the Wall, afterwards at Rutupiæ (Richborough). Troops of nearly every known nation were comprised within their numbers. The practice of the same legion being stationed for a long time at the same place must have led to a good deal of intercourse between the Britons and their conquerors. Not unfrequently the soldiers married native women, and settled down when their term of service was expired upon the lands allotted to them in their adopted country. The Roman soldiers took a prominent part in road-making, building dykes, working mines, and in the other great engineering operations which marked the Roman rule. The chief towns—most of which, such as York, London, Chester, Lincoln, Bath, Colchester, have continued ever since to be centres of population—very largely owed their origin to their importance as military stations.

The system of government of the province more than once was radically changed. The province as a definite administrative district was begun under Aulus Plautius. Its exposed position naturally caused it to be an imperial rather than a senatorial province, and its governor was the legate. Its great extent and the difficulty found in properly defending it led to its division into two districts by Severus, which Dio calls Upper and Lower Britain. Their relative situations are not certainly known. Diocletian's reorganisation of the Empire involved the division of Britain into four provinces—Britannia Prima, Britannia Secunda, Maxima Cæsariensis, and Flavia Cæsariensis—the positions of which are quite undetermined. In 369 a fifth province, called Valentia, the result of Theodosius's victories, was added. The two latter were consular, the three former each under a *præses*. The whole were under the *Vicarius Britanniarum*, and he was subject to the *Præfectus Prætorio Galliarum*. The troops were under the command of the *Dux Britanniarum* and the *Comes Litoris Saxonici*.

During the latter part of the Roman occupation, Christianity crept silently into Britain. Before the legions left, it was the religion of the Roman State; but the Britons seem only to have been partially converted, and the traces of an organised British Church are few, though distinct. But the Roman Church in Britain depended on Gaul almost as much as, after Diocletian's reforms, the governors of Britain necessarily did.

Horsley, *Britannia Romana*, and Camden's *Britannia*, the early part of the *Monumenta Historica Britannica*, and Hübner's edition of the *British Roman Inscriptions* in the seventh volume of the Berlin *Corpus Inscriptionum Latinarum*, are the great repositories of the materials for the history of Roman Britain. Hübner's preface to the *Inscriptions*, and treatise *Das Römische Heer in Britannien*, give a good account of the civil and military government. Mommsen, *Roman Provinces*, is of high importance. Coote's *Romans in Britain* collects all that can be said for the permanence of Roman influence. Skene's *Celtic Scotland* and Elton's *Origins of Eng. Hist.* are modern authorities of great value on the general history. [Scarth's *Roman Britain* is inaccurate.] [T. F. T.]

Romans, King of the. [Richard of Cornwall.]

Rom-feoh, or **Rome-scot,** afterwards known as Peter's Pence, was a tax of a penny on each hearth, which is said to have been first imposed by Ini, and sent to the Pope to provide for the support of the English school at Rome. But for this there is little evidence. The payment of the tribute probably commenced under Offa, who in this way gained papal sanction for the establishment of a new archbishopric at Lichfield. From the beginning of the tenth century, Rom-feoh was exacted from the whole country, and sent annually to Rome. In the confusion of Stigand's primacy, and of the first years of Norman rule, it seems to have fallen into arrears; but William I. promised about 1076 that it should be paid regularly. It succumbed to the general tendency, and became fixed at a comparatively small amount. In 1213 Innocent III. complained that the bishops retained 1,000 marks out of it, and only sent 300. In 1306 Clement V. exacted a penny from each household instead of £201 9s., which had for a long time been the customary payment. The threat of withholding Peter's Pence became a useful instrument in the king's hands; thus in 1366, and for some time after, it was not paid, in order to induce the Pope to acquiesce in the Statute of Præmunire (q.v.). Peter's Pence is to be clearly distinguished from the annual tribute of 1,000 marks promised by John.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.* [W. J. A.]

Romilly, Sir Samuel (*b.* 1757, *d.* 1818), the son of a jeweller of French extraction, was born at Westminster. He was called to the bar in 1783, but was at first much impeded by nervous diffidence. When he had overcome this difficulty, he rose rapidly, and in 1797 he had come to be recognised as a brilliant leader of the bar. In 1800 he was made a king's counsel, and in 1806 was appointed Solicitor-General by Fox, being returned to Parliament for Queenborough. In this position he was one of the managers of the impeachment of Lord Melville, and also took an active part in procuring the abolition of the slave trade. When he had been successful in accomplishing this object, he turned his attention towards the reform of the penal code; and though he was prevented from carrying out his reforms as he desired, he succeeded in mitigating some of its

severity. In 1812 he was defeated at Bristol, but, being returned for Arundel, he continued to support every measure that tended to improve the condition of the people. He was returned for Westminster in 1818, but did not live long enough to take his seat. His wife died on Oct. 29 of the same year; and within four days he committed suicide. "Year after year," says Sir Erskine May, "he struggled to overcome the obduracy of men in power. The Commons were on his side; Lords Grenville, Lansdowne, Grey, Holland, and other enlightened peers supported him; but the Lords, under the guidance of Lord Eldon, Lord Ellenborough, and their other judicial leaders, were not to be convinced. He did much to stir the public sentiment in his cause; but little, indeed, for the amendment of the law."

Life of Romilly; Twiss, *Life of Lord Eldon*; Walpole's *Hist. of Eng. from 1815*; Lord Holland, *Memoirs*; *Life of Wilberforce*.

Rooke, Sir George (*b.* 1650, *d.* 1709), entered the navy at an early age, and in 1689 became rear-admiral of the red. He took part in the battle off Beachy Head, was made vice-admiral of the blue in 1692, and commanded under Russell at La Hogue (May 19). For the skill with which he led a night attack upon a part of the French fleet which had escaped into the harbour out of reach of the English ships, he was rewarded with knighthood, and the post of vice-admiral of the red. Upon peace being made with France in 1697, Rooke gained a seat in Parliament for Portsmouth, and supported the Tory party. In 1702 he was created by Anne "Vice-Admiral and Lieutenant of the Admiralty" under Prince George. When war was renewed, Rooke took command of the English fleet, stormed Vigo, and in 1704 took Gibraltar. In the same year he fought a great but indecisive battle off Malaga. On his return to England he found himself treated with coldness by the Whig government, and retired to his country seat in Kent, where he died. His Journal has been published, 1897, by the Navy Records Society.

Root and Branch. This phrase was derived from a petition asking that episcopacy might be destroyed "root and branch," signed by 15,000 citizens of London, and presented on Dec. 11, 1640, by Alderman Pennington. The party in the Commons which supported this petition was called from it the Root and Branch party. "Of the chief leaders," says Clarendon, "Nathaniel Fiennes and young Sir H. Vane, and, shortly after, Mr. Hampden (who had not before owned it) were believed to be for root and branch, which grew shortly after a common expression, and discovery of the several tempers, yet Mr. Pym was not of that mind, nor Mr. Hollis, nor any of the northern men, or those lawyers who drove on most furiously with them." The Root and Branch Bill was drawn by St. John, and then through Vane, Cromwell, and Hazelrig handed to Sir Edward Dering, who brought it in on May 27, 1641. It was read a first and second time on the same day, and passed the second reading by 135 to 108 votes. The bill proposed to appoint in each diocese a number of commissioners, half lay, half clerical, to exercise ecclesiastical jurisdiction in place of the bishops. It was dropped in August, 1641.

Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng.*, *1603—1642*; Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion.*

Rosamund Clifford, commonly called the Fair Rosamund (*d. circa* 1175), was the daughter of Walter, Lord Clifford, and mistress of Henry II., by whom she had two sons, William Longsword, Earl of Salisbury, and Geoffrey, Archbishop of York. The story of her being poisoned by Queen Eleanor has no authority; and nothing is known of her death. She was buried at Godstow nunnery, but in 1191 Hugh, Bishop of Lincoln, ordered her body to be removed to the Chapter-house, where it remained till the Reformation.

Tindal's Rapin, vol. v., Appendix; Lyttelton, *Hist. of Henry II.*

Rosebery, Archibald Philip Primrose, 5th Earl of (*b.* 1847), succeeded his grandfather in the title in 1868. In 1881 he joined Mr. Gladstone's second Government as Under-Secretary for the Home Office, resigning in 1883, and returning in 1885 as Lord Privy Seal and First Commissioner of Works. For a few months in 1886 he was Foreign Secretary, and held the same portfolio from August, 1892, to March, 1894, when he succeeded Mr. Gladstone as Premier, remaining in office until July, 1895. He formally resigned the Liberal leadership in 1896. In 1903–5 he was a conspicuous opponent of Mr. Chamberlain's Fiscal proposals. In 1909 he protested against Mr. Lloyd George's Budget. He was twice chairman of the London County Council, and has written a monograph on Pitt.

Roses, The Wars of the, is the name commonly given to the dynastic civil war in the fifteenth century, which may be considered to begin with the first battle of St. Albans in 1455, and to end with Bosworth Field in 1485, though there were long intervals of peace. The name was given on account of the badges worn by the representatives of the houses of York and Lancaster, the Yorkists taking as their cognisance the white rose, the Lancastrians the red rose. The ostensible cause of the wars was the rival claims to the throne of the families of York and Lancaster, both descended from sons of Edward III.; the former could show strict hereditary right, while the latter had possession and Parliamentary title. But there were other causes, without which it may fairly be said that the struggle would never have occurred. It was not till some years after the

first battle of St. Albans, that York put forward his claims, and even then such a compromise as was come to in 1460 might very fairly have been adhered to, but the other causes which were at work prevented this, and the controversy was decided by the sword. The house of Lancaster had in great measure lost its hold on the sympathies of the people; the loss of France, the marriage with Margaret of Anjou, her haughty and overbearing spirit, the suspicious death of the popular favourite Gloucester, all combined to estrange the people from the Lancastrian dynasty. The two ministers of the latter part of Henry VI.'s reign, Suffolk and Somerset, were unfortunate and unpopular, and the one strong man who seemed at all able to restore good government to the country was the Duke of York. The nobles who for so many years had been ranging over France, now found themselves cooped up in England, and mutual jealousies arose which made them only too ready to take part in a civil war, while the birth of Prince Edward in 1453 perpetuated the Lancastrian claims, and so rendered any compromise impossible. With regard to the character of the two parties: ever since the time of Richard II. there had been some branches of the royal house which were opposed to the reigning branch; and the opposition princes usually found it convenient to associate themselves with the party in the country that cried out for reform and good government, as Thomas of Gloucester and Henry of Lancaster had done under Richard II. In Henry VI.'s reign, besides the opposition branch of the royal house, the York princes who were naturally antagonistic to the rival Lancasters and Beauforts, there existed the great family of the Nevilles, which had absorbed the territorial possessions of the Beauchamps, and now held a semi-royal position in the country. They were allied by marriage with the family of the Duke of York. In the north of England the Nevilles were great rivals of the powerful family of the Percies; and since the latter were firmly Lancastrian, this alone would almost have sufficed to make the Nevilles Yorkist. The war was mainly a quarrel among these and the other great houses. But it is possible to find certain geographical and political issues. There was general discontent with the government of Henry VI., its failures abroad, and its close connection with the clerical party; and on this account York was hailed as the champion of reform, and was very popular in the towns and among the mercantile population of the southern counties. The Lancastrians, more closely connected with the Church and the nobility, excluding a few of the great families, were stronger in the north, where feudalism was strong, trade undeveloped, and reforming ideas had made little headway. The effects of these wars upon our history were very great. They almost entirely destroyed the old nobility, and so paved the way for the absolutism of the Tudors, for the new nobility owed its rise entirely to the crown, and so was extremely servile. The people had no leaders, and were moreover glad of a strong government to preserve them from the horrors of another civil war. The Church, too, which had rested on the support of the barons, became greatly weakened, and was unable to resist the crown. The commercial classes and the great towns had taken but little part in the wars, but had steadily increased in power and influence, and with this goes the gradual rise of the House of Commons as one of the great powers of the realm, no longer to be dependent on the nobles, but, though at first apparently considerably weakened, in reality a gainer by having to stand alone. The following is a chronological list of the battles fought during the wars; a description of each of them will be found in its place.

First Battle of St. Albans	May 22, 1455
Battle of Blore Heath	Sept. 23, 1459
Battle of Northampton	July 10, 1460
Battle of Wakefield	Dec. 30, 1460
Battle of Mortimer's Cross	Feb. 2, 1461
Second Battle of St. Albans	Feb. 17, 1461
Skirmish at Ferry Bridge	Mar., 1461
Battle of Towton	Mar. 29, 1461
Battle of Hedgeley Moor	April 25, 1464
Battle of Hexham	May 15, 1464
Battle of Edgecote	July 26, 1469
Battle of Loosecoat Field	Mar. 19, 1470
Battle of Barnet	April 14, 1471
Battle of Tewkesbury	May 4, 1471
Battle of Bosworth	Aug. 22, 1485

Fabyan, *Chronicle*; Hall, *History*; Polydore Virgil (Camden Soc.); Stowe, *Annals*; *The Paston Letters* (with Mr. Gairdner's Introductions); Continuator of the *Croyland Chronicle*; *Warkworth Chronicle*; Brougham, *Eng. under the House of Lancaster*; Gairdner, *The Houses of Lancaster and York*. [F. S. P.]

Rosmead. [Robinson, Sir H., Bt.]

Ross, Alexander, Earl of, "the Wolf of Badenoch," was the brother of Robert II. of Scotland, and lord of Badenoch, Buchan, and Ross. He was governor of the northern part of Scotland, where he ravaged the lands of the Bishop of Moray, for which act of impiety he was excommunicated.

Ross, Sir James Clark (*b.* 1800, *d.* 1862), entered the navy 1812, under his uncle, Sir John Ross, with whom he continued to serve in the Baltic, the White Sea, and on the coast of Scotland. He accompanied his uncle, as a midshipman, in his first voyage in search of the North-west Passage. Subsequently, from 1819 to 1825, he was engaged with Captain Parry in his three voyages, being promoted during his absence in 1822 to the rank of lieutenant. He again accompanied Captain Parry in 1827, and on his return was appointed commander. He also joined his uncle Captain John Ross from 1829 to 1833, on his second voyage in search of a North-west Passage, and on his return was elevated to the rank of a post-captain, in recognition of his valuable services, among which was the discovery of the Magnetic Pole. He was after-

wards employed by the Admiralty in a magnetic survey of Great Britain and Ireland. In 1839 he was appointed to the command of an expedition in the *Erebus* and *Terror* to the Antarctic Seas, the chief purpose in view being magnetic investigations. This voyage, which occupied a period of four years, was rich in additions made to the previous knowledge of the Antarctic regions in geography, geology, zoology, and botany. In 1844 he was knighted. In 1847 he published the results of his discoveries and researches in the southern and Antarctic regions, in two volumes. In January, 1848, he made a voyage in the *Enterprise* to Baffin's Bay in search of Sir John Franklin, but was unsuccessful.

Rotherham, Thomas, Archbishop of York 1480—1500, had been one of Edward IV.'s chaplains, and in 1468 became Bishop of Rochester. In 1476 he was translated to Lincoln, and in 1474 was made Lord Chancellor. He held the Great Seal till 1483, when he was obliged to resign it by the Duke of Gloucester. He was imprisoned by Richard for some little while, and after his release does not seem to have taken any part in public affairs. In 1480 he had been created Archbishop of York.

Rothes, John, 6th Earl of, was taken prisoner at the battle of Worcester. After the Restoration he became Lord Treasurer and Chancellor of Scotland, and in 1680 was created a duke. On his death, however, in 1681, without male heirs, the duchy became extinct.

Rothesay, David, Duke of, the eldest son of Robert III. of Scotland, was a man of profligate and idle habits; in 1398 he was appointed lieutenant of the kingdom by a Scotch Parliament, and two years afterwards successfully defended the castle of Edinburgh; the same year he married Marjory, daughter of Archibald, Earl of Douglas. Soon afterwards he was seized at the instigation of his uncle, the Duke of Albany, and imprisoned in Falkland Castle, where he died of starvation (March, 1402).

Rothschild's Case (1847). Baron Lionel N. de Rothschild, a Jew, was returned as one of the members for the City of London in 1847. His return was perfectly legal, but he was unable to take the oath because it contained the words, "on the true faith of a Christian." He therefore sat below the bar for four sessions in expectation of relief from the legislature. Being disappointed, he resolved to try his rights by the existing law. He therefore, in 1850, presented himself to be sworn. After some discussion he was allowed to be sworn on the Old Testament, but omitted the words, "on the true faith, &c." He was immediately directed to withdraw, and after a learned discussion it was resolved that he could neither sit nor vote till he had taken the oath in the usual manner. In consequence, he was prevented from sitting until 1858, when the disability was removed. [Jews.]

Commons Journal; *Hansard*, 3rd ser., cxiii. 297, 396, 486, 769.

Roundhead. The name of Roundhead took its rise at the same time as the name of Cavalier, in the tumults which occurred during the discussion of the Bishops Exclusion Bill at the end of 1641. Like Cavalier, it referred originally to the external characteristics of the men, whose party name it afterwards became. "These people, or citizens," says Lilly, "who used to flock unto Westminster, were, most of them, men of a mean, or a middle quality. . . . They were modest in their apparel, but not in their language; they had the hair of their heads very few of them longer than their ears, whereupon it came to pass that those who usually with their cries attended at Westminster, were by a nickname called Roundheads." According to Rushworth the word was first used on Dec. 27, 1641, by David Hide, a disbanded officer, who in one of the riots drew his sword, and swore to "cut the throats of those round-headed dogs that bawled against bishops," "which passionate expression of his, as far as I could ever learn, was the first mentioning of that term or compellation of Roundheads, which afterwards grew so general." "From these contestations," says Clarendon of the tumults, "the two terms, Roundhead and Cavalier, came to be received in discourse, and were afterwards continued for the most succinct distinction of affections throughout the quarrel." A different story of the origin of the name is given by Baxter. "Some say it was because the queen at Strafford's trial asked who that round-headed man was, meaning Pym, because he spoke so strongly." The name did not go out of use till after the Revolution.

Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion*; Rushworth, *Historical Collections*; Baxter, *Life*; Lilly, *Monarchy or no Monarchy*. [C. H. F.]

Round Robin, The (February, 1789), an engagement in writing between twenty Irish peers and thirty-seven commoners, with the Duke of Leinster at their head. It bound all who signed it to make government impossible if the viceroy punished any one of them by loss of office or pension for their conduct on the regency question. Lord Buckingham encountered them by an increase of the pension list, and the majority being frightened consented to give up their engagement. The Duke of Leinster and the Ponsonbys, however, held out and lost their places.

Rous, John (*d.* 1491), chaplain at Guycliff-upon-Avon in Warwickshire, wrote a *History of England* from the earliest times to the accession of Henry VII. It is of some importance for the reigns of Edward IV. and Richard III. This work has been published by Hearne.

Rowena is said to have been the daughter of Hengest, and to have become the wife of Vortigern. But there is absolutely no authority for her existence, and her name is certainly not Teutonic. The legend of Rowena and Vortigern is told by Geoffrey of Monmouth.

Rowton Heath, The Battle of, was fought during the Great Rebellion (Sept. 24, 1645). After Naseby Charles I. took refuge in Wales, where he strove to collect fresh troops. In the middle of September he formed the plan of marching northwards to join Montrose, and raising the siege of Chester on his way. The king himself, with part of his forces, succeeded in entering Chester, which was not completely invested. But the besiegers under Sir William Brereton were reinforced by a body of Yorkshire horse under Colonel Poyntz and Sir Marmaduke Langdale, who commanded the troops charged with the duty of raising the siege, attacked rashly, and was taken between the forces of Brereton and Poyntz, and utterly routed. He lost 300 killed and wounded, and 1,000 prisoners. This defeat, and the news of Montrose's defeat at Philiphaugh, obliged the king to abandon his plan.

Phillips, *Civil War in Wales.*

Roxburgh, one of the four burghs, was surrendered to the English (1174), as security for the fulfilment of the Treaty of Falaise (q.v.), being restored to Scotland by Richard I. (1186). In 1216 it was burnt by John. In 1296 it was given up to Edward I. In 1312 it was surprised by the Black Douglas, and having been regained by the English, was in 1342 stormed by Sir Alexander Ramsay. In 1346 it was retaken by the English, who, although the town was destroyed in the reign of James I., held the castle until 1460, when it fell into the hands of the Scotch after a severe siege, in which James II. was killed by the bursting of a cannon. The abbey of Roxburgh was destroyed by the Earl of Hertford (1545).

Royal Commissions of inquiry may be appointed by the crown at its discretion, or upon the direction of an Act of Parliament, or upon the address of one or both Houses of Parliament; and it is only to obtain an inquiry into corrupt practices at elections that it is necessary (by the Act 15 & 16 Vict., c. 57) that both Houses should unite in the address. It is not usual to appoint members of the government unless the inquiry affects their own departments, or is non-political; and members of a commission who subsequently enter office are usually superseded, or abstain from signing the report. In commissions appointed under an Act of Parliament the members are sometimes nominated in the Act itself (the first example of this being the Commission on Land Tax Assessment in 1692). But in a Royal Commission strictly so called, names are not usually communicated to Parliament beforehand. A commission cannot compel the production of documents, or the giving of evidence, nor can it administer an oath, except by special Act of Parliament. The most notable cases of the conferment of such authority are (1) the Act of 1867, which not only gave the above powers to the Trades Union Commission, but also empowered it to indemnify witnesses upon condition of complete confession, and (2) the Act of 1888, relating to the Irish Parliamentary party, and conferring similar powers.

A good account of the procedure in Royal Commissions will be found in Alpheus Todd, *Parliamentary Government in England*, ii., p. 345. [W. J. A.]

Royal Society, The, grew out of two small groups of friends who met occasionally in London and Oxford to discuss scientific questions about the middle of the seventeenth century. These were organised into a definite society in 1660; in 1662 it was granted a charter by Charles II., and incorporated as the Royal Society. The king, as well as his brother James, placed their names in the list of members. Its early meetings took place in Gresham College, and afterwards in Crane Court; they were transferred in 1782 to Somerset House, and to Burlington House in 1857.

Sprat, *Hist. of Royal Society*, 1667; Weld, *Hist. of Royal Society*, 1847; *Transactions* (from 1665).

Rudyard, Sir Benjamin. In the Parliament of 1621 Rudyard, who had recently been appointed Surveyor of the Court of Wards, was one of "that band of politicians who hoped to reconcile a stirring foreign policy with the fullest devotion to the crown." In 1624 he was put forward as the exponent of Buckingham's new policy of war with Spain, and in subsequent Parliaments was "the usual mouthpiece of the government." At the beginning of the Long Parliament he was so far convinced of abuses in the government that he proposed the removal of evil counsellors from the king, though without punishing anyone; and when the Bishops Exclusion Bill was being discussed, he advocated in a vague way a return to primitive episcopacy. He seems to have been a well-meaning dealer in useless commonplaces, without any force of character.

The index to Gardiner, *Hist. of England*, gives references to his chief speeches.

Rufus. [William II.]

Rullion Green, The Battle of (November, 1666), resulted in a defeat of the insurgent Covenanters under Colonel Wallace at the hands of the royal troops led by General Dalziel. Rullion Green is a valley dividing the Pentland Hills.

Rumbold, Richard (*d.* 1685), was an officer in Cromwell's regiment. He guarded

the scaffold at Charles I.'s execution, and was present at Dunbar and Worcester. After the Restoration he settled down at the Rye House near Hoddesdon in Hertfordshire. Here, in conjunction with others, he planned the assassination of Charles II. and the Duke of York. The conspiracy was discovered, and Rumbold had to flee. In 1685 he took part in Argyle's invasion, was captured and put to death. "Surrounded by cowardly and factious associates," says Macaulay, "he had, through the whole campaign, behaved himself like a soldier trained in the school of the great Protector, had in council strenuously supported the authority of Argyle, and had in the field been distinguished by tranquil intrepidity."

Rump. [Long Parliament.]

Runes, or Runic characters, comprise the alphabet used by the Teutonic nations. There were originally twenty-four letters in this alphabet, which was ascribed to the god Odin. Probably it was introduced by Phœnician traders to the people living on the Baltic coast.

Runjeet Singh (*b.* 1780, *d.* 1839). Upon the fall of the Mogul empire, its territories were divided between the Mahrattas in the south and the Sikhs, a religious sect, in the Punjaub. It was the work of Runjeet Singh, the son of a sirdar of one of the Sikh principalities, to weld the loose Sikh confederacy into a kingdom. Gaining, in 1799, the governorship of Lahore in return for the aid he had given to Zeman Shah of Afghanistan, he practised upon the religious fanaticism of his Sikh countrymen, and organised the "khalsa" or "the liberated" into an army under European officers, which resembled in many points the Ironsides of Cromwell. He speedily conquered the neighbouring sirdars, but he found himself shut in on the east by the river Sutlej, the boundary of the British territory. He was wise enough to make a treaty of peace with the English in 1809, and to this he was faithful till his death. He captured Moultan in 1817, Peshawur in 1819, and Cashmere in 1819, and in that year assumed the title of Maharajah (King of Kings). The Afghans inflicted upon him a defeat in 1836, but his authority was too firm to be shaken by disaster, and he seemed to leave behind him a firmly-established power on his death in 1839.

Hunter, *Indian Empire*, p. 312.

Runnymede was the name of the small island in the Thames near Staines, at which the Great Charter was signed by John, June 15, 1215. [Magna Carta.]

Rupert, Prince (*b.* 1619, *d.* 1682), was the third son of Frederick V., Elector Palatine, and Elizabeth, daughter of James I. Upon the outbreak of hostilities between king and Parliament, Rupert received the command of the Royalist cavalry, and took part in all the important engagements of the first Civil War. He showed impetuous courage, but little judgment, and to this defect the Royalist defeat at Marston Moor was largely due. His surrender of Bristol in August, 1645, caused Charles to deprive him of his command. In 1648, however, he was given command of the Royalist fleet, and showed considerable skill in eluding Blake. At last, in 1651, Blake inflicted on him a crushing defeat and destroyed most of his vessels. With the remnant, Rupert escaped to the West Indies, where he carried on a buccaneering warfare against English merchantmen till 1653, when he managed to reach France. After the Restoration he again obtained high naval command, and did good service under Monk in the war against the Dutch. The later years of his life were spent in scientific researches, Rupert taking the greatest interest in the proceedings of the Royal Society, of which he was a leading member.

Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion; Prince Rupert and the Cavaliers;* Sanford, *Studies of the Great Rebellion.*

Rushworth, John (*b.* 1607, *d.* 1690), a member of Lincoln's Inn, was appointed Assistant Clerk to the Commons at the opening of the Long Parliament, became in 1645 secretary to his relative, Sir Thomas Fairfax, in 1652 one of the committee for the reform of the common law, and M.P. for Berwick in the Parliaments of 1658 and 1660. After the Restoration he was for some years in obscurity, but in 1677 he was appointed secretary to Lord Keeper Bridgeman, and appears in 1679 and 1681 again as M.P. for Berwick. In 1684 he was arrested for debt, and died in the King's Bench Prison in 1690. His position gave him opportunities for witnessing the most important events of the period, and his *Collections of Private Passages of State, Weighty Matters of Law, and Remarkable Proceedings in Five Parliaments,* chiefly drawn up from his own shorthand notes of debates and from State papers, is one of the most valuable sources of information for the years it covers.

The *Collections* is in eight vols. They are thus arranged:—Vol. i. (1618—1629), published 1659; vols. ii. and iii., forming Part II. (1629—1640), 1680; *Trial of Lord Strafford,* usually counted as vol. viii., in the same year 1680; vols. iv. and v., forming Part III. (1640—1645), 1692; vols. vi. and vii., forming Part IV. (1645—1648), 1701. Though fairly impartial, an outcry was raised against them, and Nalson's *Impartial Collections* appeared in 1682—83 as a corrective from the loyalist side. [W. J. A.]

Russel, Frances, Lady (*b.* 1638, *d.* 1721), the youngest child of Oliver Cromwell. According to Burnet, Charles II. thought of asking for her hand to secure his own restoration, but this is scarcely probable. In 1657 she became the wife of Robert Rich, grandson of Lord Warwick, who, however, died in three months. She subsequently married Sir John Russel, by whom she had a large family.

Russell, The Family of, was one of the most ancient in Dorsetshire. In 1506, during the brief stay of Philip of Austria on the coast of Dorsetshire, where he was compelled to put in by stress of weather, he made the acquaintance of Mr. John Russell, and recommended him for employment to Henry VII. Russell received an appointment in the Privy Chamber, and was henceforth constantly employed in the public service. In 1539 he was made Lord Russell, and in 1542 Earl of Bedford, receiving large grants of the confiscated lands of the abbeys of Woburn and Tavistock. In May, 1694, William, fifth earl, was created Duke of Bedford.

Russell, Edward, Earl of Orford (*b.* 1651, *d.* 1727), nephew of the first Duke of Bedford, was a naval officer, but withdrew from active service when his kinsman William, Lord Russell, was beheaded, and was one of the seven who signed the invitation to William III. On the accession of William he was placed on the Privy Council. He began in 1691 to intrigue with James, and complained bitterly to William of the neglect of the Whigs. In 1692 he fought the battle of La Hogue. James had imagined that the English fleet was friendly to him, and trusted the assurances of Russell. But the ill-timed declaration of the exiled king, and the queen's spirited letter to the fleet, had quite changed the mind of the admiral. He went from ship to ship encouraging the crews, who fought bravely and won a great victory. In the same year he had a violent quarrel with Nottingham because he decided that the summer was too far spent for further enterprise. William found it impossible to discard Nottingham, and therefore deprived Russell of the command, solacing him with a rich place in the household. He was presently recalled, however, made First Lord of the Admiralty, and sent to the Mediterranean with most of the English and Dutch ships. On his return he was exceedingly popular, and was elected for Middlesex without opposition. On the accession of the Whig Junto to power in 1696 Russell again became First Lord of the Admiralty, and in 1697 Earl of Orford and Viscount Barfleur. In 1701 he was impeached, together with Portland, Somers, and Montague, by the victorious Tories, and charged with complicity with the crimes of Captain Kidd, an accusation so absurd that it soon fell to the ground. During the reign of Anne he was excluded from office until 1709, when he became First Lord of the Admiralty till 1710. On the accession of George I. (1714) he was again placed at the head of the Admiralty Commission, but henceforth he took but little part in politics.

Burnet, *Hist. of his Own Times.*

Russell, John (*d.* 1494), was frequently employed in affairs of state by Edward IV., and in 1476 was made Bishop of Rochester. He was translated to Lincoln in 1480, and was one of the executors of Edward's will. In 1483 Gloucester appointed him Chancellor, which office he held till 1485, when Richard, suspecting him of treachery, took the Great Seal from him. The rest of his life was spent in the affairs of his bishopric.

Russell, John, Earl (*b.* 1792, *d.* 1878), was the third son of the sixth Duke of Bedford. He was educated at Edinburgh, and entered Parliament in 1813 as member for Tavistock in the Whig interest. In 1818 he took up the question of Parliamentary Reform and moved four moderate resolutions, henceforth specially associating himself with the Reform movement, and annually moving a resolution on the subject. In 1828 he carried a motion for the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts, and a bill was subsequently passed to that effect. In 1830 he became Paymaster of the Forces under Lord Grey, and was entrusted with the presentation of the Reform Bill to the House (March 1, 1831). His reputation was greatly increased by the ability which he displayed in the passage of the bill; and when Peel gained office, Russell was recognised as leader of the Opposition. In 1835 he became Home Secretary under Melbourne, and in 1839 Secretary for War and the Colonies. At the general election of 1841 Russell was returned for the City, a seat which he retained for twenty years. In 1845 he declared himself in favour of the repeal of the Corn Laws, in a letter to his constituents, and in 1846 he became Prime Minister. Four years later, in 1850, he made the great mistake of countenancing the No-Popery agitation by his *Letter to the Bishop of Durham* upon the creation of a Catholic episcopate in England, and by carrying the Ecclesiastical Titles Bill, which, however, remained a dead letter. At the end of 1851 he quarrelled with and dismissed Palmerston, who in the next year brought about the fall of the Russell ministry. In Aberdeen's ministry Russell was at first Foreign Secretary, and afterwards President of the Council; in 1855 he resigned, and came back to the Foreign Office under Palmerston in 1859. In 1861 he was created Earl Russell, and became again Prime Minister on Palmerston's death in 1865. He was defeated in 1866 on the Reform Bill, and resigned. He never afterwards held office, though he continued to take an active part in politics, and in 1869 introduced a bill empowering the crown to confer life-peerages. Earl Russell was a voluminous writer, and edited himself selections from his *Speeches* and *Despatches* with introductions, 2 vols., 1870.

Russell, William, Lord (*b.* 1639, *d.* 1683), the third son of the fifth Earl of Bedford,

appears as one of the chiefs of the Opposition towards the close of the Long Parliament of Charles II. He commenced the attack upon the Duke of York which led up to the Exclusion Bill, by moving an address in the House of Commons, on Nov. 4, 1678, that the duke should be removed from the royal councils. So popular was he in the country, that at the general election in 1679 he was chosen for two counties. He was nominated a member of the Privy Council as reorganised by Temple, but it was impossible that a council containing such discordant elements should work together, and the Whig leaders speedily sought their dismissal. During the Exclusion Bill debates Russell was practically leader of the House, and it was he who took up the bill to the Lords (Nov. 15, 1680). But the court was victorious, and in 1683 took revenge by accusing Russell of participation in the Rye House Plot, though it is almost certain that Russell and his friends had merely discussed the possibility of a popular agitation for a new Parliament, and did not contemplate the employment of force. He was tried for high treason at the Old Bailey on July 13, 1683, declared guilty, and executed on the 21st, refusing to the last, in spite of the arguments of Tillotson and Burnet, to assent to the doctrine of non-resistance.

Burnet, *Hist. of his Own Time;* Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*, iv. ; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*

Russia, Relations with. During the Middle Ages there were practically no relations between England and the barbarous kingdom of the Czars. The English captain, Chancellor, began in 1553 both commercial dealings by his voyage to the White Sea, and diplomatic intercourse by bearing to Moscow a letter of Queen Mary to Ivan the Terrible. In 1568 this mission bore fruit in Ivan's proposal of a commercial treaty giving exclusive rights to English merchants, and a political alliance against Poland and Sweden ; but neither of these was ever executed. In 1645 Alexis Mikhailovitch sent Gersim Doktourof to England ; but on finding the king to whom he was accredited a prisoner of his own subjects, the envoy withdrew in disgust, and the execution of Charles was followed by the expulsion of English merchants from Russia. After the Restoration, the embassy of Lord Carlisle restored diplomatic relations (1663) ; but nothing of any importance happened until Peter the Great's famous visit to England in 1697. The distant friendship of the two nations was readily broken in 1717 by the coalition of Peter with Charles XII. and Alberoni, with the intention, among other objects, of depriving Hanover of Bremen and Verden, and of helping the Pretender to the English throne. But these projects soon passed away, and on the whole friendly relations between the two countries were maintained for the greater part of the eighteenth century. The close alliance of Russia and Austria, the notion that the development of Russia would help in keeping down France and its northern ally Sweden, the common policy of maintaining the Cap faction in power in the latter country, and the importance of the trade between the two nations, all helped to establish their alliance. In 1748 the advance of a Russian force secured for England and her allies the Peace of Aachen. But in the Seven Years' War Russia did her best to overthrow England's ally, Prussia. Yet Chatham always maintained the policy of the Russian alliance, and in 1769 England assisted the fleet of Alexis Orlof in its long voyage from the Baltic to the aid of the revolted Greeks, and an Englishman conducted the fire-ships which destroyed the Turkish fleet in the Bay of Tchesme. Less justifiable was the acquiescence on the part of England in the first partition of Poland in the year 1774 ; which was ill requited by Catherine II.'s abandonment, in the latter part of her reign, of the English alliance in favour of a connection with France. Thus, in 1780, Catherine joined the Armed Neutrality. Little less offensive to England was her close alliance with Joseph II., whose policy in the Netherlands was diametrically opposed to that of the English. The younger Pitt was the first English statesman who took up that position of hostility to Russia which in later times became so general. While Fox eloquently pleaded for a continuance of the old connection, Pitt formed an alliance with Poland, Prussia, and Sweden, against the "Colossus of the North ;" but his threats were vain to prevent Russia's triumph in the Turkish war, and the inglorious defeat of Gustavus III. of Sweden. The struggle against revolutionary France brought back, however, the old relations. Catherine in her old age was content with denouncing the Revolution. Paul I. joined the Second Coalition, and in 1799 English and Russian troops joined to fight an unsuccessful campaign in Holland, which led to mutual jealousies and recriminations. As a result Paul formed a close connection with his hero Napoleon, and established a second Armed Neutrality in the north. After Paul's murder, Alexander I. joined the next coalition, but from 1807 to 1812 his alliance with Napoleon isolated England and allowed the establishment of the Continental System. After 1815 the Tory government kept up a friendship with the instigator of the Holy Alliance. The judicious policy of Canning of joining with Russia to obtain the liberties of Greece was ignored by the ministry which called Navarino an untoward event. The triumph of Liberalism in England, the sympathy excited by the Polish insurgents, the antagonism of interest in the Levant, and, before long, in Asia as well.

gradually produced a settled divergence between the two countries, culminating in the Crimean War, and nearly leading to a second explosion in 1878. [CRIMEAN WAR.] In 1885, again, serious difficulties arose in connection with the frontier of Afghanistan, but they were referred to arbitration. [AFGHAN WARS; NORTH SEA OUTRAGE; PAMIRS.]

Hermann, *Geschichte des Russischen Staats*, and Rambaud, *Hist. of Russia*, are good general accounts of Russian history. See the Hakluyt Society's publications, especially Fletcher's *Russia*, Horsley's *Russia*, and Lord Carlisle's *Relation of three Embassies*, for the early relations. Schuyler, *Life of Peter the Great*; Kinglake, *Invasion of the Crimea*.

[T. F. T.]

Ruthven, ALEXANDER (the Master of Gowrie), conspired, with his brother, the Earl of Gowrie, to kidnap King James VI. at Gowrie House, and to convey him by sea to Fastcastle (1600). Ruthven, having prevailed upon the king to visit his brother's castle, attacked him there, but was himself slain. This affair is known as the Gowrie Conspiracy.

Ruthven, The RAID OF (August, 1581), was the name given to a plot formed against Lennox and Arran, the favourites of James VI., which was carried out by seizing the young king at Castle Ruthven, and committing him to the charge of the conspirators. In 1582 an Act of Indemnity was passed in which the thanks of the nation were voted to the Earls of Gowrie, Mar, and Glencairn for their rescue of the king from his obnoxious ministers. In 1583, however, James defeated the Ruthven party, and Gowrie was executed.

Rutland, CHARLES MANNERS, DUKE OF (*b.* 1754, *d.* 1787), was appointed Viceroy of Ireland by Pitt in 1783. He found Ireland in a state bordering on open rebellion. His firmness, however, prevented a proposed congress from meeting (1784); and, though unable to carry the commercial treaty, he put down the Whiteboy insurrection, and restored internal quiet.

Rutland, HENRY MANNERS, 2nd EARL OF (*d.* 1563), was instrumental in procuring the condemnation of Lord Seymour of Sudely. In 1549 he was employed in the relief of Haddington, besieged by the French; and in 1553 was imprisoned as a supporter of Lady Jane Grey. In 1558 he collected a small fleet for the relief of Calais, but was too late.

Rutland, JOHN JAMES ROBERT MANNERS, 7TH DUKE OF, Conservative statesman (*b.* 1818, *d.* 1906), was second son of the fifth duke. In his youth he was an enthusiastic member of the Young England party. He entered Parliament for Newark in 1841. In Lord Derby's ministry of 1852 he was First Commissioner of Works, as also in 1858—59 and 1866—67, when he had a seat in the Cabinet. From 1874 to 1880, and in 1885—86, he was Postmaster-General, and from 1886 to 1892 was Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster. He succeeded to the dukedom in 1888.

Rye House Plot, THE (1683), is the name given to a conspiracy formed by some of the extreme Whigs in Charles II.'s reign, after the failure of the Exclusion Bill; its object was the murder of the king and the Duke of York. The king was to have been murdered at a place called the Rye House, in Hertfordshire; but the plot never came to anything, and was revealed to the court by traitors among those concerned in it. It is not probable that the prominent Whig leaders were privy to this scheme, which was chiefly formed by Rumbold and some of the more violent and obscure members of the party. But William, Lord Russell, Algernon Sidney, and the Earl of Essex were arrested for complicity in it. Essex died in the Tower, probably by his own hand; Russell was condemned on the evidence of one witness and executed, together with Sidney (July 21, 1683), at whose trial unpublished writings of his own were admitted as evidence against him.

Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Burnet, *Hist. of his Own Time*; *Memoirs of William, Lord Russell*.

Rymer, Thomas (*b.* 1639, *d.* 1714), was born at Northallerton, and educated at Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge. In 1692 he received the appointment of historiographer royal, but he died in poverty. Rymer's chief interest to the student of English history is his connection with the work called *Fœdera*. Early in the seventeenth century began the publication upon the Continent of general collections of treaties. Such works became very popular, and the *Codex Juris Gentium Diplomaticus* of Leibnitz (1693) seems to have suggested to Halifax and Somers the advisability of publishing a similar collection for England at the national expense. The government accepted the proposal, and entrusted the work to Rymer. Fifteen volumes appeared during his lifetime, and five subsequently, covering the period 1101—1654. It contains an immense number of treaties, charters, &c.

It is necessary carefully to distinguish the various editions:—(i.) *Original*, 15 vols., ed. Rymer (1704—1713), the later volumes departing from the original plan, and including a large number of documents which touch only domestic affairs; 16th vol. (1715), prepared from Rymer's papers by his assistant, Sanderson, who edited the remaining volumes; 17th (1717), the last two being still more miscellaneous in the character of their contents. An 18th vol. appeared first in 1726, but was withdrawn on account of the remonstrances of the Commons against the breach of privilege committed by printing part of their *Journal*; it was recalled and reissued (1731). Two more volumes were published in 1732 and 1735. Churchill published the first 17 vols.; Tonson the last three. (ii.) *Tonson's* (1727—1729), a reprint of the first 17 vols. (ed. Holmes), published by Tonson through subscription. (iii.) *Hague* (1737—1745), an edition of the first 17 vols., with Holmes's corrections, and of Sanderson's three last vols., published in 10 vols. at the Hague, with an important abridgment by

Rapin. (iv.) *Record Commission* (1816—1830), 3 vols. in 6 parts, and a portion of 4th vol. covering the period down to 1383, with additions. To these must be added : (v.) *Syllabus* of *Fœdera*, in English, by Sir Thos. Hardy, 2 vols. (1869—1872), for Record Commission. In the prefaces to this most valuable work a full account and criticism is given of the various editions.

[W. J. A.]

Ryswick, The Treaty of (Sept. 10, 1697), terminated the war which had begun in 1689 between France and the coalition composed of the Empire, Spain, England, Brandenburg, and Holland. Louis had opened negotiations in 1696, but the other powers had broken them off. At length, in March (1697), the French plenipotentiaries assembled at the Hague, those of the coalition at Delft, and conferences were held at Ryswick. But, impatient of delay, Louis and William appointed Marshal Boufflers and the Duke of Portland to hold private meetings together. Terms of peace were concluded (July 6). Spain and the Emperor refused to agree to them; but Spain soon gave way, and on Sept. 10 the treaty was concluded between France, Holland, Spain, and England. The terms were that France should acknowledge William as King of England, Anne as his successor, and that all assistance should be withdrawn from James. France also surrendered all conquests made since the Treaty of Nimeguen, and placed the chief fortresses of the Low Countries in the hands of Dutch garrisons. A month later, a treaty was concluded between Louis and the Emperor. France restored all towns captured since the Treaty of Nimeguen, with the exception of Strasburg, together with Freiburg, Breisach, Philipsburg, and the French fortifications on the right bank of the Rhine. Lorraine was restored to its duke, who, however, granted a passage through his dominions for French troops. The Elector of Cologne was recognised, and the rights of the Duchess of Orleans upon the Palatinate compromised for money. "The Prince of Orange," says Ranke, "who was formerly spoken of contemptuously as the little lord of Breda, had won himself a position in the presence of which the mightiest monarch the western world had seen for many a century was compelled to give way."

Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*; Koch and Schoell, *Histoire des Traités de Paix.*

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Sa, Dom Pantaleon, brother of the Portuguese ambassador in London, killed a man in a fray (Nov. 22, 1653). He took refuge at the embassy, where it was maintained that he was responsible only to his own sovereign. Arrested and tried, and induced to plead by the threat of the *peine forte et dure*, he was condemned. Cromwell, while pardoning his accomplices, was inexorable against the principal. On July 10 Sa was executed, amidst great popular rejoicings. Cromwell's firm government was no respecter of persons, and not even the divinity which hedged ambassadors suffered them to violate the municipal law of the state in which they were sojourning.

State Trials; Schäfer, *Geschichte von Portugal.*

Saadut Ali (*d.* 1814), the brother of Asaf-ul-Dowlah, was by a treaty made by Sir John Shore in 1788 assigned the vacant throne of Oude, upon terms which gave the English the right of garrisoning the important places, and completely subjected Oude to the English power. Saadut Ali rapidly became so unpopular that he lost all control over his own troops, who, while useless for the defence of Oude, remained a source of great expense. After the insurrection of Vizier Ali, which had to be put down by British troops, Lord Wellesley insisted peremptorily on their dismissal. In 1800 the Nawab announced that he intended to abdicate in favour of one of his sons. Lord Wellesley informed him that he would consent to the abdication provided it was made in favour of the Company. The Nawab thereupon withdrawing his abdication, Lord Wellesley ordered him to choose between the cession of the whole or part of his dominions. After trying every possible means of escape, the Treaty of Lucknow was concluded (Nov. 10, 1801). Its provisions were that the Vizier should cede a large territory, and in return should be released from all future demands on account of Oude or its dependencies; that the Company should always protect and defend the Vizier, and that he should only support a few of his own troops for revenue purposes; that the English should guarantee to him his remaining territories; that in the exercise of his authority he should in all cases be guided by the advice of the officers of the Company. On Jan. 10, 1802, Lord Wellesley and the Vizier met at Cawnpore, where the former insisted on such a reform in the administration of Oude as should remove the evils and abuses which had so long corrupted all the state machinery. Various remonstrances were at intervals addressed to him on his government, especially during Lord Minto's administration, but he had no mind for reforms which would embarrass his arrangements and curtail his revenue. He died in 1814.

Mill, *Hist. of India*; *Wellesley Despatches.*

Sabert, King of the East Saxons, and nephew of Ethelbert, King of Kent, received Christianity from Augustine, and instituted the bishopric of London with Mellitus for its first bishop. On his death, his sons relapsed into heathenism.

Sac and Soc was an Anglo-Saxon phrase, also extensively used in the Norman period,

meaning the right of jurisdiction possessed by private individuals. When extensive tracts of folkland were turned into bookland, in favour of churches, monastic bodies, or private individuals, such jurisdiction as had been previously vested in the king, in or out of the popular courts, was transferred to the recipient of the grant. Where previously the royal officers had sat in judgment, the lord or the lord's reeves now sat; and the profits of the jurisdiction now went, not to the national exchequer, but to that of the lord. And, as in the later Anglo-Saxon times the tendency was for all folkland to pass into bookland, "the national courts became more and more the courts of the landowners. The ancient process was retained, but exercised by men who derived their title from the new source of justice." (Stubbs.) The grants of *sac* and *soc* did not as a rule give immunity from the county courts, though they did from the hundred courts. They became, in fact, the basis of the later manor court leet, which exercised petty criminal jurisdiction over the tenants of the manor. The name is derived from two words, one of which (*sacn*) properly means a thing, and so presumably a thing in dispute and litigation; the other (*socn*), jurisdiction. But, as Bishop Stubbs says, "the form is an alliterative jingle which will not bear close analysis."

Stubbs, *Const. Hist*, i. § 73; Ellis, *Introduction to Domesday*.

Sacheverell, Henry, D.D. (*d.* 1724), the son of a Low Church clergyman, entered the Church, and early attached himself to the school of Laud. He became a fellow of Magdalen College, Oxford. In 1705 he was elected chaplain of St. Saviour's, Southwark. In August, 1709, he preached a violent Assize sermon at Derby, and on Nov. 5, 1709, one at St. Paul's Cathedral before the civic dignitaries on "The Perils of False Brethren both in Church and State," a tirade against the Revolution principles, Dissenters, and the Whig ministry, especially Godolphin, whom he attacked under the name of Volpone, or Old Fox. It is said that 40,000 copies of this sermon were sold. The ministry were naturally angry, and Sunderland proposed that Sacheverell should be impeached. The idea was taken up by Godolphin, but opposed by Somers and Marlborough. Sacheverell's answer to the articles was uncompromising. When it was decided to bring him to trial, the Commons resolved to attend Westminster Hall in a body. Popular sympathy was strongly on his side. "Sacheverell and the Church" was the cry. He read an eloquent defence, supposed to have been written for him by Atterbury. The Lords declared him guilty by sixty-nine to fifty-two. He was suspended for three years, and his sermon was burnt by the common hangman; but a motion that he should be incapable of preferment was thrown out. The sentence was considered an acquittal; a living was bestowed on him in Shropshire, and his journey thither was like a royal progress. The queen saw how unpopular the ministry had become, and hence was encouraged to carry out her plans for its overthrow. [Anne.] After the period of Sacheverell's suspension was over, the queen presented him with the living of St. Andrew's, Holborn. His first sermon, on the text, "Father, forgive them, for they know not what they do," he sold for £100. The Commons, to mark their disapproval of the conduct of the previous ministry, appointed him to preach before them on Ascension Day. Burnet's views of his character are hardly overdrawn: "He was a bold, insolent man, with a very small measure of religion, virtue, learning, or good sense; but he resolved to force himself into popularity and preferment by the most petulant railings at Dissenters and Low Churchmen in several sermons and libels, written without chasteness of style or liveliness of expression."

Burton, *Reign of Queen Anne*; Boyer, *Annals*; Burnet, *Hist. of his Own Time*.

Sacket's Harbour, The Battle of (1813), was fought on Lake Ontario, between the English and Canadians under Sir George Prevost, and the Americans under the command of General Brown. The advantage lay with the Americans.

Sackville, Lord George (*b.* 1716, *d.* 1785), was the son of Charles, Duke of Dorset. He served at the battles of Dettingen and Fontenoy, and fought under the Duke of Cumberland at Culloden. In 1753 he was sent as secretary to Ireland, and quarrelled with the Speaker, Boyle. In 1758 he refused the command on the coast of Britanny, preferring to serve in Flanders, on the ground that he was "tired of buccaneering." He commanded the English and German cavalry on the right of the allies under Ferdinand of Brunswick at the battle of Minden, and when orders were sent him to charge, he obstinately refused to do so, affecting to misunderstand the order, probably from motives of jealousy. After enduring several slights from Ferdinand, he resigned his command, and on his return home, a court-martial adjudged him unfit to serve in any military capacity. On the death of George II., he attempted to return to court. In the year 1761 he was elected member for Hythe; and in 1762 we find him complaining of the expenses of the war. In 1766 he was restored to the Privy Council. In 1770, in consequence of inheriting an estate, he assumed the name of Germain. In the following year he fought a duel with Governor Johnstone. In 1775 he was made Secretary of State for the Colonies, but his military knowledge and talents ill-atoned for his rash and violent temper. He quarrelled with his subordinates, especially Sir Guy Carleton and Sir William Howe, and

in 1778 threatened to resign, in a fit of anger on Carleton's being appointed Governor of Charlemont. He superintended the preparations for the American War. In the year 1782, in order to rid themselves of him, the ministry persuaded the king to raise him to the peerage. There was great outery at this, and his first speech in the House of Lords was an attempt to remove the imputation of cowardice at Minden. We subsequently find him acknowledging the fact that the king was his own minister. Lord Sackville was a man of undoubted talents and great ambition, but of a violent temperament, which urged him to ill-judged courses.

Walpole, *Memoirs*; Sismondi, *Hist. de France*; Lecky, *Hist. of the Eighteenth Century*; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*

Sackville, Sir Richard (*d.* 1566), the father of the famous Lord Buckhurst, was a man of great financial abilities, which he so made use of to his own advantage as to gain the nickname of "Fill Sack." Under Queen Mary he was a Catholic, and Chancellor of the Court of Augmentations; under Elizabeth, a Protestant, and Chancellor of the Exchequer.

Sadleir's Case (1857). Mr James Sadleir, member for Tipperary, had been deeply concerned with his brother, John Sadleir, member for Sligo, in a series of fraudulent banking transactions. On the discovery, John Sadleir committed suicide and James Sadleir fled. The latter was thereupon formally expelled from the House of Commons (Feb. 19), on the motion of the Attorney-General for Ireland.

A. M. Sullivan, *New Ireland*, chaps. xiv., xv.

Sadler, Sir Ralph (*b.* 1507, *d.* 1587), a protégé of Thomas Cromwell, was much thought of by Henry VIII. for the skill and ability which he displayed as a diplomatist. In 1539 he was sent on an embassy to James V. of Scotland, to endeavour to detach him from his alliance with France, and to aid the cause of the Reformed religion in Scotland, and fulfilled his mission with such discretion, that Henry appointed him one of the twelve councillors who were to assist his executors in the government during the minority of Edward VI. In 1547 he was present at the battle of Pinkie, and greatly distinguished himself; while in 1549 he aided in suppressing Ket's rebellion. "The able and truthful Sir Ralph Sadler" became one of Elizabeth's most trusted diplomatic agents, and a strong Puritan, and was often employed in Scotch negotiations. In 1559 he was sent to the Scotch border with instructions "to treat in all secrecy with any manner of persons in Scotland for the union of the realms," and to assist the Protestant party with secret sums of money. He was one of the English commissioners at the Treaty of Leith (1560), and in 1568 was on the commission of York on the occasion of the inquiry into the murder of Darnley. In 1584—85 Sir Ralph Sadler acted as gaoler to Mary Queen of Scots in Tutbury Castle; but found the charge of her whom "he had held in his arms as a baby" so irksome, that he petitioned to be removed. After the execution of Mary, in whose trial he took part, he was again sent on a diplomatic errand to Scotland to announce to James VI. his mother's death, and to explain that Elizabeth was in no way to blame. This delicate mission, which he successfully accomplished, was his last, as he died a month or two later.

Papers of Sir Ralph Sadler with *Memoir* by Sir Walter Scott (1809); Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*

Sadoolapore, The Battle of (Dec. 3, 1848), was fought during the Sikh War. After the failure at Ramnuggur, Lord Gough ordered Sir Joseph Thackwell to cross the Chenab at Wuzeerabad and turn the Sikh position. Shere Sing thereupon withdrew from Ramnuggur, and the two armies met at the village of Sadoolapore. For two hours the British sustained the fire of the enemy without returning till they were fully in range, when their artillery opened with deadly effect. The Sikhs retired slowly, and Sir Joseph did not deem it wise to follow. The advantage of the action doubtless rested with Shere Sing, who had marched away at his own will to a better position, but Lord Gough thought fit to claim the victory. [Sikh War.]

St. Albans, in the immediate neighbourhood of the famous Roman municipium of Verulamium, is famous as the site of one of the greatest Benedictine abbeys. It gains its modern name from Alban, said to have been martyred there under Diocletian. The abbey was erected in his honour by Offa of Mercia in 796. The town dates from the days of Abbot Ulfsige, who built the three parish churches. The oppressions of the abbots led the town to join the peasants' revolt of 1381. In 1455 and 1461 two battles of more political than military importance were fought between the Yorkists and Lancastrians. The abbey church, made parochial at the Dissolution, was made a cathedral in 1877.

St. Albans, The First Battle of (1455), was the first engagement in the Wars of the Roses. It was brought about by the recovery of Henry VI. in 1455, and the termination of York's protectorate. The Somerset party were again in power, and York, seeing his influence at an end, determined to secure by force of arms the downfall of Somerset. Accordingly he collected troops in the north and marched towards London. The king advanced in force to meet him, and after a vain attempt at negotiation, a battle followed which, though only lasting half an hour, had most important

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Photo: Emery Walker.

FRANCIS BACON, VISCOUNT ST. ALBANS.

From the portrait by Paul van Somer in the National Portrait Gallery.

results. Somerset was slain, together with other Lancastrian nobles, the king wounded, and York completely victorious.

St. Albans, The Second Battle of (1461), was fought by Queen Margaret and the Lancastrians against the Earl of Warwick. After the victory at Wakefield Margaret marched towards London, and was met at St. Albans by Warwick. The Lancastrians gained the day, the king was released, and Warwick compelled to retire. But with incredible folly the results of the battle were altogether thrown away. London was not occupied, nor was the Earl of Warwick prevented from effecting a junction with Edward. The Lancastrians retired to the north, and within a fortnight the Yorkists were in possession of London, and Edward recognised as king.

St. Albans, The Council of (Aug. 4, 1213), was one of the general councils of John's reign. It is extremely important in constitutional history as a step in the progress of the representative system, since it was attended, not merely by the great barons, but by representatives (the reeve and four others) of the people of the towns in the royal demesne. The Council was called by the Justiciar Geoffrey Fitz-Peter, who promised to abide by the laws of Henry I. henceforth. In the same year, in a summons to a Council at Oxford (of the proceedings of which there is no record; indeed, it is possible that it never met), each of the sheriffs is ordered to send four discreet men from his shire.

St. Albans, Francis Bacon, Viscount (*b.* 1561, *d.* 1626), often called (though of course incorrectly) Lord Bacon, was the son of Sir Nicholas Bacon, Lord Keeper under Elizabeth. At twelve he was sent to Cambridge, at sixteen he became a member of Gray's Inn, and went to France in the retinue of the English ambassador, Sir Amyas Paulet. Here he stayed a couple of years, until he was recalled to England by the death of his father. Left with but scanty means, he now applied himself assiduously to the study of law, and began that long struggle for preferment in which was spent the greater part of his life. In 1584 he entered Parliament, and in 1586 became a Bencher. But for some years after this he made no progress. Lord Burleigh, to whom he naturally looked for assistance—for the Treasurer had married the sister of Bacon's mother—distrusted him, and paid no attention to his frequent appeals; while the younger Cecil was probably jealous of his cousin's ability, and constantly threw obstacles in his way. In 1593, however, Bacon's friendship with Essex seemed about to open to him the path to distinction. The place of Attorney-General became vacant, and Essex demanded it for him, but in vain; for the influence of the Cecils was victorious, and their nominee Coke was appointed. From this time dates that bitter rivalry between Bacon and the great master of the common law, which was ultimately to bring about the fall of both. Essex failed even to gain for his friend the Solicitor's place, and attempted to console him by the gift of an estate worth some £1,800. Yet in spite of the many services Essex had rendered to him, Bacon took a prominent part on the side of the crown in the prosecution of the earl for high treason, and was employed to write a pamphlet to justify the action of the government.

At James's accession, Bacon, with a crowd of others, was knighted. He was a prominent figure in the Parliament of 1604, and, while acting as spokesman of the Commons, pleased the king by flattery, and by the skill with which he arranged compromises, especially in the matter of the Buckinghamshire election. On the question of the union of the two kingdoms Bacon heartily sympathised with the king; he was appointed to draw up the proposals to be laid before the commission, and as a member of it argued ably in support of James's project. In 1606 he married Alice Barnham, an alderman's daughter. In June, 1607, he at last gained a foothold upon the ladder of promotion, and became Solicitor-General. As such his work was chiefly of a routine character; in the Commons, however, he took a leading part in the discussions upon the Great Contract. After Salisbury's death, in 1612, Bacon was able to come into closer contact with the king, and henceforth his rapid rise was certain. In Oct., 1613, he was made Attorney-General; but though this office gave him a prominent place among the royal ministers, his work was but to carry out and defend royal decisions, and he had no influence upon the general policy of the government. He took part in the trials of Peacham and Somerset, defended the benevolence of 1614—15, and assisted in the humiliation of Chief Justice Coke in 1616. Having succeeded in gaining the favour of Buckingham, Bacon became Lord Keeper in March, 1617, in Jan., 1618, Chancellor, in the July of the same year Baron Verulam, and in Jan., 1621, Viscount St. Albans. He was still a mere agent of the government, and when he chanced unintentionally to offend Buckingham in the matter of the marriage of Coke's daughter, he had to make a degrading submission.

When Parliament met in January, 1621, there was no sign of any public hostility to the Chancellor. The Commons were eager to join the king in a contest with Spain, but James refused to declare for a war policy; whereupon the Commons in disgust turned to the discussion of domestic grievances. Foremost amongst these were the monopolies. An attack began upon the referees, *i.e.*, those law officers (including Bacon) and others who

had certified to the legality of the monopolies; and Coke, now one of the leaders of the House, turned the assault especially upon the Chancellor. Meantime a committee had been sitting to inquire into abuses in the courts of justice. Apparently to the surprise of the world, Bacon was in March accused of having received bribes; the Lords, after hearing witnesses, were convinced of his guilt; and, what is most strange of all, Bacon made no attempt to defend himself, but threw himself on the mercy of the Lords and the king. Yet it is the opinion of Mr. Gardiner, who has given a detailed account of the most important accusations brought against him, that "the charge that Bacon knowingly and corruptly sold or delayed justice falls entirely to the ground. The only possible explanation of his conduct is that, with his usual carelessness of forms, he contented himself with knowing that the immediate reception of the money, which he believed himself to have fairly earned, would not influence his decision; in other words, that without a corrupt motive he accepted money corruptly tendered" (*Hist.*, iv. 81). Bacon saw that the attack was due to political animosity, and that no defence would save him; by complete submission he might escape with a more lenient sentence. Moreover, though he was confident, and justly, of his own integrity, he could not fail to see how evil was the practice which he had allowed to continue: "I was the justest judge that was in England these fifty years. But it was the justest censure in Parliament that was these two hundred years." He was sentenced to a heavy fine, to imprisonment during royal pleasure, to exclusion from Parliament, office, and court. The fine was remitted and Bacon was released from the Tower after two or three days' imprisonment; but, though his advice was occasionally sought by the government, he never again obtained office, and spent the remaining years of his life entirely in literary work.

More important, perhaps, than the events of his life are the political theories which he consistently advocated. His ideal was a paternal monarchy. The king, aiming at the good of his people, able to employ the wisest counsellors, and possessed of wide information, must be better able to guide the nation aright than the unorganised body of well-meaning country gentlemen called the House of Commons, though he ought to use their help and explain his purposes to them. The work of government demanded an intellectual power such as trained statesmen alone possessed; the king, unmoved by the interests of any class, could provide for the welfare of all classes better than lawyers or squires. Yet facts proved too strong for Bacon, as they afterwards proved too strong for Strafford, who may be regarded as a Bacon in power. Bacon was employed as a useful tool; he was seldom seriously consulted on important matters. None of his great projects were carried out, and while he was holding up in many a carefully written state paper the picture of a patriot king, the country was being governed by Buckingham. Bacon's life was a dual one. His dominant interest was the increase of human knowledge by the new way which he could teach (*Advancement of Learning*, 1605; *Novum Organum*, 1620). There will always be a question as to the relation between Bacon's active and speculative life. Probably he wished for power chiefly because it would enable him to carry out his great plans for the social good.

The main sources of information about Bacon are his *Works*, edited with most valuable introductions, &c., by Spedding and Ellis. For Bacon in relation to the history of the time, Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng.*, especially vol. iv., must be consulted. See also Charles de Rémusat, *Bacon sa Vie, &c.* A very useful short biography is written by R. W. Church. Kuno Fischer, *Franz Bacon von Verulam und Seine Nachfolger*, is an exhaustive statement of Bacon's philosophical position. [W. J. A.]

St. Aldwyn, Viscount. [Hicks-Beach, Sir Michael.]

St. Brice's Day, The Massacre of (Nov. 13, 1002), is said to have been occasioned by the report that the Danes in England had formed a plot for murdering the king and the Witan. Accordingly orders were sent forth that all the Danes should be slain. Mr. Freeman thinks the story of the massacre has been greatly exaggerated, and that it only included those Danes who had stayed behind from Sweyn's army.

St. Carilef, William of, or Saint Calais, was first Prior of St. Calais in Maine, and then Abbot of St. Victor's in Le Mans, and ultimately became Bishop of Durham in 1080. Famous in the history of his see for substituting monks for secular canons in his cathedral church, he has a place in history as the foremost adviser of William Rufus in the beginning of his reign. The chronicler of Peterborough says (*s.a.* 1088), "So well did the king to the bishop that all England followed his counsel and did so as he would." But in a few months he joined the feudal movement against William, apparently under circumstances of great treachery. Involved in the general failure, his temporalities were seized, his lands were ravaged, and he himself brought to trial before the king's court. "His trial," says Mr. Freeman, "is of great constitutional importance, both as illustrating the procedure of the Norman courts at an early stage of development, and because in the course of it William made the first recorded appeal to Rome against the judgment of the 'Wise Men.'" After every legal subtlety had been exhausted, William was banished to Normandy. But in 1091 he was restored to his see, and again exercised great

influence over Rufus. The first appellant to Rome now figures as the king's adviser against Anselm. But in 1095 he reverted to his old policy by joining the feudal rising of Mowbray, and only his death on Jan. 1, 1096, saved him from a second trial before the Witenagemot. He was buried in the chapter-house, that the monks who loved their founder might ever have his tomb before their eyes. Apart from his liberality to his church, he appears in history as a thoroughly unscrupulous man.

The only full account of William of St. Calais is in Freeman's *William Rufus*, vol. i., and vol. ii., note c. Mr. Freeman complains of the scanty notice taken of the story by modern writers.

St. Charles, in Lower Canada, was the scene of the defeat of the Canadian rebels in 1837 by Colonel Wetherall.

St. Denis, in Lower Canada, was the scene of a partial victory of the Canadian rebels in 1837 over the government troops under Colonel Gore.

St. Eustache, in Lower Canada, was the scene (1837) of the total defeat of the rebel Canadians under Girod by Sir J. Colborne. This was the last skirmish in the Canadian insurrection.

St. Giles's Fields, The Meeting in (1414), was planned by the Lollards. A large body (report said a hundred thousand in number) was to assemble in St. Giles's Fields outside London, where they would be met by thousands of city apprentices, and headed by Sir John Oldcastle. Their design, it was said, was to murder the king and his brothers, make Oldcastle regent, and destroy all the cathedrals and monasteries in the land. The vigilance of Henry V. defeated their designs; the gates of the city were closed, and St. Giles's Fields occupied by troops, who easily put the insurgents to flight.

St. Helena, an island in the South Atlantic, was discovered (1501) by Juan de Nova Castella, a Portuguese navigator; in 1513 a small settlement was formed by some Portuguese, but had only a short existence. In 1588 the island was visited by Captain Cavendish, and in 1645 was occupied by the Dutch, who, however, relinquished it in 1651 for the Cape of Good Hope. About 1662 the East India Company obtained a charter for the occupation of the island from Charles II., and a large settlement was speedily formed. In 1672 the island was surprised and captured by the Dutch, but was retaken in the following year. It was held by the East India Company until 1833, when it was surrendered to the British government. St. Helena is celebrated as having been the place of imprisonment of Napoleon Bonaparte, who died there (1821). General Cronje, Colonel Schiel, and a large number of Boers were shipped to St. Helena in 1900 as prisoners of war. The garrison was withdrawn from the island in 1906.

St. John, Oliver (*b. circa* 1598, *d.* 1673), a prominent lawyer and politician of the time of Charles I., was called to the bar in 1626, and soon identified himself with the popular party. He distinguished himself by his defence of Hampden in the question of Ship-money. He was an active member of the Short and Long Parliaments, and in January, 1641, the king, with a view of conciliating the popular party, made St. John Solicitor-General. Notwithstanding this, he was one of the managers of Strafford's impeachment, and on every occasion opposed the wishes of the king, till at last, in 1643, he was removed from his office. He was made by Parliament one of the Commissioners of the Great Seal in 1643, and held this office till 1646. In 1648 he was appointed Chief Justice of the Common Pleas, and was soon after made a member of the Council of State. He was closely connected with Cromwell by marriage, and supported him in his expulsion of Parliament, but was opposed to the Protectorate, though we subsequently find him favouring the idea of kingship, and he was one of the members of Cromwell's House of Lords. After Cromwell's death he supported the Parliament against the army, and on the Restoration he very narrowly escaped being excepted from the Act of Indemnity. The rest of his life was passed in retirement. His character is painted in unfavourable colours by all historians. Mr. Carlyle speaks of him as "a dusky, tough man, whose abstruse fanaticisms, crabbed logics, and dark ambition issue all in dreaded avarice at last;" and Clarendon describes him as being "a man reserved, of a dark and clouded countenance, very proud and conversing with very few, and those men of his own humour and inclinations."

Carlyle, *Cromwell's Letters and Specches*; Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion*; May, *Hist. of the Long Parliament*.

St. Kitt's (St. Christopher's), one of the Leeward Islands, was discovered by Columbus, 1493, and was the first West Indian island colonised by the English; they settled there under Sir Thomas Warner (1623), who three years later was made governor of the island by Charles I. In 1629 the colony was attacked by the Spaniards, and many of the settlers killed. Part of the island was occupied by French planters, between whom and the English there was a perpetual internal war; which lasted until the island was finally ceded to the English by the Peace of Utrecht, 1713. In 1782 St. Kitt's was taken by the French, and in 1805 was again ravaged by a party of marauders of the same nation. The government, which was representative, was vested in a lieutenant-governor, a legis-

lative and executive council, and a house of representatives. In 1871 St. Kitt's joined the federation of the Leeward Islands; its local government is that of a Crown colony, but it sends representatives to the Federal Council of the Leeward Islands. The chief production of the island is sugar.

R. M. Martin, *British Colonies.*

St. Leger, Sir Anthony, was sent over to Ireland in 1537 as commissioner of forfeited lands, and in August, 1540, became Lord Deputy. His government was vigorous and successful. He subdued the Kavanaghs, and their chief had to give up the title of "The MacMurrough." At a Parliament held by him about this time, even Desmond attended, and this was considered a great achievement. He was able to send Irish troops to Scotland and France to take part in the king's wars. In 1546 he subdued the long refractory clans of the O'Moores and O'Connors. In 1551 Sir James Croft succeeded him as Lord Deputy, but he was again Lord Deputy from 1553 to 1556. His sons both in turn became Lord Presidents of Munster.

St. Leger, Sir Warham, son of Sir Anthony St. Leger, succeeded in relieving Haddington, 1548, when besieged by the French and Scotch. In 1566 he defeated Shane O'Neil, and in 1579 did good service in the Desmond rebellion in spite of Ormonde's opinion of him, that he was "an old alehouse knight, malicious, impudent, void of honesty; an arrogant ass that had never courage, honesty, or truth in him."

St. Leonards, Edward Burtenshaw Sugden, Lord (*b.* 1781, *d.* 1875), was the son of a hairdresser of Duke Street, Westminster. He was called to the bar at Lincoln's Inn (1807). In 1822 he became a king's counsel and bencher of Lincoln's Inn. He at different times was returned to the House of Commons for Weymouth, Melcombe Regis, and St. Mawes; took a prominent part in Parliamentary discussions, and was foremost among those who opposed the Reform Bill. In June, 1829, when the Duke of Wellington was Prime Minister, he was appointed Solicitor-General; and in 1834, when Sir R. Peel formed a ministry, Sir Edward Sugden went to Ireland as Lord Chancellor. Resigning that office on the retirement of the cabinet, he was returned for the House of Commons for Ripon, and vacated his seat in September, 1841, on resuming under Sir R. Peel's ministry his position as Lord Chancellor of Ireland, in which he continued until the disruption of the Conservative party in 1846. For some time he did not figure prominently in public affairs, but accepted the post of Lord Chancellor in Lord Derby's first administration in 1852, and was raised to the peerage as Lord St. Leonards. In 1858 Lord Derby was desirous that Lord St. Leonards should again receive the Great Seal, but he declined the responsibility in consequence of his advanced age, though he afterwards took an active and influential part in the business of Parliament, and exerted himself to keep up the character and efficiency of the House of Lords as a judicial tribunal, and to correct by legislation several anomalies in the law of property.

Campbell, *Lives of the Chancellors.*

St. Lucia, one of the Windward Islands, was discovered by Columbus in 1502. In 1635 it was taken possession of by the French, and four years later an English settlement was formed on the island, though the colonists were almost all murdered shortly afterwards by the natives. In 1664 the island was taken by an English expedition from Barbadoes, headed by Lord Willoughby, but was evacuated in 1667. In 1718 St. Lucia was granted by Louis XV. to Marshal D'Estrées, and in 1722 by George I. to the Duke of Montague. The result was a collision between the two parties of colonists (1723), which ended in a compromise; by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748) the neutrality of the island was recognised, but in 1756 it was seized and garrisoned by the French, to whom it was given up by the Treaty of Paris (1763). In 1778 it was again taken by the English, and held by them for five years, at the end of which time it was exchanged for Grenada. In 1794 it was taken by Lord St. Vincent, but evacuated in the following year, though in 1796 it again fell into the hands of a British expedition, under Sir Ralph Abercromby. In 1802 St. Lucia was restored to France by the Peace of Amiens, but the next year was taken by General Greenfield, and has ever since remained under British rule.

Martin, *Colonies;* B. Edwardes, *West Indies.*

St. Mary's Clyst, The Battle of (Aug. 3, 1549), was fought near Topsham in Devonshire, between the royal troops and the West Country insurgents; the latter were defeated after a severe engagement.

St. Patrick, The Apostle of Ireland, was born at Kilpatrick, Dumbartonshire, Scotland, in 373. When sixteen years old, Patrick was carried off in a raid of Picts and Scots and sold to an Irish chief. Six years afterwards Patrick escaped to France, and lived as a monk at Tours and Lérins. In 405 he went as a missionary to Ireland. His preaching was highly successful. Patrick died, probably at Antrim, in 463.

St. Ruth (*d.* 1691), a distinguished French general, arrived at Limerick in 1691, to take command of the Irish army. He had commanded Irish troops in Savoy, and did his best to discipline his forces. Unfortunately, he quarrelled with both Sarsfield and Tyrconnel. Irritated at the capture of Athlone, he deter-

mined to give battle to the English in opposition to the advice of his Irish officers. At Aghrim, at the critical moment of the battle, his head was carried off by a cannon-ball.

Macariæ Excidium; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*

St. Vincent, one of the Windward Islands, was discovered by Columbus (1498). In 1627 it was granted by Charles I. to Lord Carlisle, but no permanent settlement was made in the island until 1719, when some French colonists came from Martinique. In 1748 the neutrality of St. Vincent was recognised by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, but in 1762 the island was taken by the English and confirmed to them by the Treaty of Paris in the following year; in 1779 it again fell into the hands of the French, but was restored to England by the Treaty of Versailles (1783). In 1794 an insurrection broke out amongst the natives owing to the intrigues of the French planters, and on its suppression 5,000 negroes were sent out of the island. The government of St. Vincent, which extends to some of the Grenadine Islands, is vested in an administrator, an executive council, and a legislative council of four official and three unofficial members. The chief wealth of the island is derived from sugar, coffee, and cotton.

Shephard, *Hist. of St. Vincent*; Martin, *Colonies.*

St. Vincent. John Jervis, Earl (*b.* 1735, *d.* 1823), entered the navy at the early age of twelve, and first saw active service in the expedition against Quebec in 1759, after which he was promoted to be a commander. In 1774 he was appointed to command a ship of eighty-four guns, and in 1778 took a distinguished part in Keppel's engagement off Brest. In 1782 he was knighted for capturing a large French ship when separated from the rest of his fleet by a fog. In 1784 he was returned to Parliament for North Yarmouth. In 1790 he was returned for Wycombe, and was at the same time promoted to be rear-admiral. He vacated his seat on the outbreak of war, and was despatched to the West Indies. His health suffered considerably, but in 1795 he took the command in the Mediterranean, where he won the battle off Cape St. Vincent. Created Earl St. Vincent, he rendered invaluable service in the mutiny of the sailors, by his resolution and prudence. In 1800 he was appointed to command the Channel fleet in succession to Lord Bridport, but threw up the command in the next year on being appointed to preside over the Admiralty. There he set to work to reform some of the many abuses which had long existed in the management of the navy. In May, 1804, he was superseded by Viscount Melville, and on Fox's accession to office in 1806, again took the command of the Channel fleet. In that year he was accused in the House of Commons of "gross neglect in the building and repairing of ships." The charge was, however, refuted by most convincing details: and Fox moved that "the conduct of the Earl St. Vincent, in his late naval administration, has given an additional lustre to his exalted character, and merits the approbation of the House." The motion was agreed to without a division. In the following March, Earl St. Vincent retired from his command, but devoted some of his time to politics, and was a keen opponent of the Perceval ministry. In 1814 he was appointed Governor of Marines, and in 1821 Admiral of the Fleet. A great and original commander at sea, Earl St. Vincent gained by his impartial justice the love and admiration of his men, and when he was appointed to the Admiralty he devoted all his energies to put an end to the terrible abuses which were almost undermining the strength of the navy.

Allen, *Battles of the British Navy*; James, *Naval Hist.*; Alison, *Hist. of Europe.*

St. Vincent, The Battle of Cape (Feb. 14, 1797), ended in the complete defeat of the Spanish fleet. The Spanish admiral, having been falsely informed that Sir John Jervis had only nine ships, determined to attack him with his twenty-seven. Nelson, sailing to join the English fleet, had fallen in with the Spaniards, and on arriving at Sir John's station off Cape St. Vincent on Feb. 13, informed him of the enemy's movements. The next morning the Spaniards hove in sight, and were attacked before they could form in line. By a rapid movement, Sir John passed through their fleet, and thus at once cut off nine ships, which were unable to join their companions, and soon took to flight. The admiral then devoted his attention to the main body, and gave the signal to attack in succession. Nelson, in the rear, using his own judgment, disobeyed the order, and at once came into action with seven Spanish ships at once. He was joined by Trowbridge, and together for nearly an hour they supported this unequal contest. Then Collingwood came up, and took two of the ships off his hands. By these tactics Nelson prevented the main body from joining the nine separated ships, or from getting off without an engagement. The battle was confined chiefly to that part of the fleet which Nelson had engaged. These, however, formed the most important part of the fleet, and they were nearly all captured. The greater number of the enemy's ships got safely away without being severely engaged. Sir John Jervis fully recognised the great service rendered by Nelson, and publicly thanked him. The victory was decisive, and for some time rendered the Spanish fleet almost powerless. The news of it was received in England with rapturous applause, and Jervis was created an earl.

James, *Naval Hist.*; Southey, *Life of Nelson*; Harrison, *Life of Nelson*; Alison, *Hist. of Europe.*

Salabut Jung (*d.* 1782), son of the Nizam-ul-Mulk, was appointed to the sovereignty of the Deccan on the death of Mirzapha Jung, in 1751, without grown-up children. His elevation was the result of Bussy's influence, and his close adherence to the enterprising Frenchman made the French masters of the whole Deccan. A quarrel soon broke out between the Nizam and Bussy, which, though healed for a time, became permanent in 1759. This threw Salabut Jung into the hands of the English, with whom he speedily concluded a treaty, and was recognised as lawful Nizam by the Treaty of Paris.

Mill, *Hist. of India.*

Saladin Tithe, The, was levied in 1188 for the support of the Crusaders against the powerful Saracen chief, Saladin. Its chief importance lies in the fact that it is the first instance of a tax on personal property, a tenth of all movables being exacted from clergy and laity alike, except those who had themselves taken the cross. It is also interesting as illustrating the employment of jury to assess doubtful cases.

Stubbs, *Select Charters.*

Salamanca, The Battle of (July 22, 1812), was one of the most decisive of Wellington's victories in Spain. At noon, Marmont, whose object was to cut off the English retreat, despatched the whole of his left wing to seize the road from Salamanca to Ciudad Rodrigo, while many of his troops were still marching through a thick forest of cork trees. Wellington at once perceived the opportunity of cutting off the entire left wing thus separated from the rest of the army. The English hurried down from their vantage-ground on the hills, and at five o'clock Pakenham fell upon the head of Marmont's division, which was marching in disorder, under the idea that the British were in full retreat. In half an hour the French left was utterly overwhelmed, and fell back in hopeless confusion upon the centre and right, both of which were already retiring before the attacks of the fourth and fifth divisions. The chief French generals had fallen, and the command devolved on Clausel, who tried to form a connection with the remnants of Marmont's division. But before the French could rally, the English cavalry, supported by infantry, were upon them; and what the former left undone, the latter completed. Even now Clausel attempted to retrieve the disaster. Bringing up some fresh troops, he made so fierce an attack on the fourth and fifth divisions, already exhausted by their previous struggles, that they were only saved from destruction by the arrival of Clinton with the sixth division, which had been hitherto unengaged. Their arrival finally decided the battle. The French were hopelessly routed, and it required great skill on Foy's part to save even the relics of his army. Meanwhile the road to Madrid was now open to Wellington. [Peninsular War.]

Napier, *Peninsular War;* Clinton, *Peninsular War.*

Salar Jung, Sir (*d.* 1883), was descended from the great Meer Allum. In 1853 he was appointed minister to the Nizam. Under his able management the Hyderabad State continued to prosper. He never swerved in his allegiance to England, even during the Indian Mutiny. In 1860 he was made a Knight of the Star of India. He continued to rule the Hyderabad State with judgment and beneficence until his death.

Salbhye, The Treaty of (May 17, 1782), was concluded between the East India Company and Scindia on behalf of the Mahrattas. Its stipulations were that all territory acquired by the English since the Treaty of Poorunder should be restored; that the Guicowar should be replaced in his original position in Guzerat; that Ragoba should be allowed three lacs of rupees a year; that Hyder should be required to relinquish all his conquests in the Carnatic, and to release all his prisoners within six months, and, in case of refusal, should be attacked by the forces of the Peishwa.

Sale, Sir Robert (*b.* 1782, *d.* 1845), after a long and distinguished military career, commanded a column in the second Burmese War. He went with the Afghan expedition in 1839, and was present at the siege of Ghuzni, where he was severely wounded in a hand-to-hand encounter. After the occupation of Cabul and the evacuation of Afghanistan, he retired into Jellalabad for winter quarters. Here he was besieged by Akbar Khan (Jan.–April, 1842), but raised the siege before the arrival of General Pollock's relieving force. He was killed at Moodkee.

Salisbury was the seat of a bishopric which was transferred to it from the adjacent town of Old Sarum in 1217. The Sarum bishopric had been founded in 1058. In 1295 Old Sarum returned a member to Parliament, though Salisbury, or New Sarum, was even then a more important place, and did so regularly from 1360 to 1832, till disfranchised by the Reform Act of 1832. The cathedral of Salisbury was begun in 1220.

Salisbury, Councils at. (1) In 1086, after the completion of the Doomsday Survey, William I. summoned a meeting of all the landowners of England, "of whomsoever they hold their lands," to take the national oath of allegiance to himself. (2) In 1116 a similar gathering was convoked by Henry I. to swear to the succession of the Etheling William. These councils were of great constitutional importance as illustrating the permanence of the national element in the English state during the most flourishing period of feudalism.

Salisbury, John de Montacute, Earl of (*d.* 1400), nephew of the second earl, was one of Richard II.'s chief friends. He took part in the proceedings against Gloucester in 1397, and in 1400 joined the conspiracy against Henry IV. He was seized by the people at Cirencester, and beheaded without trial.

Salisbury, John of (*d.* 1180), studied at Paris under Abelard, and other great philosophers of the day. On his return to England he was made Secretary to Archbishop Theobald, and through his influence was employed by the king on diplomatic errands. He was the confidential adviser of Becket, and shared his disgrace and exile. In 1176 he was made Bishop of Chartres, which see he held for four years. His most important work is the *Polycraticus*, in which he attacks the vices of the age, and particularly those of the court. Besides this, he wrote a life of his friend Becket, and numerous letters of his have been preserved. and are of considerable historical value.

Salisbury, Richard Neville, Earl of (*b.* 1400, *d.* 1460), was a son of Ralph Neville, Earl of Westmoreland, and obtained the earldom of Salisbury by marrying Alice, heiress of Thomas Montacute. He served in France under his brother-in-law, the Duke of York, became Warden of the West Marches, and strenuously opposed the surrender of the English princes in France. He was a strong opponent of Somerset, and in 1459 Lord Audley was commissioned to arrest him, but he defeated Audley at Blore Heath. For this he was attainted and obliged to flee to Calais. In the next year he returned and joined the Duke of York, but being defeated and taken prisoner at Wakefield, he was beheaded. His eldest son was the famous Earl of Warwick.

Salisbury, Robert Cecil, Earl of (*b.* 1563, *d.* 1612), the son of Lord Burleigh by his second wife, after a somewhat distinguished Parliamentary career, was appointed a Secretary of State in 1596, in spite of the intrigues of the Earl of Essex to procure that office for Sir Thomas Bodley. On the death of his father, Sir Robert managed to obtain a large share of the queen's confidence, and so roused the enmity of Essex as to cause him to attempt his removal from court: Cecil was subsequently a chief instrument in the earl's disgrace and fall. During the last few years of Elizabeth's life, Cecil was engaged in a secret correspondence with James, and on her death was the first to proclaim the new king, by whom he was confirmed in all his offices. Cecil, who was the bitter enemy of Spain, found himself at variance with James on that point, but nevertheless managed to become so indispensable a minister that he was created in 1604 Viscount Cranborne, and in the following year Earl of Salisbury. In 1608, on the death of the Earl of Dorset, he became Lord Treasurer, and acquired immense power, being practically the king's only minister; he died in 1612, as it was said "of too much business." The four years of his government were marked by vigorous administration, and by disputes on the question of the prerogative of the crown in taxation, the crowning example of which was the issue of the *Book of Rates*. [James I.] Salisbury was a man of wisdom and experience, who kept up the traditions of Elizabeth's government in the court of James.

Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng. 1603—1642*; Tytler, *Life of Raleigh*; Hume, *Treason and Plot.*

Salisbury, Robert Arthur Talbot Gascoigne Cecil, 3rd Marquis of (*b.* 1830, *d.* 1903), was educated at Eton and Christ Church, Oxford; was elected to a fellowship at All Souls' College, and was returned to Parliament for Stamford as Conservative in 1853. He represented that borough till 1868, when he succeeded to the marquisate. In Lord Derby's third administration he was, in July, 1866, appointed Secretary of State for India, but resigned on the Reform Bill in the following year. In 1869 he was elected Chancellor of the University of Oxford, to succeed Lord Derby. In 1874 he again took office as Secretary of State for India. During his tenure of office he introduced and carried the University Commission Bill for the reform of the colleges of the two universities. In 1878 he became Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, and in that capacity accompanied Lord Beaconsfield to the Conference at Berlin. He retired from office with his chief (1880); and on the death of the latter became leader of the Conservative party in the House of Lords. In 1885 he became Premier and Foreign Secretary, and was again Prime Minister in 1886, taking in addition (Jan., 1887) the Foreign Secretary's portfolio. In 1895 he once more became Premier and Foreign Secretary. He resigned office in 1902.

Salisbury, Thomas, one of the six conspirators in the Babington Plot who were specially told off to assassinate Elizabeth, was executed at Tyburn (September, 1586).

Salisbury, William Montacute, 1st Earl of, was, as Lord Montacute, one of Edward III.'s chief friends and advisers, and devised the plan for seizing Mortimer. For his services he was made Seneschal of Aquitaine and Lord of Man, and in 1337 Earl of Salisbury. He was admiral of the fleet, and took a prominent part in the Scotch and French wars. He died in 1344.

Salomons' Case. In 1851 Mr. Alderman Salomons, a Jew, was returned for the borough of Greenwich, made his appearance in Parliament, and took the oaths, omitting the words "on the true faith of a Christian." He was directed to withdraw. Later, however, he entered the House and took his seat above the bar, and was only removed by the interposition of the Serjeant-at-Arms. The House of Commons agreed to a resolution in

the same form as in the case of the Baron de Rothschild. "In the meantime, however," says Sir Erskine May, "he had not only sat in the House, but had voted in three divisions; and if the House had done him an injustice, there was now an opportunity for obtaining a judicial construction of the statutes by the courts of law. By the judgment of the Court of Exchequer affirmed by the Court of Exchequer Chamber, it was soon placed beyond further doubt that no authority short of a statute was competent to dispense with those words which Mr. Salomons had omitted from the oath of abjuration." [JEWS; OATHS.]

Hansard, *Debates*, 3rd ser., cxviii. 979, 1320.

Sampford Courtenay, THE BATTLE OF (August, 1549), was fought between Lord Russell and the Western insurgents, resulting in the final defeat of the latter. Sampford is a village on the slopes of Dartmoor. On Whit Sunday the revolt had begun at the same place by the people compelling the priest to read mass in Latin instead of the new service book.

Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*, vol. v.

Sampson, THOMAS (*b.* 1517, *d.* 1589), one of the Reformers of the reign of Edward VI., was compelled to live abroad during the Marian persecution on account of his religious opinions. After the accession of Elizabeth he returned to England and became Dean of Christ Church. In 1567 he was imprisoned for Nonconformity.

Neal, *Hist. of Puritans.*

Sanchia, second wife of Richard of Cornwall, King of the Romans, was the daughter of Count Raymond of Provence, and the sister of Eleanor, wife of Henry III.

Sancroft, WILLIAM (*b.* 1617, *d.* 1693), Archbishop of Canterbury, was born at Fressingfield, in Suffolk, and educated at Emmanuel College, Cambridge. Ejected from his fellowship in 1649 for royalism, he remained in exile till Charles II.'s accession. In 1662 he was made master of his college, afterwards Dean of York and Dean of St. Paul's, and in 1677 archbishop. Soon after the accession of James II. he came into collision with the king. On the promulgation of the Declaration of Indulgence, Sancroft and six of his suffragans presented a petition to the king against the measure. In consequence, the seven prelates were committed to the Tower (June, 1688), and tried in the Court of King's Bench for misdemeanour (June 28), but the jury, in spite of pressure from the government, acquitted them. Sancroft was an honest but narrow-minded man, a strong Tory and High Churchman. Though he led the Seven Bishops against James II., he advocated the regency scheme in the Convention Parliament, and ended by refusing to take the oaths to William and Mary. He was deprived of his see in 1690, and died three years later at Fressingfield.

Miss Strickland, *Lives of the Seven Bishops;* Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*

Sanctuary was the name given to a place privileged as a safe refuge for criminals and political offenders. All churches and churchyards were, down to Henry VIII.'s time, invested with this protective power. The possible stay in sanctuary of any fugitive was strictly limited to a period of forty days, at the expiration of which time he was bound to quit the realm by the nearest port assigned him by the coroner to whom he had communicated the circumstances of his case. During his journey to the sea-coast for the purpose of carrying out this self-banishment, the claimant of sanctuary privileges was guaranteed immunity from molestation as he journeyed on, cross in hand. In Henry III.'s reign, Hubert de Burgh's non-compliance with the forty days' sanctuary regulation placed him in the hands of his enemies. By Henry VII.'s time, the custom of sanctuary was very much abused, having become the means of shielding criminals of all kinds from justice, and at his request Pope Innocent VIII. made three important alterations in it. First, that if a man, while enjoying the privileges of sanctuary, should take advantage of his position to commit some further offence against the laws of his country, he should at once and for ever forfeit the benefit of sanctuary; secondly, that the benefit of sanctuary should be strictly limited to a man's personal safety, and in no degree apply to the protection of his private property; thirdly, that when treason was the motive for seeking sanctuary, the king might have the offender specially looked to. By 27 Henry VIII., c. 19, sanctuary men were ordered to wear distinctive badges, and were forbidden to carry weapons, or to be out at nights, on pain of forfeiture of their privileges. Until the twenty-first year of James I., the custom still continued, and criminals continued to seek refuge in the places to which the privilege of sanctuary was attached; at this time, however, a statute was passed abolishing sanctuary privileges altogether.

Sanders, DR. NICHOLAS (*d.* 1581), was educated at Winchester, and afterwards became fellow of New College, Oxford. An ardent Romanist, he left England in 1558, and was present at the Council of Trent. In 1572 the English refugees sent him to Rome to try and get help. In 1575 he had to leave Rome without having accomplished anything. In 1577 he was in Spain, but was again unsuccessful. He in the same year published a book called, *The Origin and Progress of the English Schism.* He accompanied Stukeley, but, unable to persuade Philip to send more men, he remained in Spain. On July 17, 1579, he, as legate, landed with Fitzmaurice at Dingle. He attached himself to the Earl of Desmond, had many narrow escapes, and

left Smerwick (q.v.) before the siege, and died, possibly of want and exposure, in Ireland. His Latin history of the "Anglican Schism" called forth Bp. Burnet's *History of the Reformation*.

Sandilli was a Kaffir chief who took an active part in the war of 1846.

San Domingo is the name given by the Spaniards to the island of Hayti. It was discovered by Christopher Columbus about 1493, and soon became a valuable plantation. In 1586, war having broken out between England and Spain, Sir Francis Drake took the town of San Domingo. Meanwhile the western part of the island had been colonised by the French, and was ceded to them by the Treaty of Ryswick (q.v.). It was off San Domingo that Admiral Rodney, in 1782, defeated and captured the French admiral, De Grasse. After the English expeditions against the island ceased, it was contended for by the French and Spaniards, the native population being ready to rebel whenever a chance presented itself. The struggle for freedom on their part, under Toussaint L'Ouverture, in 1801, aroused great admiration in this country. The island is now divided between two republics, Hayti and San Domingo.

Sandwich, Edward Montagu, Earl of (*b.* 1625, *d.* 1672), son of Sir Sidney Montagu, took the popular side in the Civil Wars, fought at Marston Moor, and commanded a regiment in the New Model. In 1645 he entered the House of Commons as knight of the shire for Huntingdon, and acted with the Independents till 1648. In the years from 1648 to 1653 he took no part in political life, but in 1653 he was appointed one of the commissioners of the Admiralty, and joined Blake in the command of the fleet. In 1659 he communicated with the king, and used his command of the fleet charged to arbitrate between Denmark and Sweden, to forward the Restoration. For this service he was made Earl of Sandwich. In the first Dutch War he commanded a squadron at the battle of Harwich (June 3, 1665), and commanded at the attack on the Dutch fleet at Bergen (Aug. 12). Obliged by attacks in Parliament to give up the command of the fleet, he was appointed ambassador to Spain, and succeeded in 1668 in bringing about the treaty which secured the independence of Portugal. He was killed in the battle of Southwold Bay.

Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion* and *Life*; Pepys, *Diary*.

Sandwich, John, 4th Earl of (*b.* 1718, *d.* 1792), early in life obtained public offices of importance. As plenipotentiary to the States-General, he signed in 1748 the preliminaries of the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. He was made First Lord of the Admiralty on his return to England, and became so intimately connected with the Bedford faction, that when Pelham wished in 1751 to rid himself of that faction, he began by the dismissal of Lord Sandwich. During the next twelve years, Lord Sandwich was out of office, and was much more congenially employed with the gay brotherhood of Medmenham, of which he was a conspicuous member. In 1763 he became First Lord of the Admiralty, and the same year was made one of the Secretaries of State as a colleague of Lord Halifax. In this post he signalised himself by his violent denunciation of Wilkes, of whom he had but lately been a boon companion. As the head of a department, he was in his proper sphere, for his industry, as Walpole says, was so remarkable that the world mistook it for abilities. In 1765 he was guilty of using the meanest misrepresentation to the king in order to induce him to strike out the name of the Princess of Wales from the Regency Bill. The king was furiously indignant: and within two months dismissed the ministry. In 1767, when the Duke of Grafton made an alliance with the Bedford faction, Lord Sandwich "took over the salary and the patronage of the Post Office." He remained in that office until the Grafton ministry gave way to Lord North's administration, in which Sandwich returned to the Admiralty. He failed signally both in the general conduct of business and in reducing the revolted colonies. In April, 1779, Fox attacked him fiercely. Narrowly escaping a direct vote of censure, Sandwich fell with Lord North in 1782, and thenceforth lived in retirement, unrespected and unloved.

Walpole's Letters; Grenville Papers; Trevelyan, *Early Life of C. J. Fox.*

Sandys, Edwin, Archbishop of York (*b.* 1519, *d.* 1588), was at the time of Edward VI.'s death Vice-Chancellor of Cambridge and a zealous Protestant. He favoured Northumberland's scheme, and preached a powerful sermon in favour of Lady Jane Grey, for which he was sent to the Tower, and subsequently compelled to leave the country. On the accession of Elizabeth he returned to England and became Bishop of Worcester, and in 1570 Bishop of London, in which capacity he exhibited much rigour towards the Nonconformists. In 1576 he was made Archbishop of York.

Sandys, Samuel, was first returned for Worcester in 1718, but did not become prominent until 1741, when he was chosen to bring forward a motion for the removal of Sir Robert Walpole from the king's council. His speech, "probably concerted with the principal Opposition leaders, was elaborate and able." But the motion was lost by a large majority. On the fall of Walpole he became Chancellor of the Exchequer under Wilmington, but soon afterwards resigned office, being raised to the peerage and receiving a place in the royal household.

San Juan Award. The question as to the boundary westwards between Canada and the United States having been submitted to the arbitration of the German Emperor William, the following award was given:—That according to the Treaty of Washington (1846) the boundary, after it had been continued westward along the forty-ninth parallel of north latitude to the middle of the channel which separates the continent from Vancouver's Island, and had further been drawn southerly through the middle of the said channel and of Fuca Straits to the Pacific, should run through the canal of Haro as claimed by the United States, and not through the Rosario Straits as claimed by the British government. San Juan itself was a small island near Vancouver's Island, and by this award became American territory. It was evacuated by England in consequence (1872).

Sanquhar Declaration, The, was issued by Richard Cameron, Donald Cargill, and others of the extreme Covenanters at Sanquhar in Dumfriesshire (June, 1680). It declared that Charles II. had forfeited the crown of Scotland "by his perjury and breach of covenant both to God and His kirk." Charles was at the same time excommunicated by Cargill. [Cameronians.]

San Sebastian, The Siege of, during the last campaign of the war in the Peninsula (Aug. 31, 1813), was necessary, to enable Wellington to cross the Pyrenees and conduct the war in France. The first siege was begun on July 10, 1813; but an assault on the town on the 25th was repulsed with terrible loss. Wellington, repairing to San Sebastian, ordered Graham to turn the siege into a blockade. During nine days of ceaseless movement, ten engagements had been fought, the effect of which was that Soult was in retreat, while Wellington's position was so strong, that he was secure from offensive action on the part of the French, and could resume the siege of San Sebastian under the direction of Graham. The natural and artificial difficulties of the siege were very great, but they were intensified by the negligence of the government at home, who would not supply a sufficiently large fleet or suitable ammunition. Still the works went on gradually, under the energetic commander; various positions were successively won, and on the 30th, 500 yards of the eastern sea-front were laid open. On the morning of the 31st, the assault was made, and after a terrible attack the town was carried, though the castle held out. For some days the town became the scene of atrocities "which would have shamed the most ferocious barbarians of antiquity." When the troops had in some measure recovered, batteries were raised against the castle, which surrendered on Sept. 8, leaving Wellington free to transfer the war into the south of France.

Napier, *Peninsular War*; Clinton, *Peninsular War*.

Santal Revolt. The Santals were a tribe inhabiting the hill ranges of Rajmahal. Being harassed by the processes and bailiffs of the courts, and by the demands of Bengalee money-lenders, they suddenly rose in rebellion (July, 1855), and carried fire and destruction among the villages of the Europeans. No troops were available but the hill rangers, who were driven back. The railway now for the first time brought up troops; the rebels were hemmed in and hunted down; the cholera likewise made great havoc among them. The rebellion was extinguished on the last day of the year. The district was now converted into a non-regulation province, and placed in charge of a commissioner.

Saragossa, The Battle of (1710), was fought during the War of the Succession in Spain. After the defeat at Almanza, King Philip hastily retreated on Saragossa. The allies followed with difficulty. On Aug. 19 Stanhope found the Spaniards drawn up before Saragossa, with the Ebro on their left, a range of hills upon their right, and a deep ravine on their front. The Archduke Charles determined to risk a battle. Stanhope commanded the left of the allies formed of the English, Dutch, and Palatines, and eked out his cavalry by interspersing among them some battalions of foot. The allies' right wing consisted of Portuguese foot, and a part of the Germans under Count Atalaya. The Spaniards had about twenty-five, and the allies about twenty-three,thousand men. The left was the first to engage. Then the Portuguese at once made off, attracting large bodies of the enemy in pursuit. The remainder of the allies steadily stood their ground, and at length drove back the enemy. On the right, the Dutch and Germans soon threw the enemy into confusion. In the centre the veteran Spaniards, after a steady resistance to Staremberg, retreated in good order. Six thousand prisoners were taken, with a large number of cannon, and possession of Saragossa was secured to the victors. After considerable debate, the allies, in accordance with Stanhope's desire, advanced on Madrid.

Boyer, *Annals*; Stanhope, *War of the Succession in Spain*.

Sardinian Convention (1855). On Jan. 26 the King of Sardinia acceded to the convention between the English and French governments of April 10, 1854, and agreed to furnish and maintain at full for the requirements of the war 15,000 men under the command of a Sardinian general. By a separate article England and France agreed to guarantee the integrity of the king's dominions. England undertook the charges of transporting the troops to and from the Crimea, and under the treaty a recommendation was to be made to Parliament to advance a million sterling to the King of Sardinia at four per cent. [Crimean War.]

Saratoga, The Convention of (Oct., 1777), during the American War of Independence, was the closing scene of General Burgoyne's disastrous campaign, which resulted in his retreat on Saratoga, where he found himself (Oct. 10, 1777) with 3,500 men opposed to Gates with 13,216 men. Burgoyne, receiving no tidings of Clinton, with scarcity in his army developing almost into famine, made proposals for negotiations. Gates offered terms which were at once rejected as degrading, and not wishing to drive to despair a body of brave men, he finally agreed to the terms proposed by Burgoyne. The chief of these were that the troops should lay down their arms, and should be allowed a free passage to England, on condition that they would not again engage in the war, and that the treaty should be called a convention, and not a capitulation. These terms were agreed to on the 17th, and on that day the British troops marched out. The importance of the surrender was felt throughout the world, as was shown by the fact that France at once acknowledged the "Independent United States of America," and entered into a treaty with them. Spain followed the lead of France, and Holland did not long remain neutral. Lord Stanhope has said of it, that "even of those great conflicts, in which hundreds of thousands have been engaged, and tens of thousands have fallen, none has been more fruitful of results than this surrender of thirty-five hundred fighting men at Saratoga."

Bancroft, *Hist. of Amer. Rev.*, iii., c. 24; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*, vi., c. 56; Gordon, *American War*; Creasy, *Decisive Battles*.

Sarsfield, Patrick (*d.* 1693), was an Irish Jacobite of great military genius. He held a commission in the English life-guards, and served under Monmouth on the continent. He fought brilliantly at the battle of Sedgemoor against his former general. Soon after the landing of the Prince of Orange he was defeated in a skirmish at Wincanton. He sat for the county of Dublin in the Irish Parliament of 1688. In 1689 he was sent by James II. as commander into Connaught. He secured Galway, and drove the English from Sligo. Shortly afterwards James created him Earl of Lucan. He was present at the battle of the Boyne, and insisted on making a stand at Limerick against the advice of Tyrconnel. He surprised the English artillery and compelled William to raise the siege (Aug., 1690). His administration of that town was not altogether successful. On the arrival of the French general, St. Ruth, he soon quarrelled with him; and his advice to avoid a battle, given after the fall of Athlone, was pertinaciously disregarded. At the battle of Aghrim he commanded the reserve, and through some misunderstanding never received orders to charge. He covered the retreat. Once more his arrangements for making a stand at Limerick were hampered by his colleagues. The death of Tyrconnel, however, left him in supreme command, but he soon despaired of the defence. He therefore opened negotiations with Ginkell. Limerick capitulated on Oct. 3, 1691, and the majority of its garrison chose to follow Sarsfield into the French service. He was given a command in the intended French invasion of England in 1692. He fought with great gallantry in the French ranks at the battle of Steinkirk, and was mortally wounded at Landen. "A perishing nationality," says Ranke, referring to Sarsfield, "has sometimes men granted to it in whom its virtues are represented."

C. T. Wilson, *James II. and the Duke of Berwick*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*

Sauchie Burn, The Battle of (June 18, 1488), resulted in the defeat and death of James III. of Scotland at the hands of his insurgent barons, headed by Angus "Bell the Cat," Home, Hepburn, and Bothwell, who had plotted to get hold of James's son to make use of him against his father's authority.

Saunders, Admiral Sir Charles (*d.* 1775), served under Anson in his expedition to the South Seas. In 1741 he became post-captain. In 1747 he aided Hawke in his victory over the French, and in 1750 was returned for Plymouth. He became Treasurer of Greenwich Hospital (1754), and Comptroller of the Navy (1755). In 1757 Saunders was appointed commander-in-chief of the Mediterranean squadron, and in the following year became rear-admiral. In 1759 he commanded the fleet which conveyed Wolfe to Quebec. He received the thanks of the House of Commons for his co-operation, Pitt calling him a man "equalling those who have taken armadas." In 1760 he went to the Mediterranean as commander-in-chief. He was made vice-admiral. In 1765 he became Lord of the Admiralty. Saunders subsequently became First Lord of the Admiralty and Privy Councillor (1766), and admiral in 1770. He was buried in Westminster Abbey.

Savile, Sir George (*b.* 1726, *d.* 1784), came of an old Yorkshire family, which county he represented through five successive elections. He did not often speak in Parliament, but there was perhaps no one in the House more thoroughly respected as a man of liberal principles and unbending integrity; and he was one of the most reliable bulwarks of the Whig party. He was a strenuous and consistent opponent of the American War in all its stages. He resisted the prosecution of Wilkes. He was the first to relieve in some measure the disabilities of Roman Catholics, by carrying a bill for that purpose in 1778; and he was consequently one of the principal sufferers by the Gordon Riots. Later, he brought in a bill against Popish conversions.

But perhaps the most celebrated measure connected with his name is the Nullum Tempus Bill (passed 1768), which had its origin in an attempt on the part of the ministry and the crown to put into force against the Duke of Portland the old maxim "Nullum tempus occurrit regi"—"that no length of continuance or good faith of possession is available against a claim of the crown." Savile's bill abolished this maxim —"the opprobrium of prerogative and the disgrace of our law"—by providing that an uninterrupted enjoyment for sixty years of an estate derived from the crown should bar the crown from reclaiming its gift under pretence of any flaw in the grant or other defect of title.

Trevelyan, *Early Life of C. J. Fox; Chatham Correspondence.*

Savile, Sir Henry (*b.* 1549, *d.* 1622), a man of great learning, was tutor in Greek to Queen Elizabeth. In 1585 he became warden of Merton College, and in 1596 provost of Eton. At Oxford he founded the Savilian professorships of geometry and astronomy. This "magazine of learning," as he was called, edited, amongst other works, four books of the *History* and the *Agricola* of Tacitus, the works of St. Chrysostom, and a useful collection of the old chroniclers, which he styled *Rerum Anglicarum Scriptores post Bedam Præcipui* (1596).

Savoy, Boniface of, Archbishop of Canterbury (1245—1270), was a prince of the reigning house of Savoy, and uncle of Henry III.'s queen. To this he owed his early advancement to the archbishopric, for which he had very few qualifications. His rule was intensely unpopular, as that of a foreigner and dependent of the court. He has made little mark in the history of his see. The palace of the Savoy in the Strand took its name from his brother Peter.

Hook, *Archbishops of Canterbury*, vol. iii.

Savoy Conference, The (1661), was held in the Savoy Palace for the purpose of discussing the relations of the Puritans towards the Church, and the proposed changes in the Liturgy. It consisted of twelve bishops, among whom were Cosin, Sanderson, Pearson, and Sparrow; and twelve Puritan divines, including Baxter, Calamy, Reynolds, and Lightfoot. After sitting from April 15 to July 24, they came to no practical conclusion, and reported that "The Church's welfare, unity, and peace, and his majesty's satisfaction, were ends upon which they were all agreed; but as to means, they could not come to any harmony." The failure of the Savoy Conference excluded a large number of Puritans from the Church. [For the alterations in the Liturgy, which so far as they had any effect emphasised rather than minimised the differences between Anglican and Puritan, *see* Prayer Book.]

Cardwell, *History of Conferences connected with the Book of Common Prayer.*

Sawtrey, William (*d.* 1401), a clergyman at one time beneficed at Lynn, and later in London, was the first person burnt in England for Lollardy. Proceedings were taken against him during the same session in which the Act *De heretico comburendo* was embodied in the statute of the year; but his execution on the simple authority of the king's writ has given some occasion for controversy as to whether, before the passing of the new Act, the king had power to issue writs *De heretico comburendo.* The absence of precedent, however, makes the supposition improbable.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, vol. iii.

Sawyer, Sir Robert, an eminent Tory lawyer, was Attorney-General at the time of the Rye House Plot, and distinguished himself by his zeal, if not rancour, in prosecuting the Whigs concerned in that measure. Continuing long in office, in 1686 he refused to help James II. in vindicating the dispensing power, yet such was his fame, and the difficulty of getting a successor, that he was not dismissed till 1688. He was leading counsel for the Seven Bishops, and after raising difficulties, accepted the Revolution. In 1690 he was violently attacked for his conduct in relation to the trial of Sir R. Armstrong, a Rye House Plotter, was excepted from the Act of Indemnity, and was expelled the House of Commons.

Saxons, The. The earliest contemporary reference to Saxons in extant literature—that of the geographer Ptolemy, who wrote about 120 A.D.—describes them as dwelling in the country now called Holstein, and three adjoining islands. They are next mentioned as fringing the sea-board of the ocean. In 287, when the first authentic notice of their piracies and plunderings was written, they had not only stamped their name on the British coast [Saxon Shore], but extended it over the northern lands between the Elbe and the Ems; and in the seventh century broad tracts of Britain, and broader tracts of Germany between the Rhine and the Oder, were in the possession of people called by their name. Those that stayed in Germany were long known as Old Saxons, to distinguish them from the settlers beyond the sea. Those clung tenaciously to their primitive usages and national forms of rule after the others had begun to abandon them. Whether the expansion of the Saxon name on the Continent was due to immigration and conquest, as it was in Britain, is, though possible, extremely doubtful. It is thought more likely that it was merely extended to a number of separate but neighbouring tribes already inhabiting those regions, as the

common designation of a huge confederacy. Such peoples as the Chauci and Cherusci, while keeping their proper tribe names among themselves, would be called Saxons by those that were outside the confederacy, just as Salii and Ubii were known as Franks. This is the readiest way of explaining the sudden spring of the Saxons from an obscure tribe, confined to a narrow territory, into a greatness and notoriety that have left a broad mark on human destiny. From the third to the sixth centuries these Saxons were swarming in their "keels" over and up and down the narrow seas, spoiling and wasting the property, and at length depopulating and seizing the soil of civilised peoples within their reach. If Claudian be believed, they watered the Orkneys with their blood; they certainly founded several kingdoms in Britain, and at least one settlement in Gaul. So deep was the impression made by their strength, ferocity, and persistence on the men whose lands they took that these men gave their name to all the German invaders, and, later still, their subjugation in their native homes cost Charlemagne a generation of effort. Ethnology classes them as a Low German race, with fewer and fainter affinities of language and character to the High German than their partners in conquest, the Angles. The fair hair, blue eye, and robust animal nature, characteristic of the southern English peasant, are ascribed to his Saxon origin. The derivative meaning of the name is disputed; it has been variously interpreted as seamen, users of the short knife (*seax*), settlers (*sas*), adversaries (*sachs*), and other things. Their efficiency as makers of history in early days is traced to their having been untouched by Roman civilisation, to their long continuance, as Professor Freeman words it, "in a state of healthy barbarism."

Lappenberg, *Anglo-Saxon Kings*; Palgrave, *Eng. Commonwealth*; Skene, *Celtic Scotland*; Elton, *Origins of Eng. Hist.*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*

[J. R.]

Saxon Shore, The, was in Roman times that part of Britain especially liable to the inroads of the Saxon pirates. This necessitated the presence of a large force of Roman soldiers. Their commander was the *Comes Litoris Saxonici* (Count of the Saxon Shore), whose jurisdiction extended from Norfolk to Sussex. There is no reason for believing, as some have maintained, that the Saxon Shore was inhabited by "Saxon" colonies. The expression "Litus Saxonicum" is exactly analogous to the Welsh March of later times, which meant the district specially open to Welsh attacks.

Guest, *Origines Celticæ*; Coote, *Romans in Britain*; Rhŷs, *Celtic Britain.*

Saye and Sele, William Fiennes, Viscount (*b.* 1582, *d.* 1662), educated at New College, Oxford, succeeded his father as Lord Saye in 1613, and was created viscount in 1624. He was a strong Puritan, "for many years the oracle of those who were called Puritans in the worst sense, and steered all their counsels and designs" (Clarendon). He was one of the founders of the colony of Connecticut, and thought of emigrating himself. He was also one of the foremost opponents of ship-money, but the government preferred to try Hampden's case rather than his. In 1639 he was committed to custody for refusing to take the military oath against the Scots required by the king. He was appointed in May, 1641, Master of the Court of Wards, when the king thought of winning the popular leaders by preferment, but remained firm, voted for the exclusion of the bishops, became a member of the committee of safety, and raised a regiment of foot for the Parliament. He continued to sit in the House of Lords until its abolition. In 1648 he acted as one of the Parliamentary commissioners at the Treaty of Newport, and voted in favour of an accommodation with the king. Cromwell appointed him to sit in his House of Lords, but he refused to accept the offer. In 1660 he took part in the intrigues to bring about the Restoration, and was rewarded by being made Lord Privy Seal. His contemporaries charged him with duplicity, and nicknamed him "Old Subtlety."

Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion*; Wood, *Athenæ Oxonienses.*

Saye and Sele, James Fiennes, Lord (*d.* 1450), was Treasurer of England from 1448 to 1450, and a strong supporter of the Duke of Suffolk. Hence he gained great unpopularity, and, on the insurgents under Jack Cade reaching London, he was seized and after a mock trial beheaded.

Saye and Sele, William Fiennes, 2nd Lord (*d.* 1471), son of the preceding, fought on the Yorkist side at Northampton. He was subsequently made Lord High Admiral by Edward IV., fled with the king in 1470, and, returning in the next year, was slain in the battle of Barnet.

Scales, Thomas, Lord (*d.* 1460), distinguished himself in the French wars and in repressing Jack Cade's rebellion. He was a faithful follower of the Lancastrian cause, and in 1460, after the battle of Northampton, was captured by the Yorkists, and put to death.

Scandalum Magnatum was the use of language derogatory to a peer or great officer of the realm. It was created a special offence with special punishments in 1275.

Sir J. Stephen, *Hist. of the Criminal Law.*

Schaub, Sir Luke, was a Swiss in the British service. He first appears in 1718 as the confidential secretary to Stanhope in Spain. In 1720 he was knighted, and sent as minister to Paris in 1721, and in the following year received from the regent communications concerning Atterbury's Jacobite plot

which led to its detection. He returned to England in 1724, having attempted, as the friend of Carteret, to obtain a dukedom for the intended husband of a daughter of Madame de Platen, the sister of the king's mistress, the Countess of Darlington. Horace Walpole (Sir Robert's brother) was sent by Townshend to counteract his designs, and, as the affairs were at a deadlock, George was compelled to recall him. His subsequent diplomatic career was unimportant.

Schism Act, The, was passed in May, 1714. It was a measure devised by the extreme High Church party, and encouraged by Bolingbroke as a party move against Oxford. It was introduced by Sir William Wyndham. Its object was to confirm a clause in the Act of Uniformity which precluded schoolmasters and tutors from giving instruction without previously subscribing a declaration of conformity to the Established Church. This restriction, although not abolished by the Toleration Act, had long been practically suspended. The Schism Act therefore imposed severe penalties on all tutors and schoolmasters who presumed to instruct without having first received a licence from a bishop. It easily passed its two first stages, but at the third reading it was vigorously opposed by the Whigs. In the Upper House several amendments were made in committee. Teachers merely of reading, writing, arithmetic, and navigation were excluded from its operations. The power of convicting offenders was lodged in the superior courts alone. By an absurd clause, the tutors of the sons of noblemen were declared exempt from its restriction. But the bill was most unjustly extended to Ireland. This iniquitous measure was repealed, together with the Occasional Conformity Act, in spite of much opposition, in 1717.

Boyce, *Lettres Historiques;* Wyon, *Reign of Queen Anne;* Stanhope, *Reign of Queen Anne.*

Schleswig-Holstein Question, The (1863). The long desire of the patriotic party in Germany to detach from Denmark the German Elbe duchies, which already in 1848 had caused a serious war, came to a head in the quarrel between the two countries in 1863. Throughout the negotiations Lord Russell had given the Danish government sound and sensible advice, to the effect that they must treat the German populations of those two provinces fairly, and give no ground of complaint to the German government. On July 23, 1863, when the struggle seemed approaching, Lord Palmerston was questioned as to the course England intended to pursue during the struggle, if such should arise, and he replied: "We are convinced—I am convinced, at least—that if any violent attempt were made to overthrow the rights and interfere with the independence of Denmark, those who made the attempt would find in the result that it would not be Denmark alone with which they would have to contend" This statement Lord Palmerston afterwards explained to be merely intended to convey his own impression that, should Denmark be attacked, some European power would interfere; but it was taken to express English intentions, and the English public was eager for war. The English government proposed to France to intervene with arms, but the French emperor refused. The Danes were consequently left to take care of themselves. The English conduct, however, though prudent, had been decidedly open to censure, for, whether intentionally or not, the government had certainly led Denmark to believe in English assistance. When, therefore, the war was ended and Denmark crushed, a vote of censure was proposed in both Houses by the Opposition. In the Lords the vote was carried; in the Commons Mr. Disraeli made a most telling speech against the government policy, and the vote was only averted by an amendment which evaded the question entirely.

Bryce, *Holy Roman Emp.*, supplem. ch.; *Annual Register; Hansard;* McCarthy, *Hist. of Our Own Times;* Prof. Max Müller, in *Nineteenth Century*, May, 1897, following Samwer and Jansen, *Schleswig-Holstein's Befreiung*, 1897.

Schomberg, Frederick Hermann, Count of (*b.* 1618, *d.* 1690), was born at Heidelberg. His father was an officer in the household of the Elector Palatine, his mother an English lady of the Dudley family. As a Protestant, he fought against the Imperialists in the Thirty Years' War, for the Dutch, Swedes, and French. After the Peace of Westphalia (1648) he became chamberlain to the Prince of Orange. In 1650 he repaired to France, and served under Turenne until the Peace of the Pyrenees (1660). He then entered the Portuguese service, and it was chiefly by his assistance that that country compelled Spain to recognise the sovereignty of the house of Braganza (1668). He then returned to France, where he was naturalised, and obtained the bâton of a marshal of France (1675). During the next years he served in Flanders. The revocation of the Edict of Nantes caused a complete change in his fortunes. After a short visit to Portugal, to negotiate a marriage between Pedro II. and Maria Sophia, daughter of the Elector Palatine, he entered the service of Frederic William, the "Great Elector" of Brandenburg. On the death of that prince, his successor, Frederic, generously gave up the great commander to aid William of Orange in the execution of his plans. He was immediately made William's second in command, and rode side by side with him through the streets of London. He was made Knight of the Garter, created duke, and appointed Master of the Ordnance. The Commons voted £100,000 to him in gratitude for his services. In 1689 he was placed at the head of an expedition to

Ireland, his forces consisting mainly of raw recruits. He landed in the north of Ulster, took Carrickfergus, and marched into Leinster. Outside Dundalk he declined battle with the enemy, who were greatly superior in numbers. Still James's army did not attack, and the duke retired into Ulster for winter quarters. His conduct was severely but unjustly criticised in England. In June, 1690, William landed at Carrickfergus at the head of a large army. Schomberg met him near Belfast, and the united troops marched on the Boyne. He pronounced strongly against William's intention of attacking the Irish there. The battle was won; when Schomberg, seeing the enemy's cavalry making a gallant resistance, rushed at them, crying aloud to his Huguenot troops, "Come on, gentlemen; there are your persecutors." They were his last words. "His military skill," says Macaulay, "was universally acknowledged. For his religion he had resigned a splendid income, had laid down the truncheon of a marshal of France, and had, at nearly eighty years of age, begun the world again as a needy soldier of fortune." [Boyne.]

Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*; Martin, *Histoire de France*; Schäfer, *Geschichte von Portugal*.

Schomberg, Meinhart (*d.* 1709), second son of Marshal Schomberg, commanded William III.'s right wing at the battle of the Boyne. He marched some miles up the river, and crossed it by the bridge of Slane, thus turning the French flank and rear. In 1691 his father's services and his own were rewarded by creating him Duke of Leinster. In 1693 he was placed at the head of an expedition against the coast of Britanny. But Russell and the other English admirals decided that the year was too far advanced for such an enterprise. Consequently the armament never set out. After the outbreak of the war of the Spanish Succession, he was placed at the head of an English and Dutch force, which disembarked at Lisbon. He proved inefficient, and was soon afterwards recalled, and Galway sent out in his stead. "Schomberg," says Mr. Wyon, "seems to have been one of those weak men, who, when beset with difficulties, can do nothing but sit down and complain."

Macaulay, *Hist of Eng.*; Wyon, *Great Britain during the Reign of Queen Anne.*

Schwarz, Martin (*d.* 1487), was a German veteran, commanding the foreign auxiliaries of Lambert Simnel. He was slain, with most of his followers, at the decisive battle of Stoke, which ruined the Yorkist cause.

Bacon, *Henry VII.*

Scilly Islands, The, were inhabited in the earliest times, as the abundance of pre-historic remains found there shows. They were probably the Cassiterides of the Greek writers. Their position exposed them to Danish occupation. In 938 they were conquered, either from the Danes or the Cornish Welsh, by Athelstan, and were granted to the monks of Tresco. Afterwards they were transferred to the Abbey of Tavistock. They became part of the Duchy of Cornwall. Queen Elizabeth granted them on lease to the Godolphin family. They afterwards were leased by the Duke of Leeds. The lessee has very considerable powers. In the Civil War they held out for Charles under Sir John Granville, and became a centre for privateers. In 1651 Blake reduced them to obedience to the Commonwealth.

Scinde is the country comprising the lower valley and delta of the Indus. It was divided into three principalities, Upper Scinde, Meerpoore, and Lower Scinde. The rulers of these provinces were called Ameers, and were almost as independent of each other as the princes of Rajpootana; and Lord Auckland, in consequence, entered into separate treaties with them in 1839, which imposed on them a subsidiary force and tribute. They had formerly been dependent on Cabul, but had not paid any tribute since 1800. Their secret hostility to the English during the Afghan expedition of 1839 compelled the latter to take some steps against them, and they were forced to accede to a subsidiary alliance. During the three subsequent years in which Afghanistan was occupied by our troops, and Scinde had become the basis of our operations beyond the Indus, their conduct was marked with good faith if not cordiality. They permitted a free passage to the troops; they supplied the garrisons of Cabul and Candahar and other places with provisions. But two or three of the Ameers were emboldened to hostility by our reverses; and Lord Ellenborough, on hearing of this, determined to inflict signal chastisement on them. Sir Charles Napier (q. v.) was sent to Scinde to inquire into the matter (September, 1843). Violently prejudiced against the Ameers, he soon declared that the treaty of 1839 had been violated, and the draft of a very disadvantageous treaty was forwarded to be negotiated with the Ameers. The intrigues of Ali Moorad, one of the Ameers, who desired to become rais, or lord paramount of Upper Scinde, to the exclusion of Meer Roostum, caused Sir Charles to believe that all the Ameers, except Ali Moorad, were disaffected. Meer Roostum was so alarmed by his attitude that he fled to the camp of Ali Moorad. The double traitor thereupon persuaded Sir Charles that this was intended as an insult, and a proclamation was issued deposing Meer Roostum, and appointing Ali Moorad rais in his place. To show his power, Sir Charles captured Emangurb, a fort deemed inaccessible. A conference was now held at Hyderabad between Major Outram and the assembled Ameers, who denied that they had infringed the treaty. The city was in a state of commotion, and on the 15th a large body of Beloochee troops attacked the Residency.

After a gallant defence of three hours, Major Outram retired with the loss of seventeen killed, wounded, and missing, to the armed steamer anchored in the river. Sir Charles Napier now marched on Hyderabad, and came upon the Beloochee army at Meanee (Feb. 17, 1843), where a complete victory was gained. Lord Ellenborough now issued a proclamation annexing Scinde. This was followed (March 22, 1843) by a decisive victory near Hyderabad. The complete subjugation of the country followed. The Ameers were pensioned off at Benares, and are State pensioners still. Sir Charles Napier himself remarked of these proceedings, "We have no right to seize Scinde, yet we shall do so, and a very advantageous, useful, and humane piece of rascality it will be."

Napier, *Scinde*; *Annual Register*; Thornton, *Hist. of India*.

Scindia, the name of one of the chief Mahratta princes. The first of the house was Ranojee Scindia, a feudatory of the Peishwa, who in 1743 received as a fief from that chieftain a considerable territory in Malwa. His son Mahdajee Scindia (1750—1794), after nearly losing life and territory in the Afghan War, became the most important of the Mahratta princes. As guarantee of the Treaty of Salbhye (1782), as conqueror of Gwalior in 1784, as the champion of the Mogul against the Sikhs, and as the first native prince who endeavoured, with the aid of French officers, to discipline his army after the European model, he plays a great part in the history of his times. "He was," says Grant Duff, "a man of great political sagacity and considerable genius, of deep artifice, restless ambition, and implacable revenge." He handed on his power to his grand nephew, Dowlut Rao Scindia (1794—1827). The latter joined the great Mahratta confederacy, which was broken up at Argaum and Assaye. He had to surrender much of his territory, and ruled quietly over the diminished territory of Gwalior until his death. The next important event in the history of the Scindias is the minority of Bhagerat Rao Scindia, when British intervention to stop the anarchy which the minority occasioned led to the Mahratta War of 1843, and the temporary occupation of Gwalior by the English. At a later date Bhagerat Rao did his best for the English during the mutiny of 1858.

Grant Duff, *Mahrattas; Wellesley Despatches;* Mill, *India*; Malleson, *Native States in Subsidiary Alliance with the British Government.*

Scone, situated on the east bank of the Tay in the old district of Gowrie, became the capital of the Pictish kingdom, and continued to be regarded as the seat of royalty in later history. The Moot Hill, or Hill of Belief, at Scone was the place of assembly for the king's counsellors, and it was at Scone that the Coronation Stone, or Stone of Destiny, was "reverently kept for the consecration of the Kings of Alban" until it was removed to Westminster by Edward I. In 729 Scone was the scene of a conflict between Alpin, King of the Picts, and Nectan. Many of the later Kings of Scotland, notably Malcolm Canmore, Alexander III., Robert Bruce, Robert II., and James I., were crowned there, as well as Charles II. in 1651.

Skene, *Celtic Scotland.*

Scory, John, Bishop of Hereford, obtained the see of Rochester (1551) as a reward for his support of the Reformation. He was afterwards translated to Chichester, but was deprived of his preferment on the accession of Mary. He subsequently assisted at the consecration of Bishop Parker in 1559, receiving as the price of his support the see of Hereford. He then, in conjunction with Bishop Barlow, assisted the archbishop to consecrate the other prelates appointed by Elizabeth. He was a man of indifferent character, and of no very great influence.

Scotale is an obscure term denoting an oppressive local custom in towns, which was levied by the sheriff for his own profit. Some have thought that the sheriff could compel the burgesses to grant him quantities of malt, from which the *Scotale* was brewed, and which belonged to him. Others maintain that the name simply indicates a meeting of the townsmen, in which they were forced to contribute to the same object, or at which heavy fines were exacted on those absent. To obtain exemption from *scotale* was a great object for the towns in the early stages of the history of corporate town-life. It was probably so important because a step towards their being freed from the jurisdiction of the sheriff. The etymology of *scotale* is uncertain. Probably it simply comes from scot and ale, though some have thought that the latter syllable comes from *tallia*, a payment, or *hall*, as in gildhall.

Scot and Lot literally signifies "taxes in general," and "the share paid by each householder." In many towns municipal privileges were vested in all those who paid "scot and lot," *i.e.*, those who bore their rateable proportion in the payments levied from the town for local or national purposes.

Scotland. The history of Scotland has been more influenced than that of most other countries by the physical features of the land. The southern part of the modern kingdom differs little in character and conformation from the north of England. This part, known as the Lowlands, is pleasantly diversified with hill and dale, well watered and well wooded, affording rich tracts of pasture and arable land. North of the Lowlands the country is almost intersected by the two Firths of Forth and Clyde, and beyond the firths it wholly

changes its character and becomes barren and mountainous in the west and north. A strip of lowland runs north along the eastern coast. The early inhabitants of these districts differed as much in race as the country in aspect. While the indigenous Celts inhabited their native mountains, the southern and eastern lowlands were peopled by English or Scandinavian invaders. When first Scotland emerges from pre-historic obscurity, it is as Caledonia, a country of woods and mountains, so stern and wild that the Romans abandoned their attempted conquest, and had great difficulty in protecting the southern province from the inroads of the fierce inhabitants. They were of the Celtic race, and are vaguely spoken of as Picts and Scots. The first event of which we have any certain knowledge is the introduction of Christianity. It came in the wake of the Scots from Ireland. In the sixth century these Scots settled on the western coast, and founded the nucleus of the Scottish kingdom. Columba, Abbot of Durrow, came over to join them. The King of the Scots gave him the islet of Iona to settle on. Here he, and the twelve monks who shared his fortunes, made a monastery of the rudest kind—a few wattle huts clustered round a wooden church. From this centre they went forth on missionary journeys to the neighbouring mainland and islands. By this means the Picts and the English of Northumbria were converted to Christianity. In 843 the King of Scots, Kenneth MacAlpin, became king of the Picts also. Thus the Celtic peoples north of the firths were nominally united into one kingdom, though the chiefs of the north, whether Celts or Norsemen, were virtually independent sovereigns. In the tenth century Malcolm I., the King of Scots, got possession of Strathclyde. It was granted to him as a territorial fief by Edmund of England. His grandson, Malcolm II., was invested with Lothian, hitherto part of the English earldom of Northumbria (1018). This acquisition influenced the whole after-history of the kingdom. At first merely a dependence of the Celtic kingdom, Lothian finally overshadowed it. The Kings of the Scots identified themselves with this, the richest part of their dominions and with its Teutonic inhabitants, while the Celts of the original kingdom came to be looked on as a subject-race, the natural enemies of the richer and more civilised people of the Lowlands. The reign of Malcolm III., surnamed Canmore (1057—1093), is a turning point in the history of Scotland. His marriage with Margaret, sister of Edgar Atheling, introduced an English element which gave its colour to the national development. There were also other influences at work which all turned in the same direction. The Norman Conquest displaced many Englishmen. Such of these exiles as turned northward were well received at the Scottish court. Territorial grants were conferred upon them. The English system of land tenure was introduced, and led to the ecclesiastical division into parishes. The Scottish clergy were induced to give up their distinguishing peculiarities, and were brought into conformity with Rome. Malcolm repeatedly invaded England, and his army brought back so many captives, that English slaves fell to the lot of the poorest households. These slaves, more civilised than their Celtic masters, influenced the domestic manners of the people. The frequent aggressions of the Scots provoked retaliation from the Normans. William the Conqueror invaded Scotland (1072), and at Abernethy he compelled Malcolm to acknowledge him as over-lord. This submission was a fertile source of dissension in later times. On the strength of it the English sovereigns laid claim to supremacy over the whole kingdom of Scotland, while the Scots maintained that Malcolm did homage for Strathclyde and Lothian, which he held from the English crown, but in no respect violated the independence of his hereditary kingdom. The purely Celtic period of Scottish history concludes with the accession of Edgar, son of Malcolm (1097). The second period, during which English influence was in the ascendant, was one of continued development. The three sons of Malcolm, Edgar, Alexander, and David, reigned in succession, and carried out more fully the Anglicising policy of their parents. The marriage of their sister Matilda with Henry I. of England strengthened the friendly relations between the kingdoms. The accession of David (1124), who held also the English earldom of Huntingdon, led to a great influx of Normans, to whom the king made large territorial grants. Thus the feudal system was introduced, and took firmer root in Scotland than it ever did in England. Most of the ecclesiastical foundations, as well as the social and political institutions of the later kingdom, date from the reign of David. He founded or restored the six bishoprics of Dunblane, Brechin, Aberdeen, Ross, Caithness, and Glasgow. He endowed many religious houses affiliated with the great monastic orders. Among his foundations was the Abbey of the Holy Rood, which afterwards became the favourite palace of the Scottish sovereigns. He introduced a new code of laws, framed on the English model, appointed sheriffs for the maintenance of order, favoured and encouraged the royal burghs, and added to their number and their privileges. Under Malcolm IV. (1153), David's grandson and successor, Galloway was reduced to direct dependence on the crown, and the isles and western coast were brought to subjection by the defeat and death of Somerled, Earl of Argyle, so that the kingdom now extended to the boundaries of modern Scotland. William the Lion (1165), Malcolm's brother, in his efforts to regain the English earldom of Northumberland was taken prisoner, and to regain his liberty sacrificed the

independence of his kingdom, agreeing in the "Convention of Falaise" to hold it as a fief from the English king. About the same time the Scottish Church rejected the claim to superiority over it put forward by the Archbishop of York, and procured a papal bull (1188) confirming their claim of indedepence of any spiritual authority save that of Rome. The reigns of the Alexanders (II. and III.) were a period of peace and social improvement. The border line between Scotland and England was fixed for the first time (1222). The last and most formidable invasion of the Northmen was repelled in the battle of Largs (1263). The long peace with England, which lasted nearly a century, was marked by rapid internal development. Agriculture flourished, and the proportion of arable land was much increased. The country was opened up by the making of roads and bridges. The extension of trade and commerce brought wealth and consequence to the trading towns. This prosperity was suddenly checked by the sudden death of the king (1286). His grandchild and heir, Margaret, was a young child, absent in her father's kingdom of Norway. This child-queen died before she reached her kingdom. A swarm of competitors appeared to claim the vacant crown. Edward of England, who was appealed to as arbiter, placed it on the head of John Baliol (1292), whom he compelled to acknowledge him as over-lord. John's weakness and incapacity soon embroiled him with his subjects, who compelled him to revolt against England. This gave Edward a pretext for carrying out his cherished scheme of conquering Scotland. With a large army he crossed the Border, deposed the king, received the homage of the nobles and prelates, placed English garrisons in the strongholds, and entrusted the government to Englishmen.

These measures roused a spirit of patriotism among the people, and the War of Independence began. They revolted against the English authority, and under the leadership of William Wallace, defeated the English at Stirling (1297), and slew or expelled the English governors. A second time Edward in person subdued Scotland, Wallace was defeated at Falkirk (1298), taken and put to death; the English rule was re-established. Henceforth Scotland was to be incorporated with England. But just when the subjection of the Scots was deemed complete, they rose again under Robert Bruce, the next heir to the crown after Baliol. Had Edward lived, it is most likely that this effort would have been crushed like the former one. But he died on the Border (1307) just as he was about to enter Scotland for the third time, to subdue it more utterly than before. For seven years the struggle lasted, till the total rout of the English at Bannockburn (1314) re-established the national independence. The "War of Independence" had lasted twenty years, and during that time Scotland had suffered fearfully. Thrice she had been laid waste by foreign invasions. She had been torn in pieces by internal contests, for the struggle had much of the character of a civil war, as many of the Scottish nobles fought on the English side. This war completely changed the current of Scottish history by implanting among the people that bitter hatred of England and every thing English, which was the most strongly marked feature of the national character for centuries to come. This drove them into close alliance with France, the sworn enemy of England. France became the model for imitation, which England had been during the previous period, and French influence tinged the manners, the arts, the learning, and the laws of the succeeding centuries.

This French alliance involved Scotland in the frequent wars between the French and English. Whenever war broke out, Scotland took up arms, and invaded England in favour of her ally. By the Treaty of Northampton (1328) England acknowledged the independence of Scotland. By this treaty the old vexatious claims of superiority were swept away. Henceforward the Lothians and Strathclyde were on the same footing as the Celtic kingdom. The war had welded more firmly into one the different races of which the nation was composed. Throughout the contest it was the Lowlanders who were most determined not to be annexed to England, but to maintain the independence of the Celtic kingdom to which they were joined. The Celts in the north cared little whether the king, to whom they owed a nominal allegiance, reigned in Edinburgh or London. The struggle also brought the people, for the first time, prominently forward in the state. It was by the support of the people and the church that Robert Bruce succeeded in winning the crown. This had two important results. The people obtained a voice in the National Assembly. In the Parliament of Cambuskenneth (1326) the third Estate, the deputies of the burghers, appear for the first time. The baronage was in great part renewed, as Bruce granted to his friends the forfeited estates of his opponents. A law passed to prevent the taking of the produce or revenue of the land out of the kingdom, compelled the holders of land in both England and Scotland to make a definite choice of nationality. Those whose estates in England were the richer left Scotland altogether. Bruce also greatly increased the power of the baronage by granting powers of regality along with the lands. During his life Bruce did what he could to consolidate the kingdom and repair the ravages of the war. But his death (1329) placed a child, his son David, on the throne, and left the country a prey to invasion from without and anarchy within.

The next stage in the history of Scotland extends to the Reformation. During that

period reliance on France and distrust of England were the principles of foreign policy. Within the kingdom there was a constant struggle between the crown and the baronage, under whose tyranny the people groaned in vain. The crown was too weak to redress grievances or to maintain law. The king was little better than a chief with a nominal sovereignty over other chiefs, often more powerful than himself. His only means of reducing a rebel baron to subjection was by empowering another to attack him. In a country thus torn by the feuds of a lawless and turbulent baronage there was little room for social improvement. Hence Scotland at the Reformation was little if at all beyond the point of civilisation reached before the outbreak of the War of Independence. The accession of the infant son of Robert Bruce was the signal for the revival of the claims of Baliol. His son Edward was crowned king by his adherents, and civil war again broke out. David was taken by the English, and as he passed most of his life either in captivity or in France, he was the mere shadow of a king, and the government was carried on by a regency. On his death Robert, the grandson of Bruce by his daughter Margery, and the first sovereign of the family of Stuart, mounted the throne. In this family the crown passed from father to child without a break for nearly three centuries. Robert III. succeeded his father. He was so weak both in mind and body that his brother Albany held the reins of government. To maintain himself in power he contrived that his nephew, the heir to the kingdom, should fall into the hands of the English, and on the death of Robert, acted as regent in his nephew's name. To maintain his own position he winked at the misdeeds of the barons, and when James I. was at length released and came to claim his crown (1424), he found himself surrounded by hostile subjects, each one of whom was as powerful as himself. His first care was to break their power by numerous executions. He then turned his attention to maintaining effectively law and judicial reform. By summoning frequent Parliaments, he gave importance to the National Assembly, which in his reign first became defined in the form of the "Estates." The lesser barons who felt the duty of attending Parliament a grievous burden were relieved of it, and allowed to send commissaries, two for every shire. These, with the members for the burghs, formed the third Estate. But they were in no sense representatives of the Commons. Indeed, the Commons of Scotland, outside the burghs, could not be said to be represented in Parliament until the passing of the Reform Bill. The Estates met in one chamber. In this reign the custom of delegating the chief business of the Parliament to a committee became recognised as a regular part of Parliamentary procedure. This committee was called the Lords of the Articles. Its members were elected by the three Estates, and to it was confided the work of maturing the measures to be passed, which were then approved and confirmed in a full Parliament.

From this reign dates also the publication of the Acts of Parliament in the spoken language of the people, and the beginning of statute law. The king caused a collection of the statutes to be made, and separated those which had fallen into disuse from those still in force. He also established the office of treasurer, and set up the Supreme Court of Law, which afterwards developed into the Court of Session. This court, which met three times a year, consisted of the Chancellor, who was president, and three other persons chosen from the Estates. They were deputed to hear and decide the causes which until then had come before the Parliament. James also established schools of archery, and patronised and encouraged learning and letters. He was barbarously murdered by a band of malcontents on the verge of the Highlands (1436). Four kings of the same name succeeded James I. There is little to distinguish one reign from another. The general characteristics of all are the same. Each was ushered in by a long minority, and closed by a violent death. These frequently repeated minorities were very disastrous to Scotland. The short reign of each sovereign after he reached manhood was spent in struggling to suppress the family that had raised itself to too great a height during the minority. He could only do this by letting loose on the offender a rival, who in turn served himself, becoming heir not only to the former's estates but to his arrogance, and proving himself the disturber of the succeeding reign. Fruitless invasions of England, and abortive attempts to bring the Celts of the north within the power of the law, alternated with the feuds of the rival barons. Under James III. the Orkney and Shetland Isles were annexed to Scotland. They had hitherto belonged to Norway, and were made over to the King of Scots as a pledge for the dowry promised with his wife, Margaret of Norway, but they were never redeemed. James V. worked out more fully the project of his ancestor, James I., of establishing a supreme court of law by founding the Court of Session or College of Justice. It was formed on the model of the Parliament of Paris, and was composed at first of thirteen judges, though the number was afterwards increased to fifteen. As the members of the court were chosen from the Estates it was supreme in all civil cases, and there was no appeal from its decisions to Parliament, nor could it be called upon to review its own judgments. Scottish law was, like the French, based upon the Civil Law, which was adopted and received as authority except where the feudal law had forestalled it. The three

universities (St. Andrews, Glasgow, and Aberdeen) which were founded during this period were modelled on that of Paris, which differed widely from the English universities. Provision had also been made for the advancement of elementary education. Grammar schools were founded in the burghs, and by Act of Parliament (1496) all "barons and freeholders" were commanded to make their sons attend these schools until they were "competently founded," and have "perfect Latin," under penalty of a fine of £20. The introduction of the printing press by Walter Chapman gave a further stimulus to the pursuit of letters. A purely mythical history of Scotland was fabricated, which was supposed to add to the dignity of the kingdom by assuming for it an important position in times of remote antiquity. These ridiculous legends were put into form by Hector Bœce, first Principal of the University of Aberdeen, whose *History of Scotland* is wholly unworthy of belief. Unfortunately these legends took root in the national mind, and were accepted as fact by all subsequent historians, who based their works upon them, and it is only in our own days that research has sifted fact from fiction. In the front rank of the Scottish poets stand the two kings, James I. and James V. The favourite themes of the poet's satire were the backsliding and corruption of the priesthood. The Church had become too powerful to be popular. All classes of the community were eager to attack it, and tried to incite the king to follow the example of his uncle, Henry VIII. The danger was only warded off by the adroitness of Beaton, who was the most powerful man in the State. He turned to account the long-cherished jealousy of England to spoil the schemes of Henry, and induced the king to turn a deaf ear to all their suggestions of religious reformation. The discussion of the subject ended in an outburst of war. The attack on the temporalities of the Church had already begun. The benefices in the gift of the crown were conferred on laymen, generally the king's natural children, who held them *in commendam* with the title of Commendator. Since the War of Independence the Church had totally changed its character. In the incessant internal struggles that disturbed the ensuing period the Church always supported the crown, which in return conferred estates and privilege on the Church. On account of their superior learning the great offices of state were filled by Churchmen. This gave them a political influence which in addition to their wealth was a constant cause of offence to the barons. The two principal sees—St. Andrews (1471) and Glasgow (1492)—had been raised to the dignities of archbishoprics, and their holders vied with each other in an arrogant display of pomp and state to support their dignity as princes of the Church. The two Beatons (uncle and nephew), who succeeded one another in the primacy, swayed the affairs of the state during the entire reign of James V. and the beginning of that of Mary. They held a great number of benefices in France as well as Scotland. This gave them wealth far beyond that of any of the temporal peers, and corresponding power. They used this power to retard the movement of religious reform by persecuting the teachers of the new doctrines, which had made their way into the kingdom from England and Germany, and were rapidly becoming popular. The first sufferer for liberty of opinion in Scotland was Reseby, a Lollard, who was burnt to death in 1408. After this there are casual notices of persons being called in question for alleged heresy. But Patrick Hamilton, who was burnt by Beaton, is called the proto-martyr, as he was the first to suffer for the doctrines which were afterwards embodied in the Established Church. His death did more than any other measure to hasten the impending Reformation. The unexpected death of the king just after a disastrous defeat on the Border, leaving only an infant of a few days old to succeed him, gave it an opportunity for breaking forth. The first open act of violence was the murder of the Primate, Cardinal Beaton (1545). The doers of the deed were taken after sustaining a long siege in the cardinal's own castle, but it was only a manifestation of the ferment that could be no longer controlled, and which now broke forth into the civil war which effected the Reformation.

The Reformation effected a complete revolution in the policy of Scotland, and in the current of popular opinion. With the change of religion the French influence came to an end, and religious sympathy did much to stifle the hatred of England that had become hereditary. This great national movement had much of the character of the peasant wars of France and England. It was the protests of an oppressed peasantry against the exaggerated feudalism under which they groaned: the struggle of the people for life and liberty disguised under a show of religious opinions. The movement in the beginning was a popular one. But the barons turned it to their own advantage by taking the lead under the specious title of Lords of the Congregation, and appropriating the greater part of the spoil. The refusal of the Regent Mary of Lorraine to reform the Church in accordance with the principles of the First Covenant (1557) was followed by the Reformation riots, in which the religious houses and cathedrals were sacked by the mob. The regent employed French troops for the restoration of order. The congregation called English auxiliaries to their aid. Scotland was turned into the battle-field on which French and English fought out their differences. The death of the regent brought

a temporary lull. The foreigners withdrew. The Estates seized the opportunity of passing the Reformation Statutes, so that by the time Queen Mary returned from France the old church had been formally overthrown, and the faith of Geneva established in its stead. Mary was an ardent Romanist, and would not give up her own form of worship, although she did not interfere with the form her subjects had chosen. Though she did not confirm she did not reverse the Reformation Statutes, nor did she openly favour her co-religionists. Still she did not choose her advisers from among the Protestants. Murray and some other leaders of the congregation rose in open rebellion on the queen's marriage with her cousin Henry, Lord Darnley, and finally withdrew to England. Mary's suspected complicity in the murder of her husband, the favour she lavished upon Bothwell, and her marriage with him, gave the disaffected among her subjects an excuse for her deposition (1567). They placed her infant son upon the throne, while Murray, as regent, was at the head of the government. For eighteen years Mary was held a prisoner in England. This kept the two countries at peace. The government of Scotland dared not disagree with England for fear of having the queen let loose upon them. Four regents, Murray, Lennox, Mar, and Morton, three of whom died deaths of violence, held the reins of government in succession until the majority of James VI. Though Protestantism was still in the ascendant, the episcopal form of Church government was restored under the regency of Mar. In 1588 the Protestant re-action, excited by the Spanish invasion of England, found vent in once again abolishing episcopacy, and the Presbyterian polity was re-established. After the accession of the king to the English throne (1603), he again restored episcopacy. And on the one occasion, after the union of the crowns, when he revisited his native kingdom, he gave great offence by reviving a ritualistic service in his private chapel. He also made the Assembly pass the "Five Articles of Perth." These enjoined kneeling at the Sacrament, the keeping of Saints' days and Holy days, and other observances considered Popish. The attack thus begun on the liberty of the people through their religion was continued by Charles I.

The attempt to displace the liturgy of John Knox by that of England drove the Scotch to rebellion (1637). The Covenant was renewed and signed all over the land. It became the war-cry of the Protestant party. The flame kindled in the north soon spread to England, and both countries were once more plunged into the horrors of civil war. The attempt of the Scots to place Charles II. on his father's throne failed, and Cromwell accomplished what had baffled an earlier conqueror—a legislative union of the two kingdoms of Britain (1654). But under the Commonwealth the Scotch did not enjoy perfect religious liberty. The Assembly was closed, and the power of the church courts abolished. At the same time the obnoxious bishops were removed. The Restoration (1660) threw the country into a ferment by re-installing the bishops and the episcopal clergy. No change was made in the form of the service, and as the service-book of John Knox had fallen out of use, the Church now presented the anomaly of a church with bishops, but without a liturgy. Party spirit ran high, and though the cause of dispute was really little more than a question of words, it roused a spirit of persecution on the one side, and obstinacy on the other, that set the whole country in a flame. When the Revolution (1688) set William on the throne, the Episcopal clergy were in their turn ejected, and the Presbyterian polity finally established. The union of the crowns had not been beneficial to the people of Scotland, for the kings identified themselves with the richer kingdom, and only used the increase in their power to assume despotic power and influence on the liberty of their Scottish subjects. This state of things could not continue. It was imperatively necessary, to preserve peace between the two nations, that they should become one in law and in interest. This could only be done by a legislative union, which was effected in 1707. By this union Scotland was in every respect the gainer. She was allowed to share in the English trading privileges. The energy of the Scottish people had now for the first time free scope for development. The rebellions in favour of the Stuarts, twice in the eighteenth century, disturbed the peace of the country. Good, however, here came out of evil. The Highlanders were still half savages and looked on by the Lowlanders as an alien race, and their country as an unknown region. The breaking-up of the clan system and the making of roads which followed the rising of 1745, first opened up these wild regions for the entrance of civilisation. The abolition of heritable jurisdictions (1748) at last broke the chain of feudalism, which till then had curbed the progress of the people. [HIGHLANDS.] Since the interests of Scotland and England have become one, Scotland has risen to the level of the sister kingdom in agriculture, commerce, and manufactures.

Early history: *Chronicles of the Picts and Scots;* Adamman, *Life of St. Columba* (ed. Reeves); *Chronicles and Memorials relating to Scotland,* issued by the Lord Clerk Register; Bede, *Ecclesiastical Hist.;* Father Innes, *Critical Essay on Ancient Inhabitants of Scotland;* Robertson, *Early Kings of Scotland;* Skene, *Celtic Scotland;* English Chronicles of Lanercost and Melrose, and of Hemingford and Langtoft; Wyntoun, *Chronicle.* Mediæval Period: Fordun, *Scotichronicon;* Pitscottie, *Chronicle; Acts of the Scots Parliaments; State Papers, Henry VIII.; Sadler Papers.* Reformation and subsequent period: John Knox, *History* (ed. Laing) and *Diurnal of Occurrents; Hist. of James the Sext;*

Sir James Melville's *Memoirs*; *Mary Stuart's Letters* (in Labanoff's and Teulet's Collections); Grub, *Ecclesiastical Hist. of Scotland*; Woodrow, *Analecta and Hist. of the Sufferings*; Bannatyne's *Memorials*; Spalding's *Memorials of the Troubles*. The best general history is Dr. J. Hill Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*. See also Cosmo Innes, *Sketches of Early Scottish History and Lectures on Scottish Legal Antiquities*. Also the Publications of the Bannatyne, Maitland, and Spalding Clubs.

[M. M.]

Scotland, Church of. Christianity was introduced into Celtic Scotland by the Scots who came over from Ireland in the sixth century. Columba, Abbot of Durrow, left his native land of Ireland, and with twelve monks founded a mission station on the islet of Iona, lying off the west coast. From this germ the Church of Scotland sprang. A group of wattled huts clustered round a wooden church formed the monastery, and from this centre the missionary zeal of the monks carried the Christian faith to the Orkneys and adjacent islands; eastward to the kingdom of the Picts, and southward to the English kingdom of Northumberland. The Church thus founded was quite independent of the see of Rome, and differed in some points from the general usages of Western Christendom. The fashion of the tonsure and the mode of reckoning the date of Easter were two of these points. The system of Church government was monastic. The power of controlling ecclesiastical affairs was in the hands of the abbots, to whom the bishops were subordinate. It was not until the eleventh century that these peculiarities were abolished, and the Scottish Church brought into conformity with the rest of Christendom. This was effected by Margaret, the English queen of Malcolm Canmore. By that time the Church had fallen from its primitive purity and simplicity. The dignity of abbot had become hereditary in lay families. A body of irregular clergy called "Culdees" were in possession of the religious foundations. The reforms begun by Margaret were more fully carried out by her son David, whose bounty to the Church won him the honour of canonisation. He established the bishoprics of Dunblane, Brechin, Aberdeen, Ross, Caithness, and Glasgow, founded the Abbey of the Holy Rood, which afterwards became the favourite palace of the later sovereigns, and many other religious houses. The Archbishop of York laid claim to the spiritual superiority over Scotland on the ground that the country came within the limits of his province. This claim, which was closely intertwined with that of the English overlordship, had from time to time been hotly contested. At length, in the council of Northampton, 1176, the archbishop formally summoned the Scottish clergy to acknowledge their dependence. This led to an appeal to Rome. The Pope Clement III. vindicated their independence, and declared Scotland to be in immediate dependence on the Holy See (1188).

During the War of Independence the Church was strongly opposed to the English annexation; and it was in great measure due to the support of the clergy that Bruce was in the end successful. During the succeeding period, which was a time of almost continued struggle between the baronage and the crown, the Church is invariably found on the side of the crown. In an age of ignorance the superior learning of the clergy gave them great influence, as it threw all the chief offices of state into their hands. The see of St. Andrew was raised to the dignity of an archbishopric by Sixtus IV. (1471); Glasgow received the same honour some twenty years later. This led to continual strife. St. Andrews claimed the superiority over the see of Glasgow on the ground of seniority, while Glasgow asserted its independence. The brawls between their respective adherents penetrated to the steps of the altar, and the appeals to Rome were so constant that the Estates at last forbade them as being the cause of "inestimable dampnage" to the realm. During this period the Church did much to promote the welfare of the people. The regular clergy were the fosterers of education and letters, and the promoters of all agricultural and industrial advancement. The schools in connection with the cathedrals and religious houses were the germs from which have grown the grammar schools of later times; and it was the monks who awakened the taste for the fine arts, of poetry, painting, music, and architecture. It was they also who showed the people how to make the most of the barren soil and ungenial climate by skilful cultivation. They naturalised foreign fruits and vegetables, first discovered the great coalfields that have since been such a source of wealth to the country, and showed how the coal could be used for fuel. It was they also who introduced the making of glass and other profitable industries. The foundation of the universities was likewise due to the liberality of Churchmen: that of St. Andrews was founded by Wardlaw (1410); that of Glasgow by Turnbull; and that of Aberdeen by Elphinstone, in the same century. In each instance the founder was bishop of the see. During the long minority of James V. the Church was at the zenith of its power. James Beaton, the primate, swayed the state at his will, and on his death his nephew David, the cardinal, succeeded to all his preferments, and to even more than his influence and power. The policy pursued by the two Beatons was to foster the old enmity to England, and to widen the breach if possible, while they strove to knit more closely the long-standing alliance with France. Their aim in so doing was to stave off if possible the Reformation, which in England and Germany was sapping the foundations of the Church. But the causes which provoked a similar movement in Scotland were already at work, and had

originated within the Church itself. The wealth and extent of the Church lands; the political influence which their tenure of the highest offices of state, and the riches resulting from the custom of conferring many preferments gave to the prelates, aroused the jealousy of the baronage, and even of the crown. Already the practice had begun of conferring the richest abbeys and priories on laymen who held the land *in commendam*, with the title of Commendator. The natural sons of the king were commonly provided for in this way. On the other hand, the priesthood had alienated the people by the abuse of excommunication, and by the rigorous extortion of tithes and church dues. They were, therefore, ready to lend a willing ear to the proposals of reform, which promised to free them from this spiritual tyranny. The first indication of the striving after religious freedom is the burning of John Reseby as a heretic (1408), and at the close of the century we find thirty persons accused of being Lollards. From England in the sixteenth century the reformed doctrines came into Scotland, and spread rapidly among the people. The Beatons were both persecutors of the so-called heretics. The burning of George Wishart (1545) provoked the murder of Cardinal Beaton, which was the first outbreak of the revolutionary movement. [Reformation in Scotland.] This was the first religious war from which Scotland suffered, but it was not to be the last. The contest between Popery and Protestantism may be called a question of doctrine. The second religious war was waged for the disputed form of a liturgy, and the third was based on the contention whether the overseers of the Church should be styled bishop or presbyter. The Act of 1690, confirmed by the Act of Security at the Union, settled the dispute for ever by establishing Presbyterianism. Since then the Church has been shaken to its foundations by the contention as to the rights of patrons to induct ministers to parishes without consulting the wishes of the congregation. The Veto Act, passed by the General Assembly, 1834, declared it to be a "fundamental law of the Church that no pastor shall be intruded on a congregation contrary to the will of the people." This Act, however, was proved to be illegal, and had to be rescinded. This led to the Disruption, when more than a third of the clergy, the promoters of the Veto Act, left the Church and founded another sect, known as the Free Church, differing only from the Establishment in having no state support, and giving to each congregation the right of electing its own minister. In 1900 the United Free Church of Scotland was formed by the union of the Free Church and the United Presbyterian Church. [Church, Celtic; Scotland; Reformation in Scotland.]

J. Hill Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*; Grub, *Ecclesiastical Hist. of Scotland*; John Knox, *History* (ed. Laing); Bishop Leslie, *History*; Cosmo Innes, *Sketches of Early Scottish History*; Skene, *Celtic Scotland*. The *St. Giles Lectures* (first series) give a good popular summary of Scottish Church history. [M. M.]

Scots, The, was a name originally bestowed upon the inhabitants of Ireland, a fact which until recently has hardly been sufficiently appreciated by historians. After numerous previous expeditions a colony of Scots (who were Gaelic in race) from Ulster crossed over to Argyle (498), where they established the kingdom of Dalriada. There was for long a close connection between the Irish and Scotch Dalriadas, two members of the same family often ruling in Irish and Scotch Dalriada at the same time. The independence of the Scots was asserted by Aidan (575) at Drumcat; it was not till the tenth century that the name Scotia ceased to be applied to Ireland, and was transferred to Scotland; it was even later before the term Scot acquired a national signification. Besides this the independence of Strathclyde ceased altogether. Shortly afterwards Constantine II. procured the throne for his brother Donald, thus paving the way for the amalgamation of the Britons and the Scots, and for the subsequent annexation; a branch of the Macalpin family continued to rule in Strathclyde till the time of Malcolm II. In 945 Cumbria, *i.e.*, Strathclyde, which had already in 924 chosen Eadward the Elder "to father and lord," was harried by Eadmund, and given up to Malcolm to be held on condition of fealty. On the death of Edgar in 1107 he left Strathclyde to his youngest brother David, to the chagrin of Alexander I., who saw that his kingdom would be much weakened in consequence. Alexander, however, died without heirs, and David succeeded to the whole kingdom; from his reign dates the rise of Southern Scotland.

Scot's Water was a name given to the Firth of Forth, the old boundary between the Anglian Lothians and the Celtic kingdom of Scotland.

Scott, Sir Walter, of Buccleuch, tried unsuccessfully to rescue James V. from the custody of Angus in conjunction with the Earl of Lennox. He was murdered at Edinburgh by a member of the Clan Ker, who were his hereditary enemies.

Scroggs, Sir William (*d.* 1683), of whose birth and parentage nothing is known, was called to the bar in 1653. In 1676 he was appointed by Danby to a judgeship in the Common Pleas, and in 1678 was advanced to the chief justiceship of the King's Bench. He was one of the worst judges that ever disgraced the English bench. While the national madness of the Popish Plot lasted, he made a point of accepting all the evidence of the most infamous informers without question.

To be brought before him in 1679 and 1680 was equivalent to being convicted. His inhuman conduct towards the supposed conspirators in the Popish Plot was only equalled by his gross brutality towards the other party when he discovered that the tide was turning against Shaftesbury and his associates. In 1680 he was impeached by the Commons. The Lords refused to commit him, but the king, perceiving how unpopular the chief justice had become, removed him from his office in 1681, though allowing him a pension of £1,500 a year.

State Trials.

Scrope, Richard, Archbishop of York (*d.* 1405), was the brother of Richard II.'s minister, the Earl of Wiltshire. He was made Archbishop of York in 1398. He was strongly opposed to Henry's accession, and advocated the claims of the Earl of March. In 1405 he joined Northumberland and others in a conspiracy against the king. He was entrapped into a conference with the Earl of Westmorland, when he was seized and beheaded at York. He was regarded by the people as a martyr, and pilgrimages were made to his tomb. The execution of Scrope was the first instance in England of a prelate being put to death by the civil power.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, vol. iii.

Scrope, Richard le (*d.* 1403), after distinguishing himself by his gallantry in the French and Scotch wars of Edward III.'s reign, was, on the accession of Richard II., appointed Steward of the Household, and in 1378 he held the chancellorship for a brief period, and again in 1381-2. He conducted himself with great moderation during the troubles of Richard's reign, and though he took part in the trial of Tresilian and the other royal ministers in 1387, he was declared innocent in 1397.

Scrope of Bolton, Lord (*d.* 1598), Warden of the West Marches under Queen Elizabeth, and Governor of Carlisle, was entrusted for a short time with the charge of Mary Queen of Scots. He aided in crushing the rebellion of 1569, and in the following year was one of the commanders in the raid on Scotland.

Scrope of Masham, Lord (*d.* 1415), was a nephew of Archbishop Scrope, and one of Henry V.'s most intimate friends. He was employed by the king on many diplomatic errands, but in 1415 was apparently implicated in the conspiracy of Cambridge to place the Earl of March on the throne. His guilt is somewhat doubtful, but he was convicted by his peers and executed.

Scullabogue, The Massacre at, took place on the 5th of June, 1798, during the Irish Rebellion, while Bagenal Harvey and Father Roche were attacking New Ross. All the Protestants taken prisoners by insurgent bands were here confined in a barn, some 300 men being left there to guard them. At nine in the morning, thirty or forty of the men were murdered, but those in the barn were as yet spared. When, however, the rebels had been finally repulsed at New Ross, the rabble set fire to the barn, and 184 old men, women, and children (sixteen Catholics amongst them) were either burnt to death or piked as they tried to escape.

Musgrave, *Hist. of the Rebellion.*

Scutage first appears in 1156 as a tax of twenty shillings on the knight's fee or *scutum*, imposed, in spite of the protest of Archbishop Theobald, upon knights holding estates from churches. In 1159 two marks were taken from every knight's fee in lieu of personal service in the war of Toulouse; and henceforth the term scutage bore the meaning of a payment in commutation of service. To the majority of the knights it would be more convenient to pay the tax than to go upon a distant expedition, and the money was welcome to the king as enabling him to hire more trustworthy troops. It was indeed one of the most important of Henry II.'s anti-feudal measures, and may be compared in its general policy with Edward I.'s distraint of knighthood. It was again levied under Henry II. in 1171 and 1186, each time at twenty shillings on the knight's fee, and three times under Richard I., once at ten, and twice at twenty shillings. Like all other taxes it was used as a means of extortion by John: two marks on the fee were demanded as often as ten times; and therefore the Great Charter declared that no scutage should henceforth be imposed save by the common counsel of the nation. But this restriction was apparently irksome to the advisers of the young Henry III., and therefore in the second re-issue of the Charter in 1217 an article was inserted to the effect that scutage should be taken as in King Henry's time, *i.e.* (probably) without needing the consent of the *commune concilium*. Scutage was exacted nine times between 1218 and 1233, but after that more rarely. By Edward I. it was resorted to only as an afterthought, and often appears several years after the war for which it is demanded. In the following reigns it was seldom collected, and then only when the king himself went to war. After 1385, when it was remitted after the Scotch expedition, it disappears.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, espec. i., § 161.

[W. J. A.]

Seal, The Great, is the emblem of sovereignty, and is used on all solemn occasions when the will of the sovereign is to be expressed. A new Great Seal is provided by the king in council at the beginning of a new reign, or whenever a change is made in the royal arms or style, and the old one is publicly broken. It was introduced into England by Edward the Confessor, who, following the example of the Carlovingian kings, placed it

in the keeping of a chancellor. From the time of Becket and onwards the office was one of varied importance, and accordingly we find that the personal custody of the seal was not unfrequently placed in the hands of a vice-chancellor. Richard I. violently took possession of the seal, ordered a new one to be made, and proclaimed that all charters which had been sealed with the old one were null and void. In order to prevent this practice, a statute was passed on the 28th of Henry III., proclaiming the nullity of any document sealed by the Great Seal during its absence from the hands of the chancellor. This law was, however, often broken, and it was not unusual for the chancellor to entrust the seal to one or more vice-chancellors when he was engaged on the business of his diocese, or absent from England. Also during the interval between the death or resignation of one chancellor, the Great Seal, instead of reverting to the sovereign, passed into the hands of a temporary keeper. Gradually this official acquired the right of discharging all the duties connected with the Great Seal, and in the case of Sir Nicholas Bacon, Lord Keeper during the earlier part of Elizabeth's reign, a statute was passed declaring him to have "the same place, pre-eminence, and jurisdiction as the Lord Chancellor of England." During the following reigns the Great Seal continued in the custody of the Lord Keeper in the first instance, but this official was generally raised to the title of Lord Chancellor and kept the seal; since the accession of George III., however, the office of Lord Keeper has been discontinued. The Great Seal was also occasionally placed in commission. Under the Tudors and Stuarts the earlier ordinance passed in 1443, requiring that the chancellor should not fix the Great Seal without authority under the Privy Seal, was seldom observed. When Lord Keeper Littleton fled to Charles I. at York in 1642, taking with him the Great Seal, the Long Parliament illegally ordered a new Great Seal to be made, to which after some delay the Lords gave their consent, in spite of a proclamation by the king, charging those concerned in making it with high treason. In 1648 a new Great Seal was ordered with Republican insignia, and soon afterwards it was declared high treason to counterfeit it. A rival Great Seal was, however, used by Charles II. immediately after the death of his father, which was lost after the battle of Worcester. James II. on his flight from London threw the Great Seal into the Thames, but it was fished up again near Lambeth. Since the Revolution the use of the Great Seal has been strictly confined to the Lord Chancellor, Lord Keeper, and Lords Commissioners, and the regulations for its employment have been carefully observed. By the Act of Union with Scotland one Great Seal for the United Kingdom is used for the writs by which Parliament is summoned, for foreign treaties, and for all public acts of state, while a seal in Scotland is used for private grants. The Act of Union with Ireland, however, made no express provision for establishing one Great Seal for the United Kingdom. By the Great Seal (Offices) Act of 1874, a number of offices connected with the Great Seal were abolished, having become obsolete.

Campbell, *Lives of the Lord Chancellors*; see also for lists of Lord Chancellors and Lord Keepers, Haydn, *Book of Dignities*.

[L. C. S.]

Seal, The Privy, is affixed to all letters-patent for the grant of charters, pardons, &c., before they come to the Great Seal, and to some things of minor importance which do not pass the Great Seal at all. The office of Clerk or Keeper of the Privy Seal, now called Lord Privy Seal, is of Norman origin. By the reign of Edward III. he had become one of the chief officers of state and a member of the king's council. The dignity was frequently conferred on an ecclesiastic; for instance, in the reign of Edward IV. John Russell, Bishop of Lincoln, united the offices of Keeper of the Privy Seal and President of the Council. The keeper was a member of the Court of Star Chamber as organised by Henry VII. In the reign of Henry VIII. the Privy Seal was made the warrant of the legality of letters patent from the crown, and authorised the Lord Chancellor to affix the Great Seal. Letters patent formerly passed from the Signet Office to the Privy Seal Office in the form of Signet Bills, and were then sealed and sent to the Lord Chancellor; but on the abolition of the Signet Office in 1848, it was enacted that warrants under the royal sign-manual, prepared by the Attorney-General and Solicitor-General, setting forth the tenor and effect of the letters-patent to be granted, addressed to the Lord Chancellor, and countersigned by one of the principal Secretaries of State, would be a sufficient authority for the Privy Seal being affixed. At the same time the appointments of Clerks of the Signet and Clerks of the Privy Seal were abolished. The Lord Privy Seal is the fifth great officer of state, a Privy Councillor in virtue of his office, and takes precedence after the Lord President of the Council. The office of Lord Privy Seal of Scotland was established by James I. after his return from imprisonment in England. It was directly modelled on the parallel dignity in the English court. The seal had been previously kept by the Lord Chancellor.

Haydn, *Book of Dignities*; 11 and 12 Vict., c. 82.

[L. C. S.]

Search Warrants are issued by justices of the peace to the officers to whom they are addressed, requiring them to search a house

or other specified place for property suspected to have been stolen. The conditions of their issue are regulated by the Larceny Act of 1861 and the Pawnbrokers' Act of 1872.

Seaton, JOHN COLBORNE, LORD (*b.* 1778, *d.* 1863), one of the most famous generals of his age, distinguished himself in his first campaign in Holland (1799). In 1801 he was present at the battle of Maida, and served throughout the Peninsular War with great distinction. It is said that his handling of the 52nd Regiment at Waterloo contributed in no small degree to the English victory. In 1828 he was made Lieutenant-Governor of Canada, and Governor-General of the same province in 1837. He was also commander of the forces at the same time, and to his energetic action the easy suppression of the Canadian Rebellion of 1838 was mainly due. In the following year his services were rewarded by a peerage, and in 1860 Lord Seaton became a field-marshal. In 1843 he was made Lord High Commissioner of the Ionian Isles, an office which he held for six years.

Sebastopol was a strongly fortified city in the Crimea, which the Emperor Nicholas made the head-quarters of the Russian fleet. When the Crimean War broke out its siege was resolved upon. When the southern side of it was evacuated by the Russians, and the town was occupied by the allies, the Crimean War practically ended (Sept. 9, 1855). [CRIMEAN WAR.]

Secker, THOMAS, Archbishop of Canterbury (*b.* 1693, *d.* 1768), was born of Dissenting parents at Sibthorpe, in Nottinghamshire. Abandoning the Dissenting ministry for medicine, and ultimately persuaded by his school friend, Butler, to join the ministry of the Established Church, he entered Exeter College, Oxford, was ordained in 1723, and was made in 1735 Bishop of Bristol; was translated in 1737 to Oxford, and in 1758 made archbishop. He was an energetic and respectable archbishop.

Porteus, *Life of Secker* prefixed to his *Works.*

Secretary of State, THE OFFICE OF, is supposed to be first mentioned in the reign of Henry III., when we find a *secretarius noster* in existence, who carried out the duties which had been previously fulfilled by the king's clerk. There continued to be one principal secretary of state until towards the end of the reign of Henry VIII., when two were appointed of equal powers (1539). In the same reign secretaries of state, who had previously been mere clerks who prepared business for the Privy Council, but were not admitted to its debates, became members of that body. Sir Robert Cecil had the recognised title of "Our Principal Secretary of State," and the office of secretary attained its present importance when after the Revolution the Cabinet began to displace the Privy Council. On the union with Scotland a Secretary of State for Scotch affairs was created, among those who held the office being the Earl of Mar, but it expired in 1746. In 1768 a secretary was appointed for American and Colonial affairs, which from 1660 had been managed by the Council of Trade, but this office was abolished in 1782. In the same year an important change took place. Hitherto the two secretaryships had been known as those of the northern and the southern department, of which the former, besides the superintendence of the foreign affairs of Northern Europe, was supposed to be concerned with those of Ireland. This clumsy arrangement was now abolished, and their duties devolved upon Home and Foreign Secretaries. In 1794 a Secretary at War was appointed, and he received in addition the business of the colonies in 1801, but the two functions of colonial and military administration were finally separated in 1854. The secretaryship for India was created in 1858 on the abolition of the double system of government. The Chief Secretary for Ireland does not as a rule have a seat in the Cabinet, and is not reckoned as one of the principal secretaries of state. His official title is the Chief Secretary to the Lord Lieutenant. There are also Parliamentary under-secretaries, and permanent secretaries, who are the heads of the working staffs of the government departments.

Security, THE BILL OF (SCOTLAND), was passed in 1703 by the Scottish Parliament during the agitation that preceded and necessitated the union of the two kingdoms. It provided that Parliament should fix a successor to the Scottish crown on the death of Anne from among the Protestant members of the royal family, provided that he should under no circumstances be the same person as the successor to the English crown, unless full security was given for the religious and commercial independence of Scotland, and its equality in trade with England. The royal assent was naturally refused to such a measure; but this step proved so unpopular that Parliament had to be immediately dismissed without hope of subsidy.

Burton, *Hist. of Scotland* and *Reign of Queen Anne.*

Sedgemoor, THE BATTLE OF (July 5, 1685), was fought between the Duke of Monmouth and the royal troops under the Earl of Feversham. After marching through the West country and failing to capture Bath, Monmouth determined to risk all in a general engagement with the royal troops, who were encamped on Sedgemoor, about three miles south of Bridgewater, while Monmouth was then in Bridgewater. Sedgemoor is a swampy plain, crossed by wide ditches called "rhines." In front of Lord Feversham's camp was one of these called the Bussex Rhine. It was Monmouth's

intention to attack the royal army in its camp at night. His army was in motion by midnight, and his guides brought him to the brink of the "rhine," fronting Feversham's encampment. This was too deep to be crossed. The insurgents halted in doubt, and by accident shots were fired across the "rhine," and these roused Feversham's troops. Making a detour, they fell on Monmouth's army. Lord Grey and his horse were the first of the insurgents to give way. The peasants and miners of the West country, however, fought with more courage. But the flight of the cavalry, under Grey, had made the cause of Monmouth hopeless. The duke himself, at dawn, rode away towards Hampshire. Deserted by their leaders, the insurgents endeavoured to fly; but Colonel Kirke, at the head of his Tangier troops, followed them in close pursuit. A great and barbarous slaughter of the fugitives by the royal troops ensued. The battle, of course, put an immediate end to Monmouth's rebellion.

Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Roberts, *Monmouth.*

Seditious Meetings Bill (1795) was provoked by the same state of popular excitement which caused the Treasonable Practices Bill. The measure was introduced by Pitt. It prohibited the meeting of more than fifty persons (except county and borough meetings duly called) for the consideration of petitions or addresses for reform in Church or State, or for the discussion of any grievance, without the sanction of a magistrate. It vested large discretionary powers in the magistrates, both as to sanctioning such meetings and dispersing them. Pitt even proposed to restrict the liberty of discussion by only permitting debating societies to meet in duly licensed rooms. The bill was professedly a measure of coercion, and was as such opposed by Fox and all his party with even more than their wonted vigour. Only forty-two members followed him in opposing the introduction of the bill; and its last reading was carried by 266 to 51.

May, *Const. Hist.*; Massey, *Hist. of Eng.*

Sedley, Sir Charles (*b.* 1639, *d.* 1701), was a witty but profligate play-writer of the Restoration period; he was the father of Catherine Sedley [Dorchester, Countess of], James II.'s mistress, and took some part in politics as member for Romney. Ultimately he became a strong partisan of the Revolution, though his speech in 1690 against placemen showed that he retained his independence under the new government.

Seedasseer, The Battle of (March 6, 1799), was an English victory in the Mysore War against Tippoo Sultan. General Stuart, with the Bombay division [Wellesley, Marquess of], had ascended the Ghauts, and posted himself at Seedasseer. On the morning of March 5 Tippoo was found to be approaching. Preparations were instantly made to receive him by General Hartley, second in command. On the morning of the 6th the advanced brigade was assailed vigorously by the Sultan's entire force, and three battalions under the gallant Colonel Montresor sustained the assault for six hours with such determination that Tippoo's officers could do nothing. General Stuart, who was ten miles in the rear, hastening up, found them exhausted and reduced to their last cartridge. In half an hour Tippoo's army retreated through the wood with a loss of 2,000 men.

Wellesley Despatches; Mill, *Hist. of India*; Wilks, *Mysore.*

Seetabuldee, The Battle of (Nov. 24, 1817). The result of the intrigues of Appa Sahib with Bajee Rao was an attack on the British Residency. This lay to the west of Nagpore, from which it was separated by a small ridge running north and south, with two hills at the extremity called the Seetabuldee Hills. It was garrisoned by two battalions of Madras infantry, two companies of the Resident's escort, three troops of Bengal cavalry, and a detachment of Madras artillery with four six-pounders. The rajah had 18,000 men and thirty-six guns. The guns were brought to bear on the English position, and a vigorous assault, which was repelled with great gallantry, was made all through the night to the next morning. At last the Nagpore troops captured the lower hill, and the English ammunition was running short, when a gallant charge of the Bengal cavalry, under Captain Fitzgerald, resulted in capturing two guns and cutting up the infantry. At this moment one of the enemy's tumbrils exploded, and amid the confusion they broke and fled. The conflict, which had lasted eighteen hours, thus terminated in the triumph of the British.

Segrave, Stephen (*d. circa* 1241), was a partisan of King John during his struggles with the barons, and on Henry III.'s accession he allied himself with the party of Peter des Roches. On the dismissal of Hubert de Burgh in 1232, the office of Justiciar was given to Segrave. His administration was unsuccessful; he failed to ingratiate himself with the king, and at the same time incurred the hatred of the barons and the people. He fell in 1234, with his patron Des Roches, and was called upon to give an account of his stewardship. Subsequently he made his peace with the king by the payment of a thousand marks, returned to court, and became one of the royal advisers, but was not reinstated in his office. He retired at the end of his life to the abbey of Leicester, where he died. Segrave was one of the first of the merely legal Justiciars. Though so bad a politician, he was a good lawyer. He marks the transition to the chief justices of later times.

Foss, *Judges of England.*

Seguise, The Battle of (635), was fought at Dalguise, near Dunkeld, between

the descendants of Nectan, the Pictish king, who had been driven from the throne in 612, and Garnaid, son of Firth, king of the Picts, who, together with Lochene, son of Nectan, was killed.

Selborne, Roundell Palmer, Earl of (*b.* 1812, *d.* 1895), son of the Rev. William Palmer, of Mixbury, Oxfordshire, was educated at Rugby and Winchester Schools, and Trinity College, Oxford. He was elected to a fellowship at Magdalen, and was called to the bar at Lincoln's Inn (1837). In 1847 he was first returned to Parliament for Plymouth as a Peelite. He represented Plymouth till 1852, when he was defeated; but regained his seat (1853), and held it till 1857. In 1861 he was appointed Solicitor-General in Lord Palmerston's government, though he had not a seat in the House. He was then knighted, and shortly afterwards elected for Richmond, which he continued to represent till his elevation to the peerage. In 1863 he became Attorney-General under Lord John Russell. In 1868 he was offered the Chancellorship, but refused, as he could not agree with the administration on the Irish Church question. He continued, however, to be an independent supporter of the government on most questions, and represented it at Geneva (1871). [Geneva Convention.] He was appointed Lord Chancellor on the retirement of Lord Hatherley, on which occasion he was raised to the peerage as Baron Selborne, retiring with the Liberal party in 1874. He again became Liberal Chancellor in 1880, but refused the same office in the Home Rule Cabinet of 1886. He was created an Earl in 1883.

Selby, The Battle of (April 11, 1644), was fought during the Great Rebellion. Col. John Bellasis, the Governor of York, during the absence of the Marquis of Newcastle, who was facing the Scots in Durham, occupied with 1,500 horse and 1,800 foot the town of Selby, with the object of preventing the junction of Sir Thomas Fairfax with the Scots. He was attacked on April 11 by Fairfax, with rather superior forces, and his position stormed. Bellasis himself was taken prisoner, and he lost his baggage, artillery, and 1,600 men. Clarendon says:—"This was the first action for which Sir Thomas Fairfax was taken notice of, who in a short time grew the supreme general under the Parliament."

Markham, *Life of Fairfax.*

Selden, John (*b.* 1584, *d.* 1654), was educated at Hart Hall, Oxford, and became a member of Clifford's Inn in 1602. After he had continued there a sedulous student for some time, he "did by help of a strong body and vast memory, not only run through the whole body of the law, but became a prodigy in most parts of learning . . . so that in few years his name was wonderfully advanced, not only at home, but in foreign countries, and he was usually styled 'the great dictator of learning of the English nation'" (Wood). In 1618 he published a *History of Tithes*, strongly Erastian in its tendency, and basing the claim of the clergy to them on the grant of the civil power. The book was suppressed by the Court of High Commission, and the author was obliged to make a public acknowledgment of his error. Selden sat in the Parliaments of 1624, 1626, and 1628. He took part in the impeachment of the Duke of Buckingham, and had the 4th and 5th articles entrusted to him (1626). He also helped to prepare the Petition of Right. In 1629 he was summoned before the Council for his share in the disturbances of the last day of that Parliament, and was imprisoned until 1633. Two years later he published *Mare Clausum*, asserting the English sovereignty of the seas, which had originally been written in answer to the *Mare Liberum* of Grotius. When the Long Parliament assembled Selden was chosen member for Oxford. He brought forward the bill for the abolition of Ship-money, and other measures limiting the prerogative; but he opposed the bill for the attainder of Strafford, and the Root and Branch Bill. In 1643 he was appointed one of the representatives of the House of Commons in the Westminster Assembly, where he played a distinguished part, and two years later was selected as a member of the Joint Commission to administer the Admiralty. He died on Nov. 30, 1654, leaving his library to his executors, who gave it to the Bodleian Library at Oxford.

Wood, *Athenæ Oxonienses;* Johnson, *Life of Selden.* [C. H. F.]

Self-denying Ordinance, The, was a measure proposed in the Long Parliament on Dec. 9, 1644, by Mr. Zouch Tate, member for Northampton. The words of the resolution were "that no member of either House of Parliament shall during the war enjoy or execute any office or command, military or civil, and that an ordinance be brought in to that effect." An ordinance was brought in and passed the Commons on Dec. 19, by the small majority of seven votes. After some discussion and hesitation the Lords rejected it, giving as a reason that they did not know what shape the army would take. The Commons at once produced a scheme "for new modelling of the army" [New Model], which passed the Commons on Jan. 28, 1645, and the Lords on Feb. 15. A second Self-denying Ordinance was now introduced which passed the Lords on April 3, 1645. It provided that all members of either House, who had since the beginning of the present Parliament been appointed to any offices, military or civil, should vacate those offices within forty days. But it differed from the first ordinance in that it did not prevent members from taking

office on any future occasion. The name given to this ordinance is perhaps derived from a phrase used by Cromwell, who was one of its strongest supporters. "I hope," he said, "we have such English hearts and zealous affections towards the general weal of our mother country, as no members of either house will scruple to *deny themselves*, and their own private interests, for the public good."

Carlyle, *Cromwell*; May, *Long Parliament*; Whitelocke, *Memorials*.

Selgovæ, The, were an ancient British tribe occupying Annandale, Nithsdale, and Eskdale, in Dumfriesshire, with the east of Galloway.

Selvach (*d.* 729), King of the Picts, son of Fearchan Fada, succeeded his brother Aincellach, whom he expelled, as head of the Cinel Loarn (698). In 701 he destroyed the rival tribe of Cinel Cathboth, and in 711 defeated the Britons at Loch Arklet, in Stirlingshire. The following year we find him fighting against the Cinel Gabran in Kintyre, and in 717 again defeating the Strathclyde Britons. In 719 he was defeated in the naval battle of Ardanesbi. In 723 Selvach resigned the crown to his son Dungal, and entered a monastery, from which, however, he emerged in 727 to fight the battle of Ross Forichen on his son's behalf.

Sepoy Mutinies. (1) 1764. There is no instinct of obedience in native armies in India, and the British army of Sepoys was in its earlier days no exception to the rule. Having been instrumental in deposing two Nabobs of Bengal, the Company's Bengal Sepoys became inflated with a sense of their own importance, and demanded a large donation and increased pay. It was refused; whereupon a whole battalion marched off to the enemy. Major Munro pursued them and brought them back. Twenty-four ringleaders were selected, tried by court-martial, and condemned to be blown from guns. Four were executed in this way; whereupon the Sepoys announced that no more executions would be allowed. Munro loaded his guns with grape, placed his European soldiers in the intervals, and commanded the native battalions to ground arms, threatening to discharge the guns on them if a single man was seen to move. The Sepoys were awed by his resolution: sixteen more were blown away; the mutiny was quenched in their blood; and discipline was restored. [For second and third mutinies see articles Vellore Mutiny and Barrackpore Mutiny.] (4) The fourth mutiny broke out in 1844. Scinde became a British province, and the Sepoys thus lost the extra allowances which had been granted them while on active service in an enemy's country. The weakness of the commanders, who tried to induce the revolted Sepoys to return to their duty by promising extra allowances, only aggravated the mutiny. The men on arriving in Scinde complained that they had been allured there by false pretences, which was indeed true. It was determined to bring up regiments from Madras; and the Madras governor induced them to undertake the voyage by promising them extra pay. On their arrival they found that the regulations of the Bengal army did not permit of this; and, thus disappointed of their expectations, they broke out into open mutiny on parade. The leaders were confined, and a small advance of money was made. The Madras regiments were returned; the mutinies were hushed up; and Scinde was made over to Bombay to be garrisoned from thence. (5) The Punjaub was the scene of the fifth. As in Scinde in 1844, the 13th and 22nd Native Infantry broke into mutiny on the withdrawal of extra allowances when the Punjaub became a British province. The 41st at Delhi, after the order of reduction had been read, refused to march, and only consented on threat of dismissal. At Wuzeerabad the Sepoys of the 32nd hesitated to receive their pay, but were brought to order by the seizure and ironing of the first four. The 66th at Govindgur mutinied, Feb. 1, 1850. One Sepoy endeavoured to close the gate, but Lieutenant Macdonald cut him down, and a small squadron of cavalry under Colonel Bradford restored order. (6) 1857. In this year took place the great Indian Mutiny (q.v.).

Sepoys are the troops, natives of India, in the English pay. At an early date the Company found out that the natives, properly disciplined according to European methods, formed excellent soldiers, and largely used them as cheaper and more efficient than the produce of the crimp-houses and ale-shops of London. By their arms, rather than by European troops, India was conquered by the English; but their religious caste prejudices and dislike of innovation, and sometimes the want of consideration shown to them, have produced mutinies, of which the chief are mentioned above.

The importance of the native troops in English employ is clearly shown in Seeley's *Expansion of England*.

Septennial Act, The (1716), which increased the length of Parliament to seven years, was passed, partly because the Triennial Act of 1694 had not worked well in practice, but still more because the very excited state of popular feeling in consequence of the Jacobite revolt, made it unsafe for the Whig ministry to run the risk of a general election. The right of a sitting Parliament thus to lengthen its own existence was violently contested at the time; and, indeed, could only be justified by the critical condition of the nation, and the bad state of the representation, which made an appeal to the people almost a farce. Often violently attacked as fixing to the life of Parliament a limit too long for popular freedom, the Septennial Act

has nevertheless continued law up to the present day, although recent usage has practically reduced the length of Parliament to a maximum of six years.

Sergeanty was a peculiar tenure, the essence of which was a "peculiar service of special duty to the person of the lord." There were two sorts of sergeanty—(1) grand sergeanty (*per magnum servitium*), such as holding an estate on condition of acting as butler or chamberlain at the royal coronation, a tenure analogous to knight service, but esteemed more honourable, and not, so far as the form goes, abolished in 1660; and (2) petit sergeanty, which consisted in holding lands of the king by the service of rendering some small implement of war, such as a bow or sword, and which was very similar to free socage.

Seringapatam, The Sieges of. (1) On Feb. 5, 1762, the army of Lord Cornwallis, consisting of 22,000 men, forty-four field-pieces, and forty-two siege guns, and reinforced by Mahratta and Mogul contingents from Poonah and Hyderabad, reached an elevated ground commanding a view of Seringapatam, the capital of Tippoo's State of Mysore. Its defences were three lines protected by 300 pieces of cannon, the earthwork being covered by a bound hedge of thorny plants so as to be absolutely impenetrable. Tippoo's force was encamped on the northern side of the stream in a position admirably fortified. Lord Cornwallis reconnoitred on the 6th, and that same night moved his army to the assault in three main divisions. The centre moved straight into Tippoo's camp; part forced its way through the river, and seized a village and the guns on the island; part attacked the redoubts within the camp; while the reserve, gathering up the other divisions, advanced under Lord Cornwallis, fighting its way through Tippoo's army, across the river to the island. Thus in the morning the English had gained all the redoubts, and established themselves in the island, with a loss of 530 men; Tippoo's loss killed, wounded, and deserters being estimated at 20,000. Tippoo now began to treat insincerely. On Feb. 16 General Abercromby and the Malabar army joined Lord Cornwallis; the operations of the siege were pushed with vigour, and fifty pieces of cannon were brought to bear on the fortifications. Tippoo, alarmed, consented to treat, and even sent his sons to Lord Cornwallis as hostages. After a fresh dispute over the cession of Coorg, the treaty of peace was signed (1792). (2) April 6, 1799. This took place during Lord Wellesley's campaign against Mysore. The advanced post of General Harris's army established itself within 1,600 yards of the fort of Seringapatam on the south-west side of the river and fort. The works south of the river were gradually taken, and batteries established on the north and south banks, and on an island in the Cavery commanding the western angle of the fort. On May 3 the breach was practicable. The troops destined for the assault, 4,376 in number, took up their stations in the trenches next morning, and General Baird was selected to lead them. At one o'clock the word was given, and, in spite of a desperate resistance, within seven minutes the British ensign was floating over the breach. The column now wheeled in two divisions, to the left and right along the outer ramparts, exposed to a raking fire from the inner circle. The right column reached the east or Mysore gate, and storming the inner ramparts, directed a flanking fire on the defenders of the outer north rampart. A general stampede followed, and in the flight Tippoo was slain. General Baird succeeded in securing the family of Tippoo, and proceeded to search for the dead body of the Sultan, of whose death he was informed. Thus in the space of a few hours fell the capital of Mysore, though garrisoned by 20,000 troops, defended by 287 pieces of ordnance, and provided with well-stored arsenals, and every munition of war. "On the 4th of May," says Sir John Malcolm, "all our labours were crowned by the completest victory that ever crowned the British annals in India. A State that had been the rival of the Company for nearly thirty years was on that day wholly annihilated."

Wilks, *Mysore*; Mill, *India*; Cornwallis, *Despatches*; *Wellesley Despatches*.

Seringapatam, The Treaty of (Mar. 8, 1792), was concluded between the parties to the triple alliance of 1790 and Tippoo. Its stipulations were the cession of the old Mahratta provinces north of the Tungabuddra to the Peishwa; the cession to the Nizam of Tippoo's provinces north of that river; the cession to the English of the districts of Malabar, Coorg, Dindigul, Baramahal, and Salem; and the restoration of the English prisoners.

Cornwallis Despatches; Wilks, *Mysore*.

Session, The Court of, the highest civil judicial tribunal in Scotland, was instituted by statute of James V. in 1532. Its functions had previously been discharged by the Council and a committee of Parliament. Its original composition included fourteen judges, called Lords of Session, and a president. Besides this the crown could appoint three or four peers as assessors. In 1808 the court was divided into two courts with separate jurisdiction, called the first and second divisions; the former presided over by the President, the latter by the Lord Justice Clerk. In 1810 the junior judges were appointed to sit as Lords Ordinary in the Outer House. In 1830 the number of judges was reduced to thirteen, and the quorum was also reduced. An appeal lies to the House of Lords.

Seton, George, 5th Lord Seton (*d.* 1585), was one of the leaders of the Catholic party in Scotland against the teaching of Knox. He was a staunch supporter of Queen Mary, whom he entertained in his castle in Haddingtonshire immediately after Darnley's murder, and promptly aided on her escape from Lochleven Castle (1568).

Settlement, The Act of, or, as its proper title is, the "Act for the further limitation of the crown and better securing the rights and liberties of the subject," was passed in the year 1700. It was necessitated by the untimely death of the young Duke of Gloucester, son of the Princess Anne, in this year. "There was no question," says Hallam, "that the Princess Sophia was the fittest object of the nation's preference. She was indeed very far removed from any hereditary title. Besides the pretended Prince of Wales and his sister, whose legitimacy no one disputed, there stood in her way the Duchess of Savoy, daughter of Henrietta, Duchess of Orleans, and several members of the Palatine family. . . According to the tenor and intention of this statute, all prior claims of inheritance, save that of the issue of King William and the Princess Anne, being set aside and annulled, the Princess Sophia became the source of a new royal line. The throne of England and Ireland stands entailed upon the heirs of her body, being Protestants . . . . It was determined to accompany this settlement with additional securities of the subject's liberty. Eight articles were therefore inserted in the Act of Settlement, to take effect only from the commencement of the new limitation of the house of Hanover." These eight articles were, however, an unreasonable vote of censure of the Tory Parliament which passed the Act, on many of the Acts of the reign of William III. They are: (1) That whosoever shall hereafter come to the possession of this crown shall join in communion with the Church of England as by law established; (2) That in case the crown and imperial dignity of this realm shall hereafter come to any person not being a native of this kingdom of England, this nation be not obliged to engage in any war for the defence of any dominions or territories which do not belong to the crown of England, without the consent of Parliament; (3) That no person who shall hereafter come to the possession of the crown shall go out of the dominions of England, Scotland, or Ireland without the consent of Parliament; (4) That from and after the time that further limitation of this Act shall take effect, all matters and things relating to the well-governing of this kingdom which are properly cognisable in the Privy Council by the laws and customs of this realm shall be transacted there, and all resolutions taken thereupon shall be signed by such of the Privy Council as shall advise and consent to the same; (5) That . . . no person born out of the kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland, or the dominions thereunto belonging (though he be naturalised or made a denizen, except such as are born of English parents), shall be capable to be of the Privy Council, or a member of either House of Parliament, or to enjoy any office or place of trust, either civil or military, or to have any grants of lands . . . from the crown . . .; (6) That no person who has an office or place of profit under the king, or receives a pension from the crown, shall be capable of serving as a member of the House of Commons; (7) That . . . judges' commissions shall be made *quamdiu se bene gesserint*, and their salaries established and ascertained; but upon the address of both Houses of Parliament it may be lawful to remove them; (8) That no pardon under the Great Seal of England be pleadable to an impeachment by the Commons in Parliament. The first of these provisions needs no comment. The second was frequently called in question during the reign of George II., in regard to subsidiary treaties for the defence of Hanover. Certainly if a power at war with England chose to consider that Electorate as part of the king's dominions it ought to be defended from attack. The real remedy—the separation of Hanover from England—was effected on the accession of Victoria. The third was repealed shortly after the accession of George I., who frequently abused it by his journeys to Hanover. The next articles are extremely important. The fourth is a reactionary measure, being an attempt to suppress the growth of the cabinet as distinct from the Privy Council, which became more fully established in the reign of William III. The signature of the privy councillor was devised as a method of obviating the irresponsibility of the cabinet minister. [Cabinet.] The article is also a protest against William's Partition Treaty [Spanish Succession], which was concluded by the instrumentality of Portland and Somers, without his consulting even the cabinet. It was repealed in 1705. The fifth article is a protest against William's partiality for Portland and Albemarle. It was too sweeping in its application, although it had a beneficial effect in the reign of George I. It was afterwards modified, especially with regard to admission to Parliament, and was finally repealed by 7 & 8 Vict., c. 66, Mr. Hutt's Naturalisation Act. The next article was a most short-sighted measure. Had it continued in force, the ministry would have been excluded from Parliament: that is, there would have been a complete separation between the executive and legislative. Hence the Commons, who alone can grant supplies, would either have roused the people to subvert the monarchy, or they would have sunk to the condition of the Estates-General of

France. The evil of the influence of the crown was partially remedied by Place Bills, but more effectively by limiting the royal revenue. The article was revised in 1705, when, however, the following provisions were inserted: That any member of the Commons accepting an office of the crown, except a higher commission in the army, shall vacate his seat, and a new writ shall be issued; secondly, that no person holding an office created since Oct. 25, 1705, shall be capable of election or re-election. Parliament excluded at the same time all such as held pensions during the pleasure of the crown; and, to check the multitude of placemen, enacted that the numbers of commissioners appointed to execute any office should not be increased. The efficacy of the seventh clause was increased by the exclusion of judges from Parliament.

12 & 13 Will. III., c. 2; *Statutes Revised*, ii. 93; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*, c. xv.

[L. C. S.]

Settlement, The Act of (1652), was the Cromwellian measure for the Settlement of Ireland. The following were its chief provisions:—(1) A free pardon was granted to all whose estates did not exceed £10 in annual value. (2) All the land in Ulster, Munster, Leinster was declared confiscated. (3) The Irish proprietors in these three provinces were divided into three classes: (*a*) All rebels before Nov. 10th, 1642, all who sat in the Kilkenny Council before May, 1643, all the leaders mentioned by name, and all concerned in the massacre of 1641, to lose their lives and estates; (*b*) All other persons, who fought against the Parliament, to lose two-thirds of their estates; (*c*) All persons who had resided in Ireland between 1641 and 1650, and who had not served with the Parliamentary forces since 1649, to lose one-third of their estates. An Act of the Little Parliament in 1653, however, declared that those proprietors who were to get part of their estates restored to them, must accept equivalents in Connaught and Clare. (4) The greater part of the forfeited lands was then set apart in equal shares to satisfy the claims of the adventurers and of the Puritan soldiery, the counties of Dublin, Cork, Kildare, and Carlow being reserved for the future disposal of Parliament. The soldiers were to be kept together in regiments; but the designs of the Protector in this direction were frustrated by the soldiers themselves, who sold their lands to speculators like Sir W. Petty, before the allotment. Mr. Lecky says of the Cromwellian Settlement, "It is the foundation of that deep and lasting aversion between the proprietary and the tenants, which is the chief cause of the political and social evils of Ireland."

Prendergast, *The Cromwellian Settlement*; Carte, *Ormonde*; Froude, *English in Ireland*.

Settlement, The Act of (14 & 15 Charles II.—1662), was passed in the second session of Charles II.'s first Irish Parliament, and was substantially based on the Declaration of 1660. It declared that innocent Irish were to regain their estates, while the Cromwellian and other settlers also had their land confirmed to them. It was found that there was not enough land in Ireland to satisfy all. Everything depended on the construction of the word "innocent" by the Court of Claims. The term innocent was not to include anyone who had been on the rebel side, or even resided within their lines before the cessation, nor anyone who had sided with Rinuccini against Ormonde. Yet, despite this not very liberal construction, too much land was restored by that court to the natives, and it was found necessary in 1665 to pass a second Act, the Act of Settlement and Explanation.

Froude, *English in Ireland*; Carte, *Ormonde*; *Statutes*.

Settlement and Explanation, The Act of (17 & 18 Charles II. — 1665), became necessary, owing to the action of the Court of Claims and its construction of the Act of Settlement in favour of the natives. In accordance with the new Act, adventurers and soldiers were to content themselves with two-thirds of what belonged to them; Catholics were to make good their claims as innocent within the year. All doubtful cases were to be construed in favour of Protestants, and some twenty persons were to be restored to their estates by special favour, and at once. The result of this Act, thus avowedly designed to protect the Protestant interest, and especially of the second clause, was to deprive 3,000 Catholics of all their rights without a trial. The result of the Act, when carried out, was to leave but one-third instead of two-thirds of the good land in Ireland in Catholic hands. An attempt at inquiry into the working of this Act in 1670 had to be given up in deference to the English Parliament.

Carte, *Ormonde*; Froude, *English in Ireland*; Lecky, *Hist. of the Eighteenth Century*.

Settlement of India, The Act for the (or, as it is more correctly called, "The Act for the better Government of India"), became law in 1858 after vigorous debates on Lord John Russell's resolutions, upon which it was based, and a strong protest from the directors of the East India Company. It provided that all the territories previously under the government of the Company were to be vested in the Queen, who was to govern through one of the principal secretaries of state, assisted by a council of fifteen, of whom seven were to be elected by the court of directors and eight nominated by the crown. After a certain time the right of the directors to appoint members was to be transferred to the secretary of state. The Governor-General received the new title of Viceroy. The civil service was made competitive, the military forces were amalgamated with the royal

service, and the navy abolished. It was also provided that Indian revenues should not be applied towards defraying the cost of an extra-frontier military expedition without the consent of Parliament. [INDIA.]

Act 21 & 22 Vict., c. 106.

Seven Bishops, THE, were Archbishop Sancroft of Canterbury, Bishops Ken of Bath and Wells, White of Peterborough, Lloyd of St. Asaph, Trelawney of Bristol, Lake of Chichester, and Turner of Ely. They drew up at Lambeth a petition against James II.'s requiring the clergy to read his Declaration of Indulgence during divine service in their churches (May, 1688). Arrested and accused of publishing a seditious libel, they were tried before venal judges and a packed jury. But on June 30 they were acquitted in the midst of great popular rejoicings. The very same day an invitation to invade England was sent to the Prince of Orange. It is remarkable that the Seven Bishops were such strong Tories and High Churchmen, that the majority of them, including Sancroft and Ken, became Non-jurors.

Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Burnet, *Hist. of his Own Time*; Strickland, *Lives of the Seven Bishops.*

Seven Earls, THE, were dignitaries of early mediæval Scotland. The appearance of the term earl as a title, and of the Seven Earls as representing various parts of the country in the council of the kingdom, begins with the reign of Alexander I. The same officials had, if Celts, been previously styled mormaers; if Norsemen, jarls. The appearance of the Seven Earls is an important step in the feudalisation of Scotland, and in the Anglicisation of the northern districts. Under Alexander II. the Seven Earls appear as a recognised constitutional body, and then included the Earls of Fife, Strathearne, Athole, Angus, Menteith, Buchan, and Lothian, but the lists vary at different times. The Seven Earls claimed of Edward I. the right of constituting and appointing the king. But at least as early as this their functions were extended to the Estates, and the creation of additional earldoms put an end to the Seven Earls.

Skene, *Celtic Scotland*, vol. iii.

Seven Years' War, THE (1756—1763), was caused by the alarm entertained by the Continental powers of Europe at the aggressive designs of Frederick the Great, and by the desire of Maria Theresa to recover the province of Silesia from the King of Prussia. Austria was readily joined by Louis XV. of France, the Czarina Elizabeth, and the King of Poland, who was also Elector of Saxony; while Frederick obtained promises of assistance from England—which was nervously afraid of isolation, and was already at war with France in the colonies—besides some money, and an army in Hanover. Throughout the Continental war, however, the British troops played a secondary part. The first campaign was a great triumph for Frederick. Assuming the offensive, he overran Saxony, defeated the Austrians, who were advancing to its relief at Lobositz, and compelled the Saxon army to surrender. In 1757 the attention of Frederick was at first confined to Bohemia, which he invaded; he invested the Imperialists in Prague, until Marshal Daun defeated him decisively at Kolin in June, and compelled him to evacuate the country. Meanwhile, in Hanover, the English-Hanoverian army, under the Duke of Cumberland, was opposed to the French under Marshal d'Estrées. After allowing the French to cross the Weser, he was utterly defeated at Hastenbeck (July 26), and compelled to capitulate under the Convention of Kloster-Seven. This arrangement, however, was repudiated by the British government, and the defeated army placed under Ferdinand of Brunswick, who drove back the French on that side. Aided by this timely diversion, Frederick succeeded in making head against the coalition, the Imperialists being routed at Rossbach in November, and Silesia reoccupied after the victory of Leuthen. The sudden withdrawal of the Russians from the campaign, owing to the illness of the Czarina, set the Prussians who had been employed against them free to chastise the Swedes, who had joined the allies in this year. At the same time Clive in India had won the great victory of Plassey over the French. The next campaign (1758) was one of considerable changes of fortune. Ferdinand of Brunswick, after defeating the French at Crefeld in June, retired before Marshal Contades, only to advance again and drive the enemy behind the Rhine. On his side Frederick was driven out of Moravia, but won a brilliant victory over the Russians at Zorndorf; and though defeated by Daun with loss, at Hofkirchen, he managed before the end of the year to free Saxony and Silesia from the enemy. Meanwhile the English had taken Louisburg and Fort Duquesne in America, and made successful descents upon Cherbourg and St. Malo. In 1759 the efforts of Frederick were on the whole unfortunate. The battle of Kunersdorf, at first a victory, was converted into a crushing defeat by the approach of Marshal Loudon; his general, Fink, surrendered in November, and at the end of the year Saxony and Lusatia were occupied by the Austrians. Ferdinand of Brunswick, however, though frustrated in an attempt to recover Frankfort, won a great victory at Minden on Aug. 1, over Contades and Broglie, and aided by the victory of his relative the hereditary Prince of Brunswick, on the same day, succeeded in clearing Westphalia of the enemy. At the same time the resources of the French were being weakened by the English successes in the East and West, by the capture of

Quebec in September, by the victories of Boscawen at Lagos, and of Hawke at Quiberon, and by the successes of Coote in India, which terminated with the battle of Wandewash. In 1760 the English subsidy alone enabled Frederick to resist his encircling enemies. Berlin was occupied by the Russians in October, and though by the brilliant victory of Liegnitz in August, Silesia had been partially recovered, they came up again in November, and the fearful battle of Torgau only just saved Prussia from destruction. It was followed by the retirement of the allies on all sides. Soon after the death of George II. all subsidies from England ceased, and so exhausted were both sides, that no operations of particular moment were undertaken. On the Rhine, Ferdinand of Brunswick and the French alternately advanced and retreated, and the Russians and Austrians were unable to crush Frederick's remnant of an army, owing to the desolation of the country. A double series of negotiations had already begun, those between England and France, and those between Russia and Austria on the one side, and Prussia on the other. The former, in spite of the opposition of Pitt and the outbreak of the war with Spain, ripened into the Treaty of Paris (q.v.) of 1763. The latter were broken off by Austria, and the war was resumed. The death of the Czarina Elizabeth, in Jan., 1762, however, totally changed the balance of affairs, and Maria Theresa, thus left alone, was compelled to conclude the Peace of Hubertsburg in 1763, by which Frederick retained Silesia. The war, therefore, had effected but little change in Europe; but it had settled the question of the rivalry of England and France in America and India, decisively in favour of this country.

Carlyle, *Frederick the Great*; Martin, *Hist. of France*; Arneth, *Maria Theresa*; Brackenbury, *Frederick the Great*; Lecky, *Hist. of Eng.*; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; Seeley, *The Expansion of Eng.*

Severus, L. Septimius, Roman Emperor 193—211, is famous in British history for his expedition to Britain in 208, his subdivision of the island into two provinces, his building the wall which goes by his name between the Solway Firth and the Tyne, following the line of the vallum of Hadrian. Soon after he died at York (211).

Seville, The Treaty of (Nov. 9, 1729), settled for awhile the difficulties which had been raised in Europe by the intrigues of the Spanish minister, Don Ripperda, in opposition to the Quadruple Alliance. The question most difficult to arrange was that of the cession of Gibraltar. This possession the ministry were not unwilling to surrender, provided an equivalent was given, but feared opposition from the nation, which was violently agitated on the subject, owing to the publication of a letter of George I., in which it had been vaguely promised. The government therefore sent William Stanhope to Spain, who succeeded in concluding the treaty. He was aided by French mediation. It was a defensive alliance between England, Spain, and France, and subsequently Holland. Spain revoked all the privileges granted to Austrian subjects by the treaties of Vienna, re-established English trade in America on its former footing, and restored all captures. The Assiento was confirmed to the South Sea Company, and arrangements were made for securing the succession of Parma and Tuscany to the infant Don Carlos, by substituting Spanish troops for the neutral forces, which since the preliminaries had been occupying those countries. Gibraltar was not mentioned in the treaty, and this silence was regarded as a renunciation of the claims of Spain. "The Treaty of Seville," says Mr. Lecky, "has been justly regarded as one of the great triumphs of French diplomacy. It closed the breach which had long divided the courts of France and of Spain, and, at the same time, it detached both England and Spain from the Emperor, and left him isolated in Europe. He resented it bitterly, protesting against the introduction of Spanish troops into Italy as a violation of the Quadruple Alliance, threatened to resist it by force, and delayed the execution of this part of the treaty during the whole of 1730."

Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*, ch. xii.; Coxe, *Spanish Bourbons*; Koch and Schoell, *Traités de Paix.*

Sexburh, Queen of Wessex (673), succeeded on the death of her husband Cenwealh, and reigned one year. She is remarkable as affording the sole instance of a woman obtaining the crown in Anglo-Saxon times. William of Malmesbury says of her, "She ruled her subjects with moderation, and overawed her enemies; in short, she conducted all things in such a manner that no difference was discernible, except that of her sex." [Queen.]

Anglo-Saxon Chron.; William of Malmesbury.

Seychelles, The, are a group of islands in the Indian Ocean, which were formerly in the possession of the Portuguese and French. On the acquisition of Mauritius by the English in 1810, the Seychelles were made a dependency of that colony, together with the island of Rodriguez.

Seymour, Sir Edward (*b.* 1635, *d.* 1708), a descendant in the elder line of the Lord Protector Somerset, was a strong Tory. He was made Speaker of the House of Commons in 1673; he was subsequently created Privy Councillor and Treasurer of the Navy. He opposed the Exclusion Bill, but soon after the accession of James II. spoke against the abrogation of the charters of towns, and also against the maintenance of a standing army. He joined the Prince of Orange, and was left in command at Exeter. In the Convention he would have been chosen Speaker

had he not voted for a regency. However, he took the oath of allegiance, and in 1692 he was placed on the Treasury Commission, when he soon quarrelled with his colleagues on questions of precedence, and in 1694 was dismissed from office. In 1697, exasperated at not being appointed Speaker, he made a violent speech on the election of Littleton, and went beyond the bounds of moderation in his persecution of an officer named Kirke, who had slain his eldest son in a duel. In Queen Anne's reign he was made Comptroller of the Palace. He was dismissed from office in 1704 for his opposition to the war with France.

Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Burnet, *Hist. of His Own Time.*

Seymour, Lady Jane (*d.* 1537), was the third wife of Henry VIII., and mother of Edward VI. Had been maid-of-honour to Anne Boleyn, whom she supplanted in 1536.

Seymour, of Sudeley, Thomas Lord (*d.* 1549), brother of Protector Somerset, was a man of great ambition, unprincipled in the attainment of his ends. Made a peer and Lord High Admiral of England by his brother, he shortly afterwards married Catherine Parr, the queen dowager, and utilised his improved position to set the young king against his brother, of whose power he was envious. He sought allies even among the debasers of the coinage and the pirates in the channel. He formed a plot to carry off Edward, and to drive his brother from the protectorship, but his plan was betrayed and Seymour was bribed to remain quiet. On the death of Catherine the admiral endeavoured without success to obtain the hand of the Princess Elizabeth, and formed fresh plans of violence against his brother. At the end of 1548 Seymour's proceedings became so threatening that he was arrested and sent to the Tower, attainted of high treason, and executed, March 27, 1549. "He was," says Mr. Hallam, "a dangerous and unprincipled man; he had courted the favour of the young king by small presents of money, and appears beyond question to have entertained a hope of marrying the Princess Elizabeth, who had lived much in his house during his short union with the queen dowager. It was surmised that this lady had been poisoned to make room for a still nobler consort." Latimer said of him that "the admiral was a man furthest from the fear of God that ever he knew or heard of in England."

Stowe, *Annals*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*

Shaftesbury, Anthony Ashley Cooper, Earl of (*b.* 1621, *d.* 1683), was the son of Sir John Cooper and Anne, daughter of Sir Anthony Ashley. He was educated at Oxford, and in 1640 entered Parliament. At first he espoused the cause of the king, and on the outbreak of the Civil War he was placed in command of Weymouth, but being superseded in this office he went over to the Parliament, by whom he was placed in command of the forces in Dorsetshire. He sat in the Barebones and the first Protectorate Parliaments, but subsequently had some quarrel with Cromwell, and was excluded from the Parliament of 1656. He was a member of Richard Cromwell's Parliament, and on the restoration of the Long Parliament he was made one of the Council of State. He was one of the deputation sent over to the Hague to invite Charles II. to return, and was elected to the Convention Parliament. In 1660 he was made Chancellor of the Exchequer, and in the next year was created Lord Ashley. In 1667 the Cabal ministry, of which he was a prominent member, was formed, and in 1672 he was made Earl of Shaftesbury and Lord Chancellor. All the wrong-doings of the Cabal ministry have been attributed to him, but it is now clearly proved that he had no share in advising the closing of the Exchequer, while in foreign policy his wish seems to have been to preserve the Triple Alliance. The last lay lord chancellor, as a judge, atoned for want of knowledge of law by great impartiality and acumen. The passing of the Test Act occasioned the downfall of the Cabal administration in 1673, and Shaftesbury at once joined the opposition and commenced intrigues with Monmouth. In 1677 he brought himself into collision with the crown on the question of the prorogation of Parliament. He was in consequence sent to the Tower, and remained there for twelve months. The year 1678 is memorable for the pretended Popish Plot, of which Shaftesbury has been accused of being the inventor, and whether this be so or no, he was certainly one of the chief supporters of the violent attack upon the Catholics, and especially upon the Duke of York. In 1679 he was made President of the Council, devised by Temple for carrying on the government, but only held office for six months, his strong support of the Exclusion Bill rendering him objectionable to the king. It was during this brief tenure of office that he got the Habeas Corpus Act (q.v.) passed, which was generally known at the time as Lord Shaftesbury's Act. In 1680 he made an attempt to impeach the Duke of York as a Popish recusant, but he was foiled by the judges suddenly dismissing the grand jury. In 1681 he attended the Oxford Parliament with a large body of followers, many of whom were armed; and this violence, together with the palpable lies disseminated by Oates and other informers, did much to destroy his influence, and Charles committed him to the Tower. He was indicted for high treason, but the grand jury ignored the bill, and he was released. He now plotted with Sydney, Russell, and others to effect a change of government; but the conspiracy being discovered, he fled to Holland in November.

1682, where he died two months after. Shaftesbury is the Achitophel of Dryden's satire, where he is thus described—

"For close designs and crooked counsels fit,
Sagacious, bold, and turbulent of wit;
Restless, unfixed in principles and place,
In power displeased, impatient of disgrace."

Christie, *Life of Shaftesbury*; Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.* [F. S. P.]

Shaftesbury, A. Ashley-Cooper, 7th Earl of (*b.* 1803, *d.* 1885), was a direct descendant of the 1st Earl. Entered Parliament in 1826, and devoted his life to the amelioration of the life of the lower classes, and several times carried through Bills for their relief. [Factory Legislation.]

Shah Soojah was the brother of Zemaun Shah, King of Cabul, whom he succeeded in 1802. In 1808 Mr. Elphinstone was sent by Lord Minto to negotiate a treaty of defence with Shah Soojah. During the negotiations an expedition which he had sent to recover Cashmere was defeated, and his brother Mahmood took advantage of this to seize Cabul and Candahar, and threaten Peshawur, Shah Soojah's capital. Shah Soojah thereupon solicited help from the English. In 1810, however, he was totally defeated by his rival, and fled across the Indus. After remaining some time in captivity in Cashmere, he sought refuge with Runjeet Singh, who subjected him to cruelties in order to obtain the Koh-i-noor from him. He succeeded at length in escaping in disguise to Loodiana, where the British government allowed him a pension of 50,000 rupees a year. In 1833 he was encouraged by the treachery of Dost Mahomed's brothers to make an effort to recover his throne. He in vain asked help of the English. He thereupon concluded a treaty with Runjeet Singh, guaranteeing him all his conquests beyond the Indus on condition of his support. He marched successfully through Scinde to Candahar, where he was attacked and utterly beaten by Dost Mahomed. In July, 1834, he fled to Beloochistan, and in March, 1835, he returned to Loodiana. In 1838, on the failure of the mission to Cabul, a triple alliance was concluded between the English, Runjeet, and Shah Soojah, for the deposition of Dost Mahomed, and the re-establishment of the Shah, on the condition that the possessions of Runjeet across the Indus were guaranteed. The Shah, however, had no desire to be carried into Cabul by British bayonets. All he wanted was British gold. Therefore he did not contemplate the Afghan expedition (q.v.). On April 25, 1839, he entered Cabul unopposed. In 1840 he established the order of the Dooranee empire to decorate his English supporters with. During his residence at Cabul he insisted that the Bala Hissar, the citadel, in which he had placed his zenana, should not be profaned by English troops, and thus it was left defenceless. He was thoroughly unpopular, owing to the cessions to Runjeet Singh, and was merely supported by British bayonets. In 1842 the last survivor of the English garrison at Cabul reached Jellalabad. Shah Soojah still remained ostensibly head of the Afghan government, continuing to occupy the Bala Hissar. He endeavoured to keep friendly both with the English by professing unaltered attachment, and with the chiefs by professing devotion to the national cause. The latter distrusted him, and desired him to prove his sincerity by heading the army destined to expel General Sale from Jellallabad. On April 5, 1842, after an oath of safe-conduct from Zemaun Khan, he descended from the citadel decked out in all the insignia of royalty, and was shot dead by a body of matchlock men whom Zemaun Khan's son had placed in ambush without his father's knowledge.

Kaye, *Affghan War*; Abbott, *Affghan War.*

Shannon, Henry Boyle, Earl of, was for twenty-five years Speaker of the Irish House of Commons (from 1733 to 1756). He was the chief leader of the Irish patriot party, and practically commanded a majority in the House. He at first took the lead against the government in the inquiry into the pension list, but was bought off by being elevated to the peerage, and by the grant of a pension of £2,000 per year. He died in 1764, and was succeeded by his son Richard as second earl.

Shannon, Richard Boyle, 2nd Earl, married the daughter of Speaker Ponsonby, and in close union with him endeavoured to control the Castle. In 1770 he lost his office at the head of the ordnance department, but in 1772 the Castle again made terms with him. He was enormously rich and an excellent landlord. He died in 1807. The Earls of Shannon, together with the Ponsonbys, Beresfords, and the Duke of Leinster, were the real rulers of the Irish Parliament during the greater part of George III.'s reign.

Sharington, Sir William, was master of the Mint at Bristol, and one of the party of Lord Seymour of Sudeley (q.v.), for whose service he coined £10,000 of base money. He was arrested in Feb., 1549, and attainted the same time as Seymour, though he subsequently obtained a pardon.

Sharp, Jack (*d.* 1431), was the real or assumed name of a Lollard leader who, in 1431, formed a plot which had for its ostensible object the disendowment of the Church. He was captured and put to death at Oxford.

Sharp, James, Archbishop of St. Andrew's (*b.* 1613, *d.* 1679), was the agent of the Resolutioners to Cromwell in 1656, and was one of the leading Presbyterian ministers in Scotland. He was in favour of the restoration of Charles II., who appointed him in 1660 one of the royal chaplains. In 1661 he was sent to

London by the Presbyterians to beg for the establishment of Presbyterianism in Scotland, but he was bribed to betray his cause, and returned to Scotland as Archbishop of St. Andrews, with the full determination to do everything in his power to further episcopacy. He was one of the chief persecutors of the Covenanters, and in 1668 he was shot at, but escaped without injury. His oppressions and cruelties were so great that in 1679 he was murdered by a band of Covenanters under Hackston of Rathillet on Magus Muir, near St. Andrews.

Burton, *Hist. of Scotland.*

Sharpe, Samuel, was one of the leaders and chief instigators of the slaves in the Jamaican rebellion of 1831—32. [Jamaica.] It was owing to his ability that the rebels were enabled to gain the few temporary successes they did. He was executed at the close of the insurrection.

Shaw, Ralph or John, Dr., was brother to Sir Edmund Shaw, Lord Mayor in 1483. He had high repute for learning and sagacity, and was employed by Richard, Duke of Gloucester, to preach a sermon at Paul's Cross, to advocate the latter's claim to the crown. Accordingly, on June 22, 1483, he preached from the fourth chapter of the Book of Wisdom, in which he impugned the validity of Edward IV.'s marriage with Elizabeth Woodville, on the ground of a precontract with Lady Elizabeth Butler, daughter of the Earl of Shrewsbury. From this he adduced the inference that Edward V. and his brother were illegitimate, and therefore, as Clarence's family were attainted and incapable of succeeding, Richard was the rightful sovereign.

Shaxton, Nicholas, Bishop of Salisbury 1535—1539, was for some time associated with Latimer, Bishop of Worcester, in a determined opposition to the merciless statute of the Six Articles (q.v.). On his resignation of his see rather than subscribe to the articles, Shaxton was thrown into prison as an obstinate sacramentarian heretic; he subsequently, however, found it advisable to conform to the new opinions, and signalised his conversion by preaching at the burning of several more determined heretics than he had proved to be, his most notable appearance in this way being at the burning of Anne Askew, along with whom he had been arraigned for heresy. He put away his wife, returned to celibacy, and apparently was sincere in his recantation. He accepted a pension from the Crown, and died in 1556.

Sheffield, Edmund, 1st Lord (*d.* 1549), was second in command to the Marquis of Northampton when he was engaged in suppressing the Norfolk rebellion of 1549: he was killed by the insurgents whilst attempting to hold Norwich against them. Lord Sheffield was created a peer by Edward VI. (1547).

Sheffield, Edmund, Lord (*d.* 1646), one of the commanders of the English fleet which defeated the Spanish Armada, was knighted for his services, and subsequently became Governor of Brille in the Low Countries. He was created Earl of Mulgrave by James I.

Sheffield was the seat of a castle which was built probably by the family of De Lovelot during the twelfth century, and which passed from the Furnivals and Talbots into the possession of the Earl of Arundel at the beginning of the seventeenth century. The castle was burnt by John d'Eyville during the Barons' War (1266). It served as the prison of Mary Queen of Scots from November, 1570, to September, 1584. It was occupied for the Parliament at the beginning of the Civil War, but abandoned in 1643, and held for the king by Sir William Saville. In August, 1644, it was captured by Major-General Crawford, and in 1646 demolished by order of Parliament. The town was famous for its cutlery as early as the fifteenth century, and its Cutlers' Company was incorporated by Act of Parliament in 1624. In 1685 its population was estimated to be about 4,000, in 1760 it had increased to something between 20,000 and 30,000, and in 1901 to 380,717. By the Reform Bill of 1832 it was enfranchised, while in 1843 it became a municipal borough. It was the scene of some serious trades-union outrages in 1867. [Sheffield Outrages.] In 1893 it was raised to the dignity of a city.

Sheffield Outrages. In 1867 a Commission was appointed to inquire into the trade-union (q.v.) outrages, and the organisation and rules of these societies. Sheffield had long been conspicuous as a centre of trade-union tyranny of the worst kind. When a workman had made himself obnoxious to the leaders of a local trade union, some sudden misfortune was sure to befall him. His house was set on fire; gunpowder was exploded under his windows; an infernal machine was flung into his bedroom at night. The man himself, supposing him to have escaped with his life, felt convinced that in the attempt to destroy him he saw the hand of the union; his neighbours were of his opinion; but want of evidence, and fear of the consequences, made it impossible to punish or even find out the offenders. The secretaries of the trade unions indignantly denied all these statements, alleged the beneficial nature of their societies, and demanded an inquiry into their rules and organisation. Ultimately the demand was granted. Three examiners were sent down, with Mr. Overend, Q.C., at their head. A searching inquiry, and the offer of a free pardon to any one, even the actual offenders, who would reveal full particulars of the crimes, elicited full evidence that most of these outrages were perpetrated at the com-

mand of some union, of the unions that of the saw-grinders deserving the most infamous notoriety. It was remarkable that the secretary of this union, a person named Broadhead, had most indignantly protested the innocence of his union, while it was proved by the evidence of a man named Hallam that the murder of Linley, an obnoxious workman, was done by Broadhead's especial instructions. The crimes were in most cases regularly ordered by the unions and committed by their paid agents; but only twelve small unions were implicated out of some sixty existing in Sheffield, and one at Manchester (the Brickmakers') had acted similarly. Broadhead at last came before the examiners himself, and explained the whole system of villany of which he had been the mainspring.

Ann. Reg.; Hansard, *Parliamentary Reports*; Macarthy, *Hist. of Our Own Time*; Howell, *Conflict of Capital and Labour*; *Times*, *1867*.

Shelburne, Lord. [Lansdowne.]

Sheldon, Gilbert (*b.* 1598, *d.* 1677), was a native of Staffordshire, and became Warden of All Souls' College, Oxford, in 1635. He was one of the royal commissioners at the Treaty of Uxbridge, and in 1647 was deprived of his wardenship. On the Restoration he was made Bishop of London, and on the death of Juxon in 1663 was advanced to the Archbishopric of Canterbury. He was a strong High Churchman, and rigorous in carrying out the Act of Uniformity, a patron of learning, and the builder of the theatre of the University of Oxford.

Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops of Canterbury*.

Shere Ali was the son of Dost Mahomed, Ameer of Afghanistan. On Dost Mahomed's death (1863) a series of struggles ensued for the succession between Shere Ali and his brothers, Afzool and Azim. In one of these Shere Ali was deposed, and Afzool Khan became ruler. He did not live long afterwards, and his son, Abdool Rahman, waived his claim in favour of his uncle, Azim Khan, who had been for some time a fugitive in English territory. Ultimately, however, Shere Ali regained his throne, and the opposing faction was overcome. In 1870 Shere Ali visited India, and met the Viceroy, Lord Mayo, at Umballa, where the latter's generous conduct went a long way to ensure friendly relations with the Ameer. In 1876, however, began a series of events which produced the Afghan mission of Sir Lewis Pelly, and gradually led up to the second Afghan War (q.v.).

Shere Singh, one of the most influential chiefs of the Punjab, joined the insurrection of Moolraj, Sept., 1848. This was followed by a general insurrection known as the second Sikh War. Successful at Ramnagur and Sadoolapore, owing to the bad generalship of Lord Gough, Shere Singh was beaten at Chillianwalla, but the defeat was a practical victory, so much did it elevate the character of the Sikhs for prowess. The rout at Guzerat, however, destroyed all his hopes, and he surrendered to the English, March 12, 1849. [Sikhs.]

Shere Singh was the reputed son of Runjeet Singh, on whose death, 1839, followed by that of his son, Khurruk Singh, and grandson, Nao Nihal Singh, in 1840, Shere Singh became regent of the Punjab in conjunction with Chand Kowur, the widow of Khurruk Singh. In 1841 Shere Singh, with the help of the army, attained supreme power. In 1843, during the anarchy which followed, he was assassinated by a discontented chief. [Sikhs.]

Sheridan, Richard Brinsley (*b.* 1751, *d.* 1816), was born in Dublin. His parents having come over to England, the boy was sent to Harrow. After leaving school he spent several years in idleness, till, stimulated by the straits to which a runaway match had reduced him, he applied himself vigorously to the composition of plays, the result being the production of three of the best comedies in our language. But in 1780, having reached the height of his ambition in the region of the drama, he aspired to politics, and was elected member for Stafford. His first attempt in the House was a failure, but on the subject of the employment of the military in civil disturbances Sheridan gave some signs of his great oratorical powers. His abilities were so far recognised by the Whig party that on North's fall he was appointed one of the under-secretaries in Rockingham's ministry, and was subsequently Secretary to the Treasury in the Coalition. On Pitt coming into power Sheridan went into opposition, and very soon rose to the first eminence as a debater and speaker. But the occasion of his greatest oratorical triumph took place in 1787, when he presented his charge "relative to the Begum Princesses of Oude" against Warren Hastings. Even Pitt allowed his speech to have "surpassed all the eloquence of ancient and modern times." In the rupture which occurred between Fox and Burke on the subject of the French Revolution, Sheridan adhered to his earlier friend, Fox, and himself incurred the hostility of Burke. In 1794, as conductor of the impeachment of Hastings, he made his reply on the Begum charge, and again astonished his hearers by a marvellous display of the most brilliant eloquence, sustained before the Lords through four whole days. When Fox retired from Parliamentary life, carrying off several of his devoted followers, Sheridan still maintained his post in the opposition, and, perhaps, never spoke with more vigour and power than in the debates on the Irish rebellion and the Union. In 1804 he was appointed by his boon companion, the Prince Regent, to be

receiver of the Duchy of Cornwall. When on Pitt's death Fox and Lord Grenville formed a government, Sheridan was rewarded for his long fidelity to his party by the treasurership of the navy, a lucrative but subordinate post. On Fox's death Sheridan succeeded him in the representation of Westminster, but was next year driven to a less conspicuous constituency. On the passing of the Regency Bill he was admitted to extraordinary intimacy and confidence by the regent, and his own party seem to have been not without suspicions as to integrity. In the next year he unfortunately confirmed their fears by acting in an indefensible manner towards the chiefs of that party when negotiations were proceeding with them after the death of Perceval. Always a very bad manager of his own affairs, an expensive election in 1812 brought them into hopeless confusion. The last four years of his life were spent in miserable attempts to evade the pursuits of his creditors. He died on the 7th of July, 1816. The charge of being a mere political adventurer, which has been brought against Sheridan, is sufficiently refuted by the consistent fidelity which he displayed towards his party, more than once from a mere sense of honour towards it refusing to accept a place under others. This was especially the case in 1804, when he was offered a place by Addington, with whom he agreed in his general policy, but would not accept it on scrupulous grounds of obligation to stand by the Whigs. As a statesman he has no claim to permanent fame, but his name will live in history as one of the most brilliant of a group of orators whom the world has never seen surpassed at any one period.

Moore, *Life of Sheridan*; Russell, *Life of Fox*; Pellew, *Life of Lord Sidmouth*; Lord Holland, *Memoirs of the Whig Party*; Hansard, *Debates*; Sheridan, *Speeches*.

Sheriff. This officer, the *scir-gerefa*, or shire-reeve, appears before the Conquest as nominated by the crown, though in very early times he may have been chosen by the people in the folkmoot. He acted as the king's steward, collecting and administering the royal dues in his shire, and presiding over the shiremoot, or assembly of freeholders, which met twice a year to transact fiscal and judicial business. By the Normans the sheriff was identified with the viscount (*vicecomes*), and the shire was called a county. In order to counteract feudal tendencies, the Norman kings increased the power of the sheriffs, sometimes giving the sheriffdom of several counties to one man, or granting the office as an inheritance. Under their rule the sheriff was the representative of the crown in judicial, fiscal, and military affairs. Besides presiding in the county court, he, or his substitute, held a court in each hundred twice a year for view of frank-pledge, called the sheriff's tourn and leet. He collected the king's dues from his shire, and twice in each year, at Easter and at Michaelmas, accounted at the exchequer for the *ferm* or rent at which he farmed the ancient profits of the county from the crown, and for the sums arising from taxation, feudal rights, jurisdiction, and the sale of offices. In his military capacity he led the *posse comitatus*, and the lesser tenants of the crown. The vast power exercised by men holding the sheriffdom of several counties was injurious to the interests both of the crown and of the people, and when, as was sometimes the case, the king's justices, to whom the sheriffs had to render their accounts, were themselves made sheriffs, they had ample opportunities for fraud. The administrative vigour of Henry II. was displayed by the Inquest of Sheriffs (q.v.), a strict scrutiny into the conduct of these officers, made by his orders in 1170. After this inquest all the sheriffs in England were removed from their offices, though several of them were afterwards restored. By this time most of the hereditary sheriffdoms had been done away, and the office of sheriff was held over one or two counties by local magnates. In place of those sheriffs who were not restored Henry appointed men whom he could trust. Even after this date hereditary sheriffdoms were occasionally granted by the crown. Robert of Vieuxpont, for example, was made hereditary sheriff of Westmorland by John, and his descendants continued to hold the office until the death of the Earl of Thanet without issue in 1849, when hereditary sheriffdoms were abolished by statute, 13 & 14 Vict., c. 30. By a charter of Henry I. the citizens of London obtained the privilege of electing their own sheriff, and other boroughs gained by fine or charter the right to collect their own *ferm* without the sheriff's interference.

The importance of the sheriff's office was curtailed during the administration of Hubert Walter, for in 1194 sheriffs were forbidden to act as justices in their own shires, and the office of coroners to hold pleas of the crown was instituted. A further step in the same direction was taken by art. 24 of Magna Charta, which forbade sheriffs to hold pleas of the crown. By the provisions made at Oxford in 1258 sheriffdoms were to be subject to an audit, and were to be held for one year only. An attempt was made the next year to gain a share in the election of these officers for the freeholders. This privilege was granted by Edward in 1300, where the office was not of fee or hereditary, but was withdrawn in the next reign. The limitation of the tenure of office to one year, enforced by statutes of Edward III. and Richard II., made the right of appointment a matter of small consequence. The nomination was made in the Exchequer on the morrow of All Souls' Day, changed by 24 Geo. II., c. 48, to the morrow of St. Martin's. Complaints having been made of the high rent at which the sheriffs let the

hundreds, they were ordered by 4 Ed. III., c. 15, to adhere to the ancient *ferms*, and their power in this respect was abolished by 23 Hen. VI., c. 9. The remains of their criminal jurisdiction were swept away by 1 Ed. IV., c. 15. Their military functions were taken away by the institution of lords lieutenant in the reign of Mary, and some acts of extortion were met by 29 Eliz., c. 4, limiting the amount they might take on levying an execution. A person assigned for sheriff must by 13 & 14 Car. II., c. 21, have sufficient lands within the county to answer to the king and the people. In his judicial capacity the sheriff still holds a county court for the election of members of Parliament, and for a few other purposes. As keeper of the king's peace, he is the first man in the county, and takes precedence of any nobleman, and in his ministerial capacity he is charged with the execution of all civil and criminal processes and sentences. Nearly all the duties of his office, however, are fulfilled by an under-sheriff, an officer whom he is compelled by 3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 99, to appoint. The inferior officers of the county, such as gaolers, are reckoned as his servants, and until 40 & 41 Vict., c. 21, he was to some extent liable for the escape of a prisoner.

The office of sheriff existed in Scotland as early as the reign of David I., and is mentioned in the laws of that king. It appears to have been an office of inheritance until 20 Geo. II., c. 43, and has long been purely nominal, the title being generally borne by the lord lieutenant. The sheriff depute, on the other hand, holds an office of great importance. He is appointed by the crown for life or good behaviour (*ad vitam aut ad culpam*), and is the chief judge of the county. His jurisdiction extends to all personal actions on contract and obligation, to actions relating to heritable rights up to £1,000 value, to all matters not belonging to any other court, and to suits about small debts. He has also a criminal jurisdiction, and hears serious cases under the direction of a crown council. The last capital sentence passed by a sheriff was at Glasgow in 1788. By 40 & 41 Vict., c. 50, the appointment of the sheriff substitute was taken from the sheriff depute, and vested in the crown.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.* i., passim, ii. 78, 207, and iii. 403; Reeves, *Hist. of English Law*; Wharton, *Law Lexicon*; Chitty, *Collection of Statutes*; Barclay, *Digest of Scotch Law*.

[W. H.]

Sheriffmuir, The Battle of (Nov. 13, 1715), was fought between the Royalist army commanded by the Duke of Argyle, and the clans which had risen in favour of the Pretender under Mar. The former included about 3,500 regulars, the latter 9,000 Highlanders. The Macdonalds, who formed the centre of the Jacobite army, defeated the left wing of their enemies and drove them to Stirling: but Argyle and the dragoons had simultaneously defeated the left wing of Mar's army. But unable to withstand a rear attack from the Highland right and centre, he also contrived a dexterous retreat to Stirling. The victory of the Highlanders was, however, in no respect decisive. Sheriffmuir is in Perthshire, on the north slope of the Ochils, two miles from Dunblane.

Sheriffs, The Great Inquest of (1170). On Henry II.'s return from France in this year he was met with loud complaints of the exactions of the sheriffs. This afforded him a good opportunity for curtailing the power of these functionaries, and he proceeded to issue a commission to inquire into the truth of these grievances, the accused sheriffs being meanwhile suspended from their offices. The Commissioners were to inquire whether the sheriffs had administered justice fairly, whether they had taken bribes, whether the Assize of Clarendon had been properly carried out, and whether the aids and other taxes had been equitably levied. They were also to inquire into the condition of the crown lands, and to make a list of those persons who had not as yet done homage to the king and his son. The result of the inquiry was the acquittal of the sheriffs, but they were not restored to their offices, and their places were filled by officers of the Exchequer.

Stubbs, *Select Charters*.

Sherstone, The Battle of (1016), fought between Edmund Ironside and Canute, after two days' hard fighting, resulted in a drawn engagement. Sherstone is five and a half miles west of Malmesbury.

Sherwin, Ralph, a Catholic priest, was indicted before Sir Christopher Wray at the same time as Edmund Campian and Bryant for compassing and imagining the queen's death. He was executed in their company at Tyburn in 1581.

Ship-money. Before the Conquest the navy was furnished by the levy of ships on the counties in proportion to the number of hundreds contained in each shire. Under the Plantagenets the port towns and the coast counties were called on to furnish ships and men. To this was added the royal navy, a mercenary force paid by the king, which was the beginning of the permanent navy. As late as 1626 the fleet collected for the expedition to Cadiz was got together by contingents from the sea-ports. In 1634 the position of foreign affairs suggested to Charles I. the necessity of raising a fleet in order to maintain the sovereignty of the seas, assert the ownership of the North Sea fisheries, prevent the French from capturing Dunkirk, and secure the co-operation of Spain for the restoration of the Palatinate. Noy, the Attorney-General, suggested that money for the equipment of ships should be levied from the coast towns. The

first writ was issued in Oct., 1634, and after some remonstrance from the Lord Mayor of London, generally submitted to. Next year a second writ was issued by which the inland towns and counties were also required to contribute. There was considerable opposition, and Charles obtained from ten of the judges a general opinion that the levy of ship-money from all was lawful (Dec., 1635). A third writ was issued in Oct., 1636, and called forth still stronger opposition, which even a second opinion from the judges in the king's favour (Feb., 1637) could not still. A fourth writ was issued in the autumn of 1637, but none in 1638, and in Jan., 1639, the sum demanded in the fifth writ was only about a third of the amount asked in previous years, but in the next year the government, for the second Scotch war, returned to the full amount of the earlier assessment, *i.e.*, about £200,000. It was by the second of these writs that a ship of 450 tons, manned and equipped for six months, or the sum of £4,500, was demanded from Buckinghamshire. Hampden's trial took place with respect to the twenty shillings due from lands in the parish of Stoke Mandeville. The argument on the point of law began in Nov., 1637, and judgment was finally given in June, 1638. [Hampden.] Ship-money was vigorously attacked in the Short Parliament by Pym and Glanville; and Charles, by the advice of Strafford, was willing to allow the judgment to be carried before the House of Lords upon a writ of error, and there reversed. But the question of the abolition of the illegal military charges, and other things, prevented an agreement. When the Long Parliament met, the House of Commons on Dec. 7, 1640, the House of Lords on Jan. 20, 1641, agreed to resolutions pronouncing the levy of ship-money illegal. A bill declaring this was brought in by Selden on June 8, 1641, and received the king's assent on Aug. 7.

Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng., 1603—1642*; Hallam, *Const. Hist*, [C. H. F.]

Shippen, William (*d.* 1743), who first sat in Parliament in 1707, was distinguished throughout his life for his uncompromising Jacobitism. In 1715 he attacked Lord Townshend's ministry on the ground that government was conducted by means of a standing army. In 1718 he was sent to the Tower for remarking that the only infelicity in his majesty's (George I.) reign was that he was ignorant of our language and constitution. He vigorously opposed Walpole's measures for the restoration of public credit in 1720 [South Sea Company] on the ground that they were too lenient. During these years he had led a small body of about fifty Jacobites, who together with the High Tories and discontented Whigs formed the opposition to Walpole's ministry. [Walpole.] During the wild intrigues of 1740 he was not consulted by the Jacobite emissary, Lord Barrymore, as he was generally considered a weak conspirator. In 1741, when the motion for the dismissal of Walpole was brought forward, he left the House with thirty-four of his friends, saying that he did not care what minister was in and what out. He indirectly aided Walpole by proposing that his majesty might be entreated not to involve the country in war for the sake of his foreign dominions. On the fall of Walpole, Shippen continued in opposition. He has been well called "downright" Shippen. "His reputation," says Stanhope, "grew much more from his courage, his incorruptibility, his good humour and frankness of purpose, than from any superior eloquence or talent." He always had a personal regard for Walpole, and was accustomed to say "Robin and I are two honest men."

Shirley v. Fagg, The Case of (1675—7). This was an appeal to the Lords from the Court of Chancery, the legality of which the Commons denied, resisting it principally because one of the parties in this particular case was a member of their House. A quarrel ensued between the two Houses, which was only terminated by their dissolution. The case was not proceeded with, but the appellate jurisdiction of the Lords in Equity cases was never again denied.

Shoojah-ood Dowlah (*d.* 1775) succeeded to the vice-royalty of Oude (1754). He joined Ali Gohur, the Prince Royal of Delhi, in his invasion of Bengal (1758), and besieged Allahabad. The advance of Clive, however, easily drove back the invasion. In 1759 he became Vizier to the Great Mogul, while his great power and wealth made him practically independent. In 1760 he joined Shah Allum in his invasion of Bengal, but was defeated by the English at Patna. He assisted Meer Cossim (1763) after the massacre at Patna, but was utterly beaten at Buxar by Munro. His dominions were restored to him by Clive, except Corah and Allahabad (1765).

Shore, Jane (*d. circa* 1509), is said to have been the wife of a London goldsmith, and to have become one of Edward IV.'s mistresses, about 1470. After the king's death she lived with Lord Hastings, and in 1483 was accused by Richard, Duke of Gloucester, of conspiring to injure him by sorcery, but the real reason of his attack upon her seems to have been that she was used as a political agent and go-between by the Hastings and Woodville party. Richard caused her to be brought before the ecclesiastical courts, where she was sentenced to do open penance in the streets of London for her incontinent life. After the death of Hastings she found a new protector in the Marquis of Dorset, but after his banishment she was imprisoned at Ludgate, where her beauty seems to have

captivated the king's solicitor, one Thomas Lyons, who apparently married her.

Shore, Sir John (*b.* 1751, *d.* 1834), was a distinguished member of the Indian Civil Service, and for some time one of the Council at Calcutta, in which capacity he originated the idea of the revenue settlement of 1793. He succeeded Lord Cornwallis as Governor-General (1793), and was created a baronet. He determined on non-intervention in the affairs of the native princes, and especially of the Mahrattas. The latter prepared for war with the Nizam to settle old grievances. Shore, regarding the defection of one ally as productive of the dissolution of the Triple Alliance of 1790, refused to assist the Nizam, and allowed him to be crushed by the Mahrattas in the Kurdlah campaign. The result of this defection of the English was greatly to increase the power of the Mahrattas, the audacity of Tippoo, and the dependence of the Nizam, who now fell entirely into the hands of a French officer (Raymond). The disputed succession at Poonah in 1795, and the events which followed, neutralised for some time the power of the Mahrattas, at a time when the Bengal mutiny rendered the English powerless. With regard to Oude, his conduct was equally injudicious. On the death of Hyder Bey Khan (1795), the government became utterly effete, the Vizier merely living for sensual gratification. On his death (1797) Sir John Shore, without due consideration, first installed his reputed son Vizier Ali, and then on more mature consideration and evidence, at the expense of a revolution, deposed him in favour of Saadut Ali, the brother of the last Vizier. [Oude.] Sir John was created Lord Teignmouth, and embarked for England March 25, 1798. He devoted his later years largely to philanthropic work.

Malcolm, *Polit. Hist. of India*; Grant Duff, *Mahrattas*; C. J. Shore, *Life of Lord Teignmouth.*

Shovel, Sir Cloudesley (*b.* 1650, *d.* 1707), born of humble parents in Suffolk, gradually raised himself from the position of a cabin boy to be one of the leading seamen of his time. He distinguished himself in Bantry Bay in 1689, and was knighted by William III. In 1690 he conveyed the king and his army to Ireland, and was made a rear-admiral. Shovel was present at the battle of La Hogue. In 1693 he was placed on the Admiralty Commission. On the accession of Anne, Shovel served under Sir George Rooke in the Mediterranean, and made a resultless descent on Valencia. He brought home the treasure from Vigo Bay, and fought at the battle of Malaga, "with a courage closely bordering on rashness." The Whig party procured his appointment as commander-in-chief of the fleet in place of Rooke. He accompanied Peterborough on his expedition to Spain. In 1707 he co-operated with Prince Eugene and the Duke of Savoy in the siege of Toulon; the attempt was, however, a failure. During his return home Shovel was caught by a storm off the Scilly Islands, and his ship, the *Association*, struck on the Gilstone Rock. His body was washed on shore, rescued from the wreckers who had plundered it and hidden it in the sand, and was honoured with a public funeral in Westminster Abbey.

Campbell, *Lives of the Admirals*; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*

Shrewsbury. The Battle of (July 23, 1403), was fought between Henry IV. and the insurgents under Henry Percy. Percy's object was to join his forces with those of Glendower, but the king intercepted him about three miles from Shrewsbury. The royal troops were completely victorious, Henry Percy was slain, and his uncle, the Earl of Worcester, taken prisoner.

Shrewsbury, Charles Talbot, Earl of, afterwards Duke of (*b.* 1660, *d.* 1718), was of a Roman Catholic family, but adopted the Reformed faith as early as 1679. He was one of the seven who signed the invitation to William of Orange. He became Secretary of State in William III.'s first ministry; but he early quarrelled with Nottingham, and finding himself powerless against the superior powers of Carmarthen [Leeds], he began to intrigue with the Jacobite court at St. Germains. In 1690 William was obliged to dismiss him. But at length, in 1694, the personal request of William overcame his reluctance to resume office, and he was rewarded with a dukedom and the garter. In 1696 he was gravely implicated in the confession of Sir John Fenwick. He at once wrote to the king declaring that Fenwick's charges were exaggerated. William forgave him; but Shrewsbury, overwhelmed with remorse, retired from London. Again, a spy named Matthew Smith accused him of having been privy to the Assassination Plot. William himself offered to prove his innocence, and he was declared guiltless by the Peers. But unable to endure his recollections, he left England. For five years he lived at Rome. On his return he deserted the Whig party, being angry because he could not get office. As member of the Opposition he defended Sacheverell (q.v.) in the House of Lords. In 1710 the queen, wishing to drive Godolphin from office, made Shrewsbury Lord Chamberlain without consulting that minister. In 1711 he deserted the ministry, and joined his old colleague, Nottingham, in an attack on the proposed peace. But in 1713, on the death of the Duke of Hamilton, he went to Paris as ambassador, with instructions to inform M. de Torcy that peace must be concluded. During the last year of Anne's life his views on the succession question seemed doubtful. In Oct., 1713, Bolingbroke, probably imagining that he was in favour of a

Stuart restoration, sent him to Ireland as Lord-Lieutenant. He himself declared he accepted the office, "because it was a place where a man had business enough to prevent him falling asleep, but not enough to keep him awake." But the elections going against the government, and a contest impending between the two houses of the Irish Parliament, he returned to England to watch the course of events. At Queen Anne's deathbed he was introduced by a deputation and the white staff of Treasurer put into his hands. "Use it," she said, "for the good of my people." This *coup d'état* was the result of a consultation between himself and the Dukes of Argyle and Somerset. By this stroke on the part of the Whig leaders Bolingbroke's schemes were overthrown. [BOLINGBROKE.] Until George arrived in England several great offices were united in Shrewsbury's hands. But henceforth he ceased to take an active part in politics.

Shrewsbury Correspondence; Life of Charles, Duke of Shrewsbury, 1718; Coxe, *Marlborough*.

[L. C. S.]

Shrewsbury, FRANCIS TALBOT, 5TH EARL OF (*d.* 1560), a distinguished soldier, did good service in suppressing the rebellions of 1536. In 1544 he was associated with Lord Hertford in an expedition to Scotland, and again led an army thither four years later. During the reign of Mary he was much favoured by the queen, though he opposed her marriage with Philip. In spite of his religion he was admitted by Elizabeth to her Privy Council, but his unqualified opposition to the Supremacy Bill lost him her favour.

Shrewsbury, GEORGE TALBOT, 6TH EARL OF (*d.* 1590), was appointed guardian of Mary Queen of Scots (1569), whom he treated so well as to incur the suspicion of disloyalty towards Elizabeth. In 1571 he was privy to the Ridolfi conspiracy, but subsequently returned to his allegiance. He presided at the trial of the Duke of Norfolk in the capacity of Lord High Steward, and afterwards was present as Earl Marshal at the execution of Mary. "He was to the last," says Miss Aikin, "unable so to establish himself in the confidence of his sovereign as to be exempt from such starts of suspicion and fits of displeasure as kept him in a state of continual apprehension."

Aikin, *Court of Queen Elizabeth*.

Shrewsbury, JOHN TALBOT, EARL OF (*b.* 1388, *d.* 1453), was a younger son of Sir Gilbert Talbot, a knight on the Welsh border. He married the daughter and heiress of Lord Furnivall. For some unknown reason he was imprisoned in the Tower early in Henry V.'s reign, but was soon afterwards released and appointed Lieutenant of Ireland, a post which he held for some years, though frequently serving in France, where he was one of the strongest supports of the English rule. In 1429 he was defeated and taken prisoner in the battle of Patay, but three years later was exchanged. In 1442 he was created Earl of Shrewsbury, and in 1447 Earl of Waterford and Wexford. In 1452 he was sent out with troops to France, and captured Bordeaux; but in the next year he was defeated and slain at Castillon. His bravery gained for him the title of "the English Achilles," and with his death the loss of the English conquests in France was assured.

Sick Man, THE, was a term applied by the Emperor Nicholas of Russia to the Ottoman Empire in a conversation with Sir Hamilton Seymour, the English ambassador (1853). "We have on our hands," said the Emperor, "a sick man—a very sick man; it will be a great misfortune if one of these days he should slip away from us before the necessary arrangements have been made."

Sidney, ALGERNON (*d.* 1683), son of Robert, second Earl of Leicester, born probably in 1622, served under his brother in the suppression of the Irish rebellion (1642), afterwards entered the Parliamentary army, and was wounded at Marston Moor. He was given the command of a regiment in the New Model, elected M.P. for Cardiff in 1645, and held for a few months the post of Lieutenant-General of the Horse in Ireland. He opposed the king's trial, but continued to sit in the House of Commons, and became in 1652 a member of the Council of State. During the Protectorate he took no part in public affairs, but on the fall of Richard Cromwell became again a member of the Council, and was sent as ambassador to Denmark to mediate between that power and Sweden (1659). The Restoration prevented his return to England, and he remained in exile until 1677. In 1679 and 1680 he twice unsuccessfully attempted to obtain a seat in Parliament. His name appears about this time in the accounts of the French ambassador Barillon as the recipient of the sum of 1,000 guineas from him. After Shaftesbury's flight Sidney became one of the council of six which managed the affairs of the Whig party, organised its adherents, and considered the question of armed resistance. In 1683 he was accused of complicity in the Rye House Plot, tried by Chief Justice Jeffreys, condemned, and beheaded. The evidence against him was insufficient, and the manuscript of his work on government, in which doctrines inclining to republicanism were laid down, was used to supply the absence of the second witness necessary in cases of high treason. His attainder was reversed in 1689.

Ewald, *Life of Algernon Sydney*; Sidney, *Letters to H. Saville* and *Discourses concerning Government*.

[C. H. F.]

Sidney, HENRY, afterwards Earl of Romney, was a brother of Algernon Sidney. In 1680 he went as envoy to Holland, and

there succeeded in gaining the friendship of William of Orange. He was recalled in 1681. In 1688 we find him aiding Admiral Russell in persuading the Whig leaders to invite William to England. He was one of the seven who signed the invitation to William. In 1690 Henry Sidney, now Viscount Sidney, was appointed one of the justices for the government of Ireland. Shortly afterwards he was appointed Secretary of State. In 1692 he was appointed Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, but was soon recalled, and became Master of the Ordnance and Earl of Romney. The grants of Irish land made to him were among those attacked in the Resumption Bill.

Sidney, Sir Henry (*d.* 1586), the son-in-law of John Dudley, Duke of Northumberland, a great favourite of Edward VI., was slightly implicated in the scheme to place Lady Jane Grey on the throne, but was pardoned by Mary. He subsequently became one of Elizabeth's most valued servants, and is described by De Quadra, the Spanish ambassador, as "a high-spirited, noble sort of person, and one of the best men that the queen has about the court." In 1562 he was sent on a special embassy to Mary of Guise, the Scottish Regent, and in 1565 was transferred from the Presidency of Wales to the post of Lord Deputy of Ireland, where he discharged his duties with great administrative ability, and, in spite of the enmity of the queen and Lord Sussex, who endeavoured to thwart all his plans, achieved considerable successes against the rebels, defeating Shane O'Neil with great slaughter at Loch Foyle. In 1571 Sidney obtained his recall from a position which had become extremely unpleasant to him, but four years later was prevailed upon to return to Ireland, though he only retained his office a little more than a year. "Sir Henry Sidney," says Froude, "was a high-natured, noble kind of man, fierce and overbearing, yet incapable of deliberate unfairness."

Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Birchall, *Tudors.*

Sidney, Sir Philip (*b.* 1554, *d.* 1586), who was "regarded both at home and abroad as the type of what a chivalrous gentleman should be," was the son of Sir Henry Sidney, the nephew of the Earl of Leicester, and the son-in-law of Sir Francis Walsingham (q.v.). After passing some years abroad, he returned to England in 1575, and at once obtained the favour of Elizabeth, by whom he was in the following year sent on a special mission to Vienna, to endeavour to form a Protestant league against Spain. In 1579 he penned his *Remonstrance* against the Alençon marriage, and shortly afterwards wrote his *Arcadia*, which was not, however, published until four years after his death. In 1585 he proposed to offer himself as a candidate for the throne of Poland, but was forbidden to do so by the queen, who in the same year sent him to the Netherlands as Governor of Flushing. Whilst in the Low Countries, Sidney distinguished himself as greatly as a soldier as he had previously done as a courtier. He received a wound at the battle of Zutphen (having stripped off some of his own armour to lend it to another officer), from which he died. The universally-known story of his refusing a draught of water when fainting on the field of battle, in order that it might be given to a wounded soldier, well illustrates his character.

Camden, *Annals*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Hallam, *Lit. Hist.*

Sierra Leone, on the West Coast of Africa, was discovered by the Portuguese in 1463, and was visited in 1562 by Sir John Hawkins. In subsequent years several slave factories were established in the vicinity. In 1787 the territory was ceded to Great Britain by the native chiefs, and certain philanthropists, foremost amongst whom were Granville Sharp and Dr. Smeathman, established a colony there for the reception of slaves who had obtained their liberty by coming to England in the service of their masters. In 1789 an attack was made upon the new colony by a neighbouring chief, and the settlement was for a few months broken up. In 1791 the Sierra Leone Company was formed under the direction of Granville Sharp and Wilberforce, and the colony was reorganised. In 1794 it was again nearly destroyed by an attack of the French, and for many years frequent attacks were also made upon it by the natives. In 1808 the Sierra Leone Company had become so much embarrassed as to be glad to hand over the colony to the British government. From this time great additions were made to the population by the introduction of slaves who had been liberated. The government of Sierra Leone at first extended to Gambia and the Gold Coast; in 1821 these separate governments were united, only to be divided again in 1842. In 1866 the government of Gambia was again made subordinate to that of Sierra Leone. The affairs are at present administered by a governor, assisted by an executive council of six members, and a legislative council of six official and four unofficial members. "There are civil and criminal courts, according to the provisions of the charter of justice of 1821; and courts of chancery, vice-admiralty, ecclesiastical or ordinary, and quarter sessions, and also one for the recovery of small debts." The climate is exceedingly unhealthy, especially to Europeans, and no European settlement on anything like a large scale can therefore be looked for.

Martin, *Colonies.*

Sigebert, King of East Anglia (631—634), was the son of Redwald, and brother of Eorpwald, whom he succeeded. Having been banished by his father, he went to France.

where, under the instruction of Bishop Felix, the Burgundian, he "was polished from all barbarianism," and on his return to England encouraged learning by instituting schools in many places. He eventually became a monk in one of the monasteries he had himself founded. Some while after, in order to encourage his soldiers, he was led out to battle against Penda, and was slain.

Florence of Worcester; Henry of Huntingdon.

Sigebert (*d.* 755), King of Wessex, succeeded his kinsman Cuthred. He is said to have "evil-intreated his people in every way," and to have "perverted the laws to his own ends," the result being that before he had been king more than one year we read that "Cynewulf and the West Saxon Witan deprived him of his kingdom except Hampshire, and that he held till he slew his faithful follower Cumbra, when they drove him to the Andredes-weald, where a swineherd stabbed him to avenge Cumbra."

Anglo-Saxon Chronicle; Henry of Huntingdon.

Sigeric, Archbishop of Canterbury 990—994, has justly obtained an evil reputation in our history as having been one of those who advised King Ethelred to adopt the fatal policy of buying off the Danes. This was first done in the year 991. Nothing else that can be considered worthy of record is known of Sigeric.

William of Malmesbury; Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops.*

Sihtric, King of Northumberland (*d.* 927), grandson of Ingwar, the son of Regnar Lodbrok. About the year 920 Sihtric seems to have left Dublin (where his brother Godfrith reigned, 918—933) and to have established himself in Northumberland. He slew his brother Nial 921, and in 923 succeeded another brother, Reginald, as head-king over the English and Danish earls and captains. He appears as a suitor for Elfwyn, Ethelfleda's daughter, which alliance Edward refused, but after the accession of Athelstan he went to meet him at Tamworth in Feb., 925, and was married there to the English king's sister. A year later he died. Athelstan now wished to rule over Northumberland *immediately.* But Godfrith, Sihtric's brother, came over from Ireland and tried to establish himself on his brother's throne. After a brief rule he was forced to leave England, by Athelstan, the same year.

Anglo-Saxon Chron.; Irish Annals.

Sikh Wars. (1) In 1845 the Sikh army, 60,000 strong, with a large and admirably served artillery, crossed the Sutlej, and by Dec. 16 were encamped within a short distance of Ferozepore. On Dec. 12 Sir Hugh Gough, the commander-in-chief, left Umbeyla with the British and native army, and after a march of 150 miles, accomplished in six days, reached the front. On the 13th the Governor-General published a declaration of war, and confiscated all the Sikh districts south of the Sutlej. The Sikh army (Dec. 17) divided; Lall Singh pushed on to Ferozeshar; Tej Singh remained before Ferozepore. On Dec. 18 Lall Singh took Sir Hugh Gough by surprise at Moodkee, but lost the advantage by cowardice and incapacity. This was followed by the terrible two days' struggle at Ferozeshar, at which the two divisions of the Sikh army were beaten in detail, and driven beyond the Sutlej. Towards the end of Jan., 1846, however, Runjoor Singh, attributing the inactivity of the British to fear, crossed the Sutlej, defeated Sir Harry Smith (Jan. 20) at Buddowal, and took up a position at Aliwal, where he received heavy reinforcements. On Jan. 28, he suffered here a complete defeat at the hands of Sir Harry Smith. This was followed by the total rout of the grand Khalsa army at Sobraon (Feb. 10), and that same night the English army entered the Punjaub. Negotiations were opened on the 11th; on the 17th Dhuleep Singh himself came and made his submission; on the 20th the English encamped outside Lahore and occupied the citadel. On Mar. 9 a treaty was concluded by which the cis-Sutlej districts, and the Jullunder Doab were annexed to the English territory; the province of Cashmere, the highlands of Jummoo, and half a crore of rupees, were to be given up for the expenses of the war; the Sikh army was to be limited for the future to 20,000 infantry and 12,000 horse; and all the guns which had been pointed against the English were to be surrendered. (2) The intrigues of the Maharanee Jhindnu developed a spirit of sedition at Lahore which her removal to Benares only intensified. Chutter Singh and Shere Singh, two influential chiefs of the Punjaub, were both strongly disaffected (1848), and only waited for a favourable opportunity. In Sept., 1848, General Whish sat down before Mooltan [MOOLRAJ] and summoned it in the name of the Queen, thus alarming the national feelings of the Sikhs. Shere Singh immediately passed over to the enemy and proclaimed a religious war, and the whole Punjaub broke out in revolt. On Oct. 10 Lord Dalhousie proceeded to the front. On the 9th Shere Singh marched up the Chenab, gathering men as he advanced till he had collected an army of 15,000 troops. Chutter Singh opened negotiations with Dost Mahomed, for whose alliance he consented to cede the province of Peshawur. In October the English grand army assembled at Ferozepore under Lord Gough, and on the 16th crossed the Ravee. The English had to act on two lines, against Mooltan in the south, and the insurrection in the superior delta of the five rivers in the north, and for this they had not enough infantry. The superior position and

artillery of Shere Singh enabled him to win the battles of Ramnuggur and Sadoolapore, in which he was aided by the rashness of Lord Gough. After a considerable delay, Lord Gough moved forward again (Jan. 11, 1849) to Dingee: attacked the Sikhs in a very strongly entrenched position at Chillianwallah, and after a long and sanguinary struggle succeeded in compelling them to retreat. The Court of Directors now determined on a change. Sir Charles Napier was requested to proceed to India to supersede Lord Gough. Before he arrived, General Whish had captured Mooltan and the war had ended at Guzerat. All through January the two armies remained watching each other. On Feb. 6 it was found that the Sikhs had marched round the British camp, and were strongly entrenched at Guzerat. In the battle that ensued the persistent withholding of the troops till the Sikh line was broken by the constant fire of eighty-four heavy guns, caused a total victory with little loss to the English. The rebellion was over. On Mar. 6 the Sikh chiefs restored all their prisoners; on the 12th Shere Singh and Chutter Singh surrendered, and the Khalsa soldiers laid down their arms; and Sir Walter Gilbert completed the matter by chasing the Afghans across the Indus to the very portals of their mountain range. On Mar. 29, 1849, the Punjaub was annexed to the British territories.

Cunningham, *Hist. of the Sikhs*; *Hardinge Despatches*; Marshman, *Hist. of British India*.

Silistria, The Defence of (1854). Besieged by the Russians, Silistria was defended by earthworks, and garrisoned by a Turkish force. Fortunately there were present two young English officers, Captain Buller and Lieutenant Nasmyth, who took the command, and conducted the defence with remarkable skill and ability. The whole efforts of the Russian generals were concentrated on this siege, and just when the tidings of its fall were looked forward for as a matter of certainty, came the news of repulse after repulse inflicted upon immense masses of the besiegers. It was felt that the loss of Silistria after this gallant defence would not only be intolerable, but would produce a bad effect at the seat of war, and in Europe. The allied governments of England and France, especially the former, were urgent that some assistance should be sent to relieve the town. Lord Raglan, however, found it impossible, owing to lack of land transport, to effect anything, and Silistria was left to its fate. On June 22, however, worn out by the gallantry of the garrison, and their own unavailing attempts, the Russians raised the siege, and retreated, having lost upwards of 12,000 men in their unsuccessful assaults on the works.

Annual Register; Kinglake, *Invasion of the Crimea*.

Silk Riots, The (1765). In 1764 a commission had been appointed to inquire into the grievances of the silk-weavers. It recommended the common remedy of those days, namely, the exclusion of foreign silks. A bill to that effect was accordingly brought into the Commons, and passed by them without discussion. But in the Lords it was so vigorously opposed by the Duke of Bedford, on the ground that it was wrong in principle, and could only increase the evil which it was meant to lessen, that it was thrown out. The disappointment of the Spitalfields weavers took the form of a riot. They first made their way into the king's presence, and, meeting with a kind reception from him, directed all their wrath against the peers, especially against the Duke of Bedford. A riotous meeting in Palace Yard was dispersed, only to reassemble in the front of Bedford House, which was threatened with destruction. The discontent of the weavers, which was encouraged by the masters, was only at length pacified by the promise of the redress of their grievances, and Lord Halifax in the following year fulfilled the promise by adopting the remedy which had been rejected in 1765, and bringing in a bill prohibiting the importation of foreign silks.

Massey, *Hist. of Eng.*; May, *Const. Hist.*; Lord Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*

Silures, The, were a British tribe who inhabited the modern counties of Hereford, Radnor, Brecknock, Monmouth, and Glamorgan. They belonged to the earlier Celtic stock, and probably included a considerable pre-Celtic element. The Silures were amongst the most warlike of the British tribes, and held out against the Romans till subdued by Frontinus shortly before 78 A.D.

Simeon of Durham (*d. circa* 1130), was an early English historian, precentor of the church of Durham. His history, largely based for the earlier portion on the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, is especially valuable for the light it throws on Northern affairs. It goes down to 1130, and was continued till 1156 by John of Hexham. It has been several times printed.

Simnel, Lambert, was the son of a baker, and is only famous historically as having been the puppet leader of one of the earlier revolts against Henry VII. In this revolt he figured as Edward Plantagenet, Earl of Warwick, son of the murdered Duke of Clarence, and he is commonly reported to have been trained to play his part by a priest named Richard Simon, perhaps at the instigation of the queen-dowager. Ireland was fixed upon for the scene of the revolt, in consequence of the support of Thomas Fitzgerald, Earl of Kildare, the Lord Deputy, and the popularity of the House of York there. In England John de la Pole, Earl of Lincoln, the son of Edward IV.'s eldest sister, Elizabeth, the acknowledged heir of Richard III.,

was his chief supporter. In Flanders he had a powerful friend in Margaret, Duchess of Burgundy, another sister of Edward IV. Under her auspices the Burgundian court was made the general rendezvous of the conspirators. Henry meanwhile imprisoned the queen-dowager in the nunnery of Bermondsey, and had furnished an unmistakable proof of the baseless nature of the conspiracy by parading the real Earl of Warwick through all the principal streets of London. He inflicted summary punishment on those noblemen whom his spies had detected in correspondence with Simnel's friends, and sent troops to repel any rebel landing. But when after a brief stay in Ireland, where Simnel was crowned at Dublin, the rebels—under the command of the Earl of Lincoln, the Earl of Kildare, and Lord Lovel, accompanied by 2,000 "Almains," under Martin Schwarz, a German general—landed at Fouldry in Lancashire, they found no assistance. With the exception of a small company of English, under Sir Thomas Broughton, the rebels marched all the way to York without gaining a single adherent. A determined attack on Newark was resolved upon. Henry decided upon an immediate battle, and with that object took up a position between the enemy's camp and Newark. Thereupon the Earl of Lincoln advanced to a little village called Stoke, where on the following day, June 16, 1487, the battle was fought. Three hours elapsed before victory appeared to incline either way. Finally the rebels were utterly defeated, and nearly all their leaders perished, the slaughter being especially great among the German and Irish mercenaries. Among the few survivors of the carnage were Simnel and Simon. Their lives were spared as a matter of policy. Simon was imprisoned for life, but Simnel was contemptuously taken into the royal service as a scullion. Later he was promoted to be a falconer. We have no record of the date of his death.

Bacon, *Life of Henry VII.*

Singapore, an island off the southern extremity of the Malay Peninsula, was bought by Sir Stamford Raffles on behalf of the East India Company in 1819; in 1825 its possession was confirmed to the British government. In 1867 Singapore was transferred from the control of the Indian government to that of the Colonial Office, and was made the seat of government for all the Straits Settlements. The area of the island is 206 square miles, the population 228,000. The city at its southern extremity is a place of great trade, as the entrepôt of the Malay Peninsula.

Sinking Fund, The, is a fund collected with the object of paying off some part of the national debt. Perhaps the most celebrated scheme for a sinking fund in English history was that of the younger Pitt. In 1784 that minister found that peace, financial reform, and commercial prosperity had brought the revenues into a very flourishing condition. He had a surplus of one million, and, alarmed at the immense development of the debt, he proposed that the surplus should be put aside at compound interest, and the proceeds ultimately devoted to the diminution of the debt. He directed that a million should be laid aside every year, apparently under the belief that every year would produce a similar surplus. For the first few years the plan was very successful, but the long wars against revolutionary France soon made it necessary for the nation to spend far more than its income. Yet until 1807 the million a year was solemnly set aside for the sinking fund, although the nation borrowed many millions at a higher rate of interest than it could get for the fund. A belief in the mysterious wisdom of the step, and of the magical power of compound interest, blinded men to the obvious absurdity of borrowing at a higher interest to lend out at a lower one. But in 1807 the transparent delusion of borrowing for the government from the sinking fund practically ended the system. In 1828 the whole plan was considered fallacious, and abandoned. Later sinking funds, with less ambitious objects, have proved fairly successful, despite the temptation to shift the nation's burden upon posterity. At present the debt is being steadily reduced, among other methods, by the creation of terminable annuities.

Stanhope, *Life of Pitt.*

Sinope, The Battle of. In 1853 a squadron of Turkish ships was stationed at Sinope. The Russians, hearing that the Turks had begun the war on the Armenian frontier, proceeded to attack them. The Sebastopol fleet advanced in order of battle into the harbour of Sinope. The Turks struggled gallantly, and maintained the defence for a long time. In the end they were overpowered, destroyed, and it was reported that 4,000 men had been killed. The tidings of this massacre produced the greatest excitement in England. It brought the war fever, already great, to its height, and by throwing public opinion strongly in favour of Lord Palmerston's war policy, practically forced the hands of the ministry, and dragged the country into war.

Six Acts, The, were six coercive measures passed in rapid succession at a special autumnal session of Parliament in 1819, with the object of suppressing the seditious spirit which commercial depression and reactionary government had excited. They were respectively aimed at preventing delay in punishing riot and sedition, at preventing the training of persons in the use of arms and military evolutions, at preventing and punishing seditious libels, at preventing seditious assemblies, at empowering justices to search for and seize arms, and at extending the stamp duty, and imposing further restrictions on the press.

Owing to their severity and coercive character the Six Acts were violently opposed by some of the Whigs and the Radicals; but were supported by the whole strength of the government and the Tories.

S. Walpole, *Hist. of Eng. since 1815*; Martineau, *Hist of the Peace*.

Six Articles, The Statute of, passed in 1539, marks the beginning of the reactionary period that continued until the close of Henry VIII.'s reign. It enumerated precisely and clearly six points of mediæval doctrine and practice which the Protestants had begun to assail, and imposed severe penalties on all who would not accept them. The first article expressed the doctrine of transubstantiation. Those denying this were to be burnt. If the other five articles were impeached the penalties were, for first offence, confiscation of property, for the second, execution as a felon. The five articles declared (2) that communion in both kinds was unnecessary; (3) that priests ought not to marry; (4) that the vows of chastity ought to be observed in both sexes; (5) that private masses were allowable; (6) that auricular confession was necessary. This sanguinary Act, called by the Protestants, "the whip with six strings," continued in force for the rest of Henry's reign.

J. H. Blunt, *Hist. of the Reformation*; Burnet, *Hist. of the Reformation*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*

Skinner v. The East India Company, Case of. Skinner was a private merchant in the reign of Charles II., who, finding that the India Company, at a time when the Indian trade was open, molested him in his business, and took away from him an island bought from a native prince, petitioned the king to give him that redress which he could not get in the ordinary courts. Charles handed the affair over to the House of Lords, but the Company, when called upon to defend itself, denied their jurisdiction. This, however, was overruled, and £5,000 damages were awarded Skinner. The Company then petitioned the Commons, who had already some disputes with the Upper House. They resolved that the Lords had acted illegally in depriving the Company of the benefit of the law courts. The Lords, in return, voted the Commons' reception of a "scandalous petition" against them a breach of privilege. A furious quarrel ensued. Two conferences of the Houses only added fuel to the flame. At last the Commons voted Skinner into custody for violating their privileges, and the Lords in return imprisoned and fined Sir S. Barnardiston, the chairman of the India Company. The king, by successive adjournments for fifteen months, attempted in vain to appease the quarrel. When the Houses again met they took it up at once, but as the Lords had let out Barnardiston, the Commons were slightly appeased. Both Houses passed bills censuring the other side, which were promptly rejected by the other Houses. At last the king's advice to both Houses to end the dispute, and erase all reference to it in their journals, ended one of the most important disputes in English history between the Upper and Lower Houses. As the Lords never again claimed an original jurisdiction in civil suits, the victory may be said to have rested with the Commons.

Hallam, *Const. Hist.*; Hatsell, *Precedents*.

Skippon, Philip (*d.* 1660), served in the wars in Holland, and rose from the ranks by his services. Clarendon describes him as "a man of order and sobriety, and untainted with any of those vices which the officers of that army were exercised in." In 1641 he was Captain of the Artillery Garden, and was on Jan. 10, 1642, appointed, with the title of sergeant-major-general, to command the city train-bands, and the guard to be raised for the protection of Parliament. He served as sergeant-major-general under Essex as long as that general retained his command. In Sept., 1644, he was left by Essex in command of the army which was cooped up in Cornwall, and proposed that they should cut their way out at all costs, as the horse had done, but he was overruled by the council of war, and forced to capitulate. In 1645 he was appointed major-general of the New Model, and was present at the battle of Naseby, where he was severely wounded. In April, 1647, he was voted the command of the army destined for Ireland, and in the summer of the same year he was actively engaged in trying to reconcile the army and the Parliament. Skippon disapproved of the king's execution, and refused to sit in the High Court of Justice, but became a member of the first Council of State, sat in the Parliaments of 1654 and 1656, acted as one of Cromwell's major-generals, entered his Privy Council, and accepted a seat in his House of Lords. He died either just before, or immediately after, the Restoration.

Slavery, Abolition of. Slavery in England is of very ancient standing. It existed as an institution among the Saxons as well as the Celts. Among the former the slaves consisted chiefly of captives taken in war, or of members of the subject race. [Theow.] After the Conquest, the distinct slave class ceased to exist, and was merged with the lower class of ceorls into the general body of villeins. [Villenage.] Though the Church had early succeeded in putting an end to the traffic in English slaves (*e.g.*, by the canons of the Council of 1102), slavery itself in England was never abolished by any positive enactment. The decision, therefore, of Lord Mansfield, in the case of the negro Somerset (1772), that slavery could not exist in England, had no legal foundation, and merely reflected the public opinion of the time. Negro slavery in

English colonies was not, however, touched by this decision. It was of comparatively recent growth; the first importation of negroes to America is said to have been made by the Portuguese in 1503, and the other nations of Western Europe took part in the trade as soon as they had gained any share in the New World. Among Englishmen, the name of the adventurer John Hawkins, who made his first voyage in 1562, is especially associated with the beginning of the trade. The merchants of Bristol long had an evil fame in this matter. One of the most substantial advantages which England gained at the Peace of Utrecht was the Assiento, which gave it a monopoly of the supply of slaves to the Spanish possessions in America.

The movement for the abolition of the slave trade was started by Thomas Clarkson, some ten years after the Somerset decision. His efforts were assisted by the Society of Friends and by individual philanthropists such as Zachary Macaulay, father of the historian, and, above all, Wilberforce. In 1792 Wilberforce gained the support of Pitt, and a motion was carried in the House of Commons for the gradual abolition of the trade. But, though something was done to lessen the atrocities of "the middle passage," bills prohibiting the trade itself were repeatedly defeated by the West Indian interest. In 1805 the first step was gained by the issue of an order in council prohibiting the traffic with colonies acquired during the war, and in 1806 a bill was passed against the trading in slaves by British subjects either with these colonies or with foreign possessions. Thus the traffic with the older British possessions was still allowed; but this also was at last abolished by the General Abolition Bill in 1807. For a few years offenders against the Act were liable only to fine, but in 1811 slave trading was created a felony punishable with fourteen years' imprisonment; in 1824 it was declared piracy and punishable with death, but in 1837 this was altered to transportation for life.

The success of this movement encouraged its supporters to go on to demand the total abolition of slavery in the British dominions. For some years they made no progress; but in 1823 Canning, though he refused to consider the matter one of pressing importance, gave his support to resolutions declaring that it was expedient to improve the condition of the slaves in order to fit them for freedom. In consequence, a government circular was issued to the West Indian Islands directing that women should no longer be flogged, nor the whip used in the fields. It was greeted with sullen discontent, and some of the planters began to talk of declaring themselves independent. In Demerara the negroes, believing the English government had set them free, and being prohibited from attending church, rose in rebellion, but without violence. The rising was put down; and a missionary, John Smith, who had taken no part in the insurrection, but who had done much to civilise the slaves, was tried by court-martial and died in prison. The real meaning of his prosecution was shown by the complaint in the planters' paper that, "to address a promiscuous audience of black or coloured people, bond and free, by the endearing appellation of 'my brethren and sisters' is what can nowhere be heard except in Providence Chapel." The news of Smith's martyrdom gave a great impulse to the abolitionist movement in England. In 1825—26 Protectors of Slaves were appointed by orders in council to watch over their interests, and in 1827 one of these protectors gained the recognition of the right of a slave to purchase his liberty. Finally, in 1833, the great Emancipation Act was passed. After Aug. 1, 1834, all children under six years of age became free at once; field slaves were to serve their present masters as "apprenticed labourers" for seven years, and house slaves for five, and after that were to become free; these terms were shortened by subsequent enactment. Twenty million pounds were to be paid to the planters as compensation. It may be added that from 1815 onward, English influence caused the other European nations and Brazil to prohibit the slave trade, and to recognise a mutual right of search.

Clarkson, *Hist. of the Abolition* (1834); Martineau, *Hist. of the Peace*, bk. ii., chap. 6, bk. iv., ch. 8.

[W. J. A.]

Slingsby, Sir Henry, of Scriven, in the county of York, represented Knaresborough in the Long Parliament, and followed the king to York. He fought at Wetherby, Marston Moor, Naseby, and other battles, in the Royalist ranks. In 1656 he entered into negotiations with officers of the garrison of Hull for surrendering it to the Royalists. For this he was tried by a high court of justice in 1658, and sentenced to be beheaded. His execution took place June 8, 1658.

Diary of Sir Henry Slingsby, ed. by Parsons, 1836.

Smalley, John, was the servant of a member of Parliament who, in 1575, was arrested for debt. The Commons sent their sergeant to deliver him, "after sundry reasons, arguments, and disputations." But discovering that Smalley had fraudulently contrived his arrest to get the debt cancelled, he was committed and fined. His case is interesting as showing privilege of Parliament in its fullest extent, and able even to protect the servants of members. A statute of George III., however, took away this unnecessary and invidious immunity.

Hallam, *Const. Hist.*; Hatsell, *Precedents.*

Smerwick, a bay and peninsula in Kerry, was the scene of the landing in July, 1579, of a Papal legate and James Fitzmaurice,

who built a fort there. Next year the fort was enlarged and made the head-quarters of about 800 Italian and Spanish soldiers, sent to support the Catholic cause in Ireland. They were compelled to surrender after a short siege, by Lord Grey de Wilton, Nov. 10, 1580, and all but the officers were put to death.

Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*, vol. x.

Smith, Admiral Sir Sidney (*b.* 1765, *d.* 1841), entered the navy at an early age, towards the end of the American War. During the long peace which followed, he served in the Swedish navy against Russia. He afterwards served at Toulon, was for two years imprisoned in France, and subsequently made his greatest mark in history by his defence of Acre in 1798 against Bonaparte. He concluded the Treaty of El Arish with Kleber, but the government refused to ratify the compact. He was constantly employed on various services till the end of the war.

Smith, Sir Thomas (*b.* 1514, *d.* 1577), an eminent statesman of the reign of Queen Elizabeth. At Cambridge he was in early life the associate of Cheke in promoting the study of Greek, and also of civil law, which he studied at Padua. A zealous friend of the Reformation, he took deacon's orders, became Dean of Carlisle, and was made by Somerset Provost of Eton, and in 1548 Secretary of State. Disgraced under Mary, he was restored by Elizabeth to his deanery, sent on various important missions, and employed as a sort of assistant secretary to Cecil, with whose policy he sympathised. He wrote, besides other works, a book on the English Commonwealth, which is interesting as keeping up the constitutional tradition even at a time of the greatest depression of English liberty.

Strype, *Annals.*

Smollett, Tobias (*b.* 1721, *d.* 1771), the eminent novelist, published in 1758 a *History of England* from the time of Julius Cæsar to the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. Part of it has often been printed as a supplement to Hume. It is vigorously written and contains clear delineations of character, but has no other permanent value. Smollett was a strong Tory, edited a Tory review called the *Critical Review*, and defended Bute against Wilkes.

Sobraon, The Battle of (Feb. 10, 1846), was fought during the first Sikh War. The Sikhs had entrenched themselves in semi-circular fortifications with the Sutlej as their base, and their outer line surrounded by a deep ditch. The ramparts were defended by sixty-seven pieces of heavy ordnance and 25,000 soldiers of the Khalsa. A bridge of boats united this encampment with another across the river where heavy guns had also been planted which completely swept the left bank. On the 10th Sir Hugh Gough moved his army in three divisions, the main attack being led against the western corner, which was weakest. The plan was to draw the Sikhs to the sham attacks of the centre and right, and effect an entrance at the west, thus turning the whole entrenchment and rendering the guns useless. After an ineffective though terrific fire on both sides, the main division advanced at a run, leaped the ditch, and mounted the rampart. The guns were instantly turned on the Sikhs, who now concentrated their attack on this part and turned their guns in the interior on the assailants. A furious hand-to-hand struggle ensued; but the gallant charges of the English centre and right drew off many of the Sikhs; the entrenchment was pierced in three places, and the Sikhs were driven headlong to the river, where, finding the bridge broken, they plunged in and perished by hundreds. Horse artillery was brought up along the river, and its cannonade completed the destruction of the enemy. The loss of the Sikhs was estimated at 8,000, our own at 2,383; but the victory was complete.

Cunningham, *Sikhs.*

Soc, or **Soke,** is a word of very different meanings. Originally it seems to have meant, in Anglo-Saxon law, a sanctuary or place of refuge; but it came to be applied to any privilege or exemption granted by the king to a subject, and eventually the territory or precinct within which these privileges could be exercised. From "soc" in the sense of privilege or franchise is derived the term "socage" (q.v.), because land held by that tenure was exempt from all services except those specified and enumerated. The word is also used in the technical phrase, "sac and soc" (q.v.).

Thorpe, *Anglo-Saxon Laws*; Kemble, *Saxons.*

Socage was a tenure of lands characterised by the fixedness of the service due from it. There were three kinds of socage—free and common socage, socage in ancient tenure, and socage in base tenure. The latter sorts can only, however, be improperly called socage. The latter is the same as copyhold, the former as tenure in ancient demesne. The Act 12 Car. II., c. 24, which abolished knight service, made free socage, except in the case of portions of the Church lands still held in frank-almoign, the universal land tenure in England. The socager was bound to fealty, and to attendance at the lord's courts. [Land Tenure.]

Socman (Sochemannus) was a tenant in socage. Originally it meant a man who is bound to pay suit to a soken.

Solebay, The Battle of (1665), was fought by the English fleet under the command of the Duke of York, and the Dutch

under Admiral Opdam. The English were completely victorious, only losing one ship and about 700 men, while on the Dutch side eighteen ships and 7,000 men were lost, among the latter being Opdam himself. Solebay (Southwold Bay) is on the Suffolk coast.

Solicitor-General. The Solicitor-General is an assistant to the Attorney-General (q.v.). The earliest evidence of the existence of the office of solicitor to the king occurs in the first year of Edward IV., and there seems little doubt that before that reign there was no such officer. In the reign of Mary, Rokeby, in the reign of Elizabeth, T. Fleming, and in the reign of James I., Doderidge, were severally discharged from the office of Serjeant in order that they might be capable of serving the crown in the capacity of Solicitor-General.

Foss, *Lives of the Judges*, vol. iv., p. 398; Manning and Granger's *Reports*, p. 589, art. *Attorney-General*.

Solmes, Count of (*d.* 1693), was one of the Dutch favourites of William III. He occupied Whitehall in favour of the Prince of Orange, the guards of James II. retiring before him. He commanded the Dutch troops during William's campaign in Ireland, and led the charge across the stream at the battle of the Boyne. On William's departure for England he was left for a short while in command. He commanded the English troops at the battle of Steinkirk, and his failure to support Mackay's division was in a great measure the cause of that defeat. The outcry against him was great, and Parliament commented severely on his conduct. He was mortally wounded at Landen, and fell alive into the hands of the enemy. "Solmes," says Macaulay, "though he was said by those who knew him well to have some valuable qualities, was not a man likely to conciliate soldiers who were prejudiced against him as a foreigner. His demeanour was arrogant, his temper ungovernable."

Burnet, *Hist. of his Own Time*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*

Solway Moss, The Battle of (Dec. 14, 1542), resulted in the defeat of the Scotch army, which was about to invade England, at the hands of some 500 borderers headed by Thomas Dacre and John Musgrave. The attack was made when the Scotch were quarrelling amongst themselves about the appointment of Oliver Sinclair, one of the favourites of James V., to the office of Commander-in-Chief. Solway Moss is just on the English side of the Esk.

Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*

Somerled, Lord of Argyll, married the daughter of Olaf, King of Man, and espoused the cause of Malcolm MacHeth, invading Scotland in conjunction with the sons of Malcolm (Nov., 1153). In 1156 he was at war with Godred, the Norwegian King of the Isles, and in 1164 again attacked Scotland; he was, however, defeated and killed at Renfrew. He represents the Celtic reaction which succeeded on the Norse conquest of the Hebrides. The Lords of the Isles traced their descent from him.

Skene, *Celtic Scotland*.

Somers, John, Lord (*b.* 1652, *d.* 1716), was educated at Trinity College, Oxford, and became a barrister. At the trial of the Seven Bishops he pleaded as their junior counsel, and made a short but weighty speech in their favour. Together with Montague he took his seat for the first time in the Convention Parliament. At the conference between the Lords and Commons he maintained that James had "abdicated" the throne. He framed the Declaration of Right. Shortly afterwards he was appointed Solicitor-General. In 1690 he was made chairman of the committee for considering the rights of those corporations who had forfeited their charters in the last two reigns. He conducted the prosecution of the Jacobite conspirators Preston and Ashton with great moderation. In 1692 he became Attorney-General, and subsequently Lord Keeper of the Privy Seal. Meanwhile William was gradually discarding Tories and forming a united Whig ministry. It was led by the Junto, consisting of Somers, Halifax, Russell, and Wharton. In 1695 the arrangements for the restoration of the currency were placed in his hands. Shortly afterwards the Whig ministry was established, and he was made Lord Chancellor. In 1697, when Parliament wished to reduce the standing army, Somers wrote a treatise, known as the *Balancing Letter*, in which, while he condemned a standing army, he approved of a temporary army annually fixed by Parliament. By Somers' advice William agreed to the Bill for the disbanding of the army. But the country was rapidly becoming discontented. In 1697 Somers was assailed for complicity in the piracies of Kidd, because he had subscribed to the expedition Kidd proposed to start against piracy. Again attacked on the question of grants of crown lands, he and his colleagues were compelled to retire in 1700. In 1701 he was impeached for his share in the Partition Treaties and in Kidd's misdeeds; but the Commons declined to appear before the Whig majority of the Lords, who thereupon declared him acquitted. The accession of Anne deprived him for some years of any hope of a return to power; but in 1708 he joined, with other members of the Junto, the Godolphin ministry as President of the Council. He fell with the ministry, and soon after was attacked by paralysis, which put an end to his political activity. Yet, on the accession of George, Somers was sworn of the Privy Council, and given a seat in the Cabinet. "In his public capacity," says Archdeacon

Coxe, "Lord Somers was a true patriot. Of the real Whigs he was the only one who possessed the favour of William. Though constitutionally impetuous and irritable, he had so far conquered nature as to master the movements of his ardent spirit at the time when his mind was agitated by contending passions. His elocution was powerful, perspicuous, and manly; his reasoning clear and powerful. As a lawyer he attentively studied the principles of the constitution. Nor were his acquirements confined to internal relations; he attentively studied foreign affairs, and was profoundly versed in diplomatic business, as well as in the political interests of Europe." This character, though from a Whig source, is only a little too strong praise of one of the greatest statesmen of the Revolution epoch.

Coxe, *Marlborough*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Campbell, *Chancellors*; Maddock, *Life of Somers*; Cooksey, *Essay on Life and Character of Somers*. [S. J. L.]

Somerset, Edmund Beaufort, Duke of (*d.* 1455), was the son of John, Earl of Somerset, and grandson of John of Gaunt. He fought in the French wars, and was taken prisoner in the battle of Beaujé. In 1447 he was made Lieutenant of France, but acted very feebly in this capacity. Under his rule the whole of Normandy was lost. He returned to England in 1450, and was at once made High Constable, and succeeded Suffolk as chief minister and opponent of the Duke of York. In 1452 the Duke of York brought forward a series of charges against Somerset, accusing him of the loss of Normandy, of embezzlement of public money, and other offences. Things seemed on the verge of civil war when a compromise was effected, and for a time the charges against Somerset were dropped. At the end of 1453 the Duke of Norfolk made a fresh attack upon him, and he was arrested and imprisoned. He remained in prison for more than a year, during which the Yorkists were in the ascendant, but in the beginning of 1455 he was released and restored to office. York protested against this, and raised an army, with which he marched towards London; he was met by the royalists at St. Albans, where he was completely victorious, and Somerset was among those who were slain.

Somerset, Edmund Beaufort, Duke of (*d.* 1471), was the son of Henry Beaufort, Duke of Somerset. On the restoration of Henry VI. he was restored to his dukedom, and commanded the archers at the battle of Barnet. He was subequently in command at Tewkesbury, where he was taken prisoner and beheaded. With him expired the male line of the Beauforts.

Somerset, Henry Beaufort, Duke of (*d.* 1463), fought in the French wars, and on the Lancastrian side at the battle of Towton. After the defeat, he escaped to Scotland, but was subsequently pardoned by Edward IV. But having once more joined the Lancastrians, he was taken prisoner in the battle of Hexham and beheaded.

Somerset, Edward Seymour, Duke of (*d.* 1552), Lord Protector of England, rose into importance with the marriage of his sister, Jane Seymour, to Henry VIII., in 1536. Henceforward he became one of the leaders of the Reformed party at the court, and was constantly employed in military and administrative services, in which he displayed considerable capacity. He was created Earl of Hertford (1537). In 1544 he was sent into Scotland at the head of 10,000 men, and captured and sacked Edinburgh and Leith (May, 1544). Immediately afterwards Hertford and the greater part of his army were transported to Calais to prosecute the war against France, and met with some successes near Boulogne. In the closing year of Henry's reign Seymour was actively employed in counteracting the intrigues of the Howards, and succeeded so well that Surrey, his great rival, was put to death, and Norfolk narrowly escaped with his life. By Henry VIII.'s will Hertford was appointed one of the council of sixteen executors. But the will was immediately set aside, and Hertford (now created Duke of Somerset) was appointed President of the Council and Protector of the Kingdom. A fleet and army having been collected to assist the Protestants in Scotland, and force on the marriage between Edward VI. and the young Queen Mary, Somerset at the head of a great army invaded Scotland, and won the battle of Pinkie (Sept. 10, 1547), with the result, however, of completely alienating the Scots, and hastening the marriage contract between Mary and the Dauphin of France. In France the Protector was obliged to reopen the war, and his forces were worsted in several actions near Boulogne. In home affairs it was the aim of Somerset and his followers in the council to push on the Reformation as speedily as possible. A complete English service book was drawn up [Prayer Book], and the first Act of Uniformity was passed (1549). At the same time an attempt was made to reverse the arbitrary government of Henry VIII.'s reign. But Somerset's own conduct was in some respects more arbitrary than that of the late king. In 1549 the Protector's brother, Lord Seymour of Sudeley, was engaged in designs for overturning Somerset's government, and getting the guardianship of the king and kingdom himself. A Bill of Attainder was brought against him, and he was condemned of treason and executed without being allowed the opportunity of speaking in his own defence (1549). Somerset also made some attempts to relieve the social distresses of the kingdom, and issued a commission to inquire into them. The result, however, was only that of increasing popular excitement, and of rousing

the enmity of the whole body of the new nobility who had profited by the recent changes. In 1549 a rebellion of an agrarian character broke out in Norfolk, while another in Devonshire was caused by the advance of the Reformation. Somerset displayed no vigour in suppressing the insurrections, while his rivals in the council acted with energy. John Dudley, Earl of Warwick, his principal opponent, put down the Norfolk rising with much severity, and at once gained great influence in the council. Somerset attempted to bring matters to a crisis, by declaring the council treasonable; but he was compelled to submit to the majority, and to resign the Protectorship (1549). He was sent to the Tower, but released in February, 1550. In the following year he was gradually regaining influence, with the failure of the council's administration. Northumberland (Warwick), afraid of his designs, had him seized and tried for treason and felony. He was found guilty on the latter indictment and executed (Jan. 22, 1552). A man of patriotic feeling, and much ability, Somerset's failure was chiefly due to want of judgment and foresight.

Hayward, *Life and Reign of Edward VI.*; Edward VI.'s *Journal*; Machyn, *Diary* (Camden Soc.); Eden, *State of the Poor.* [S. J. L.]

Somerset, Charles Seymour, Duke of (*b.* 1662, *d.* 1748), succeeded to the titles of his brother Francis in 1678. As Gentleman of the Bed-chamber to James II., he refused to introduce the papal nuncio at Windsor, and was in consequence dismissed from his office. In 1688 he joined the Prince of Orange, was appointed President of the Council, and on the departure of William to Ireland was one of the Lords Justices who administered the kingdom. On the accession of Queen Anne, he was created Master of the Horse. He was one of the commissioners for treating of the Union with Scotland (1708). Through the influence of his wife, he became a favourite with Anne. After being connected with Harley and the Tories for some years (1708—1711), he began to intrigue with the Whigs (1711), and was in consequence dismissed from his office in the following year. As Queen Anne lay on her death-bed, he repaired to the council, and, in conjunction with Argyle, proposed that the Lord Treasurer's staff should be entrusted to Shrewsbury. Thus, by taking power out of Bolingbroke's hand, he did a great service to the house of Hanover. Before George arrived in England, Somerset acted as one of the guardians of the realm. He again became Master of the Horse, but resigned in the following year, and took no important part in politics subsequently.

Burnet, *Hist. of his Own Time*; Boyer, *Annals*; Stanhope, *Reign of Anne.*

Somerset, Robert Carr, Earl of, was descended from the great border family of the Kers of Ferniehurst. As a boy he had served James VI. as a page, and a short time after that monarch became King of England, Carr succeeded in attracting his notice and winning his favour. In 1611 his creation as Viscount Rochester made him the first Scotsman who took a seat in the House of Lords. He became a Privy Councillor, and though without office and ignorant of business, he soon became the confidential minister of James. About 1613 he formed that connection with Frances Howard, Countess of Essex, which resulted in her divorce from her husband, the imprisonment and murder of Sir Thomas Overbury (q.v.), her husband's confidant, and ultimately in her marriage with Carr (Dec. 26), who was made Earl of Somerset that the lady might not lose in rank. Somerset became the tool of the Howards, his wife's relations, and squandered the immense sums of money which flowed to him on every side. At last, a courtiers' intrigue against him endangered a power precarious in its very nature. The circumstances attending Overbury's death were brought to light. The complicity of Somerset was thought to be involved in the ascertained guilt of his wife. He was convicted, but after a long imprisonment was pardoned. He ended his life in an obscurity only broken by a Star Chamber prosecution.

State Trials; Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng., 1603—1642*, vol. ii.

Soudan, The Egyptian. At the close of 1883 the vast dominions of Egypt in the Soudan were in a state of complete revolt, under the leadership of a fanatic chieftain known as the Mahdi. An Egyptian army commanded by an English officer, Colonel Hicks, had been destroyed, and the Egyptian garrisons were closely besieged. A body of Egyptian police and gendarmerie sent out to effect the relief of the towns near the Red Sea, under Baker Pasha, was almost annihilated at El Teb. England, being in military occupation of Egypt, felt called upon to despatch a force to Suakim. About 4,000 English troops under General Graham were sent, and engaged the natives at El Teb (Feb. 29) and Tamanieb (March 13), defeating them with great slaughter. Leaving Suakim guarded by gunboats and a small force, the English army retired almost immediately after these battles. With a view to assisting the Egyptian garrisons which were besieged in the interior of the Soudan, Major-General Gordon (q.v.) had been sent out (Jan., 1884) to effect the withdrawal of the troops and inhabitants. He penetrated to Khartoum, but was himself hemmed in there, and in Sept., 1884, it became necessary to despatch an English army, under Lord Wolseley, to his assistance. After a tedious voyage up the Nile, a portion of Wolseley's force marched across the desert, defeated the enemy at Abu Klea and Abu Kru, and arrived within a short distance of Khartoum. [Gordon.] A second English army, under General Graham,

was despatched to Suakim, and inflicted some severe defeats on the "rebels." In 1885 the Soudan was evacuated, but on March 13, 1896, it was announced that the British and Egyptian Governments had determined to send an expedition thither. Its exact scope and purpose were not clearly stated, but (after a battle at Ferkeh on June 7) it reached Dongola on Sept. 23, 1896. On that day Dongola fell, Debbeh was taken on Oct. 3, and the province of Dongola was restored to Egypt. The Mahdi had died in 1885, but the Khalifa, a chief of the Baggara Arabs, had inherited his leadership. The advance was continued. On Aug. 7, 1897, General Hunter took Abu Hamed, and occupied Berber on Sept. 5. Meanwhile, the military railway was being carried across the Nubian Desert from Wadi-Halfa, and reached Abu-Hamed, a distance of 230 miles, on Nov. 4. The Khalifa's principal lieutenant was signally defeated at the River Atbara on April 8, 1898, and on the 2nd of September following, his power was completely shattered at the Battle of Omdurman. More than a year later (Nov. 25, 1899) the Khalifa himself was slain in battle. Thus the supremacy of Egypt in the Soudan was triumphantly reasserted, after an unbroken series of successes. It is impossible to exaggerate the importance to this campaign of Lord Kitchener's organising powers.

The railway to Khartoum was completed by the end of 1899. The Soudanese had been utterly crushed by the tyranny of Mahdism. Lord Kitchener perceived that education was, after good government, the most crying need of the country. He asked for £100,000 to found a College, and the money was rapidly subscribed. The foundation-stone of Gordon College was laid at Khartoum by Lord Cromer in January, 1900, and opened in 1902. The Egyptian Soudan is divided into thirteen provinces—Khartoum, Blue Nile, Dongola, Berber, Kassala, Sennar, Kordofan, White Nile, Bahr el Ghazal, Halfa, Red Sea, Mongalla and Upper Nile. It has a collective area of a million square miles, and a population of some seven millions. Lord Kitchener was appointed its first Governor-General ("appointed by Egypt with the assent of Great Britain"), and Sir Reginald Wingate succeeded him. The arrival at Fashoda in 1898 of the expedition of a French explorer, Captain Marchand, threatened international complications, but the disputed points were settled by diplomacy. The development of the Soudan is proceeding peacefully.

South Africa. The Cape Colony was founded in 1652 by the Dutch East India Company, and remained under the rule of Holland for a considerable period, which was marked by the cruel oppression of the Hottentot tribes, and the vexatious restrictions imposed on the Boers. The latter, in consequence, revolted in 1795, but the Prince of Orange gained the support of the English Fleet, and the country was ruled by British governors until 1802, when it was restored to Holland by the Treaty of Amiens. Cape Colony was, however, again occupied by the English in 1806, and was finally given up by the Dutch government in 1815. The first half of the century was marked by the five bloody Kaffir wars (q.v.; 1811—1853), terminated by the erection of British Kaffraria into a crown colony, which was absorbed into the Cape Colony in 1865, by the foundation of the settlements about Algoa Bay (*circa* 1820), by the abolition of slavery in 1834, and by the commencement of the Dutch exodus. The first party of rebellious Boers crossed the Orange River in 1835, and a portion of them penetrated to Natal, where they founded a republic. The land occupied by the remainder was annexed to the English government in 1848, under the title of the Orange River Sovereignty. But a number of malcontents, under Pretorius, having been defeated by the British troops, retreated still farther north, and founded the third Boer settlement in the Transvaal. These last were granted independence in 1852, and the Orange River Sovereignty was abandoned by the British two years later, and became the Orange Free State. In the Cape Colony the Dutch landrost and his assessors had been abolished in 1827, and their places had been taken by a governor, assisted by a general and an executive council composed of government officials. An agitation, begun in 1850, in consequence of an unwise attempt on the part of the British government to land convicts at Cape Town, speedily developed into a movement in favour of free institutions. A constitution was accordingly granted to the Cape Colony in 1853, and this was modified by Act 28 Vict. cap. 5 and the Colonial Act III. of 1865, and by the "Constitution Ordinance Amendment Act" of the Colonial Parliament of 1872. Between 1853 and 1877 there was continued peace with the native races, and the Cape government was occupied in works of public utility, such as the harbour breakwater of Table Bay, and the making of various railways, of which that from Cape Town to Beaufort West is the most important. These works caused the public debt to increase with startling rapidity from less than a million in 1872 to twenty-six millions in 1893, an increase that was partly due also to wars with the native tribes of the Galekas and Gaikas in 1877 and 1878, and the Basutos in 1880 and 1881. The territory of the latter was annexed in 1868 in consequence of their border warfare with the Boers, and in 1874 and 1875 Griqualand East and the Transkei lands of the Fingos and their neighbours came under British rule. Griqualand West, with its diamond-fields, had become part of

our colonial empire in 1872. The idea of the federation of the South African colonies, projected while Lord Kimberley was Secretary of State (1870—74), was adopted by his successor, Lord Carnarvon, and Sir Bartle Frere was sent out in 1877 to arrange the settlement. He found, however, that his representations were coldly received, and they were definitely rejected by the Cape Parliament in 1880. But in 1908 resolutions were carried in favour of the Union of the South African colonies by the Cape House of Assembly on June 22nd, followed by the Transvaal Assembly on the 23rd, by the Orange River Assembly on the 24th, and by the Natal Assembly on July 1.

Natal was so named from the fact that it was discovered by Vasco de Gama on Christmas Day, 1497. Attempts to colonise the country by the Portuguese and Dutch were unsuccessful, and it was not until 1824, in the time of the warlike Chaka, the Zulu king, that a white settlement on a small scale was effected. The Zulus afterwards quarrelled among themselves, one party following Dingaan and another Panda. The Boers making common cause with the latter, Dingaan was defeated and killed, and the Boers afterwards set up the republic of Natalia. In 1843, however, the territory was proclaimed British, and a year later was formerly annexed to Cape Colony. In 1856, it was created a separate colony, and in 1893 acquired responsible government, under its own Governor and Legislative Assembly. During the Zulu war (1878–79) some of the fighting took place in Natal and the adjacent Zululand (since incorporated), the more memorable incidents being the British disaster at Isandlwana, the glorious defence of Rorke's Drift, and the crushing Zulu defeat at Ulundi. In the first Boer war (1881) the Boers invaded Natal, and before peace was declared won signal successes at Laing's Nek and Majuba. Still more widespread was the fighting in Natal in the second Boer war, especially at Dundee, Elandslaagte, Nicholson's Nek, Colenso, and Spion Kop; while the siege of Ladysmith, which endured from November 2, 1899, to February, 28, 1900, attracted universal attention. The Colony was cleared of Boers in June, 1900, and after the war was ended, received a considerable access of territory on its northern frontiers from what had been the South African Republic. In 1905–6 the Zulus grew restless under the imposition of a poll-tax, and skirmishes, with fatal result in some cases, occurred between native forces and the colonial troops. In March, 1906, twelve natives concerned in a murderous attack on the police, were tried by court-martial, and sentenced to be shot. When the Imperial Government suspended the sentence pending inquiries, the Natal Ministry at once resigned. Explanations, however, having been tendered, the capital sentence was carried out on April 2, and the resignation was withdrawn. In 1909, a delegation representing British Indians in Natal visited England, and was received by Lord Crewe. The delegates stated that British Indians in that colony had no grievance as regards the Parliamentary franchise, but they claimed on racial and intellectual grounds a position of superiority to the native races of South Africa, and they asked for the removal of certain grievances in the matter of education of their children, the operation of the Dealers' Licenses Act, and the Indentured Emigration Act. Natal is one of the four original provinces of the Union of South Africa (q.v.).

Rhodesia includes the whole of the region extending from the Transvaal northwards to the borders of the Congo State and German East Africa, bounded on the east by Portuguese East Africa, Nyasaland, and German East Africa, and on the west by the Congo State, Portuguese West Africa, and Bechuanaland. The region south of the Zambesi is called Southern Rhodesia, that north of the Zambesi is divided into two parts, named respectively Barotseland, or North-Western Rhodesia, and North-Eastern Rhodesia. In 1888 a treaty made with Lobengula, the Matabele chief, extended British influence over Matabeleland and Mashonaland, and in 1889 a charter conferring large powers of civil and military administration was granted to the British South Africa Company. A pioneer expedition examined the country, and in 1890–91 gold seekers and agricultural settlers immigrated in considerable numbers. In the same year there were various boundary difficulties with the Portuguese, which were settled by a Convention in May, 1891. In 1893 Matabele raids on the Mashonas led the Company to declare war against Lobengula, whose capital, Bulawayo, was occupied Nov. 13. He fled across the Zambesi, and died Jan. 23, 1894. In November of that year the Company took over the administration of Bechuanaland, territory being reserved for the chiefs. In Dec., 1895, Dr. Jameson [TRANSVAAL] started from Pitsani, near the Transvaal border, on his raid. He was superseded early in 1896 by Earl Grey as administrator, and the Chartered Company deprived of the control of its military force. In March, 1896, the stringent measures against cattle plague caused a rebellion of the Matabele and Mashona, which was overcome in August. Rhodesia is rapidly being opened up by railways. Southern Rhodesia is divided into two provinces, Matabeleland and Mashonaland. There is a Resident Commissioner (who is also Commandant-General) and Executive and Legislative Councils. The duration of each council is for three years. The seat of government is at Salisbury. Barotseland, or North-Western Rhodesia, has its administrative headquarters at Livingstone. North-Eastern Rhodesia has its

administrative headquarters at Fort Jameson. [See also SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF, ORANGE FREE STATE, and TRANSVAAL.]

Chase and Wilmot, *Hist. of the Colony of the Cape of Good Hope*; Noble, *South Africa;* Chesson, *The Dutch Republics*; Statham, *Blacks, Boers, and British*; Trollope, *South Africa*; Peace, *Our Colony of Natal*: Brooks, *Natal*; Colenso, *The Zulu War*; Carter, *The Boer War.*

South Africa, UNION OF. By an Act passed in 1909, Cape Colony, Natal, Transvaal Colony, and the Orange River Colony are united in a legislative Union under one Government. The four colonies become provinces of the Union, all except the Orange River Colony—which becomes the Orange Free State — retaining their names. The executive government is vested in the King, represented by a Governor-General, assisted by an Executive Council. The Parliament of the Union consists of the King, a Senate, and a House of Assembly. The Governor-General may appoint such times for holding such sessions as he thinks fit, and has authority—by proclamation or otherwise—to prorogue Parliament, and to dissolve both the Senate and the House of Assembly simultaneously, or the latter alone; but the Senate may not be dissolved within a period of ten years after the establishment of the Union. Cape Town is the seat of the Legislature. The Senate consists of eight members nominated by the Governor-General in Council, and eight elected members from each province. The Senate elects its own president, whom it may remove from office by a vote. Twelve senators at least are necessary to constitute a meeting of the Senate for the exercise of its powers. The president of the Senate has a casting vote. A member of the Senate may not be a member of the House, nor *vice versa.* The House of Assembly is composed of members directly chosen by the voters of the Union, and for the first Parliament of the Union the number of members is as follows:—Cape Colony, 51; Natal, 17; Transvaal, 36; Orange Free State, 17. This number, however, may be increased from time to time as may be necessary, but may not in the case of any original province be diminished until either the total number of members of the House of Assembly for these provinces reaches 150, or ten years have elapsed from the establishment of the Union.

Each member of the Senate and the House of Assembly receives £400 per annum, but for absence a deduction of £3 per day is made. The Parliament has full power to make laws for the peace, order, and good government of the Union. Each province has an administrator, appointed by the Governor-General in Council, and a Provincial Council, consisting of the same number of members as are elected in the province for the House of Assembly, except that in such cases as where these representatives number less than twenty-five, the number of members of the Provincial Council is raised to twenty-five. These Councils in turn elect Executive Committees for the purpose of administration. The powers of the Provincial Councils are restricted to domestic policy. The chief matters in respect of which they have power, subject to the assent of the Governor-General in Council, to make ordinances are: (1) Direct taxation within the province in order to raise a revenue for provincial purposes; (2) The borrowing of money on the sole credit of the province with the consent of the Governor-General in Council, and in accordance with regulations to be framed by parliament; (3) Education; (4) Agriculture; (5) Hospitals, etc.; (6) Municipal institutions; (7) Local works and undertakings — roads, outspans, bridges, etc. Free Trade is to be introduced throughout the Union, but until Parliament otherwise provides, the duties of custom and of excise leviable under the laws existing in any of the colonies meantime shall remain in force.

Provision is also made by the Act of Union for a Supreme Court of South Africa, with an Appellate Division. The supreme courts of the Colonies forming the Union become provincial divisions of the Supreme Court of South Africa, and their judges will continue in office. From the establishment of the Union, the Chief Justice of South Africa, the ordinary Judges of Appeal, and all other judges of the Supreme Court, are to be appointed by the Governor-General in Council. All laws in force in the several Colonies at the establishment of the Union will continue in force until repealed or amended by Parliament. English and Dutch are equally official languages of the Union.

Southampton, from its geographical position, has played an important part in English history. The English who settled in Wessex founded the town, called Hamtune and Suth-Hamtun in the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, near the site of the Roman town of Clausentum. It was frequently attacked by the Danes (in 837, 980, and 994), and Canute used it as his chief point of embarkation. In 1338 it was sacked by a fleet of French and Genoese, and was afterwards fortified with care. Southampton was frequently used as a port of embarkation during the Hundred Years' War; it was there that Henry V., in 1415, just before setting out for France, executed the Earl of Cambridge, Lord Scrope, and Sir Thomas Grey for treason. Southampton espoused the Yorkist cause during the Wars of the Roses, after the Lancastrians had made an attempt to take it. Henry VIII. used the town as a basis of operations by sea in his attacks on France. Philip of Spain landed there in 1554. Since then its main importance has been commercial.

Southampton, Henry Wriothesley, 3rd Earl of (*d.* 1624), a favourite of Queen Elizabeth, and a bosom friend of Essex, was the grandson of Lord Chancellor Wriothesley. In 1597 he took part in the disastrous expedition to the Azores, and two years later followed Essex to Ireland, where he was appointed General of the Horse, to the anger of Elizabeth, whose good-will he had forfeited on his marriage. In 1601 his impetuosity and generous support of his friend led him to take an active part in Essex's rebellion, and he was put on his trial for high treason. He was condemned, but, owing to the intercession of Sir Robert Cecil, was not executed; he was, however, confined in the Tower until the death of the queen. He is described as a man of "high courage, great honour, and integrity." His literary relations invest his career with particular interest.

Southampton, Thomas Wriothesley, Earl of (*d.* 1549), was appointed Lord Chancellor in the place of Lord Audley in 1544. He was a zealous Catholic, and is said to have tortured Anne Askew with his own hands. Named one of the council of regency in the will of Henry VIII., he was created Earl of Southampton, but failed to obtain the confidence of Somerset, to whom he had long been in opposition. In 1547 Wriothesley of his own authority put the great seal in commission, and appointed four individuals to discharge the duties of chancellor. This act, which was declared by the judges to amount to a misdemeanour, enabled the council to demand his resignation. Shortly after this Lord Seymour of Sudeley tried to draw him into a plot against the Protector, but, probably from caution, he refused his overtures, and gave information of the intrigue. In 1549 he entered into negotiations with Warwick, and took a prominent part in the deposition of Somerset, but soon afterwards retired from the council in disgust at the treatment he received, and died, it is said, of disappointment.

Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Campbell, *Chancellors.*

South Sea Scheme, The. In 1711 a company was formed for trading to the "South Seas," which was induced to lend ten millions to the government during Harley's treasurership, and to allow the debt to be funded, in return for a monopoly of the trade with the Spanish colonies. In 1717 Walpole persuaded the South Sea creditors to make a further advance of five millions to the government. In 1720 the South Sea Company, desirous of further government credit, agreed to take up thirty-two millions of the government annuities, and to persuade the holders to take in exchange South Sea stock. The government annuities had borne seven or eight per cent. interest; the company was to receive five per cent. till 1727, and four per cent. afterwards. In order to outbid the offers of the Bank of England and other associations, the South Sea Company agreed to pay to government a heavy premium of more than seven millions. The company had thus weighted itself heavily, and it was doomed to failure if the public did not subscribe for its shares readily. At first there seemed no danger of this. The public rushed in to subscribe, and the company's stock was taken with the utmost eagerness. But the success of the South Sea scheme had developed a frenzy of speculation in the nation. Companies of all kinds were formed, and the public hastened to subscribe, to sell their shares at a premium, and to buy others. The South Sea Company, whose own shares were at 900 per cent. premium, took action against some of the bubble companies and exposed them. This produced an instantaneous effect. A panic set in. Everybody was now anxious to sell. All shares fell at once, and the South Sea Company's own stock fell in a month (Sept., 1720) from 1,000 to 175. The ruin was widespread, and extended to all classes of the nation. Popular feeling cried out for vengeance on the South Sea directors, though in reality the calamity had not been caused by them, but by the reckless speculation which had been indulged in. A retrospective Act of Parliament was passed, remitting the seven millions due to the government, appropriating the private property of the directors for the relief of those who had suffered, and dividing the capital of the company, after discharging its liabilities, among the proprietors. Aislabie, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Charles Stanhope, and Secretary Craggs and his son, were tried and implicated in the matter; and an inquiry, ordered by the Commons, resulted in the expulsion of Aislabie, and the acquittal of Stanhope by three votes. The younger Craggs died before the inquiry was over, and the elder committed suicide.

Southwold Bay, The Battle of (1672), was fought between the English fleet under the Duke of York, and the Dutch under De Ruyter. After a desperate struggle the English gained the day, though with the loss of some vessels, and one of their commanders, the Earl of Sandwich. Southwold Bay is on the coast of Suffolk.

Spa Fields Riots, The (Dec. 2, 1816), were the result of the extreme depression of trade, the severity of the government, and the intrigues of the Spencean philanthropists (q.v.). A great meeting was convened in Spa Fields, Bermondsey, which was to be addressed by "Orator" Hunt, but before he came there the mob, led by one Watson, had rushed into the City, plundered a gunsmith's shop, and threatened the Exchange. They were checked by the police here and dispersed. The ringleaders were charged with high treason, but the prosecution failed.

Spain, Relations with. Serious relations between England and the Spanish kingdom began with the reign of Henry II. The marriage of his second daughter, Eleanor, to Alfonso VIII. of Castile; his arbitration between Alfonso and King Sancho of Navarre; even the younger Henry's pilgrimage to Compostella—always a favourite shrine with Englishmen—Richard I.'s marriage with Berengaria of Navarre, all contributed to form a close friendship between the two countries that became traditional all through the Middle Ages. The marriage of Blanche of Castile to Louis, son of Philip Augustus, was regarded as a safe means of insuring peace between John, her uncle, and the French king. The continued possession of Gascony by the English kings made them almost neighbours of some of the Spanish monarchs. The appointment by Henry III. of his son, Edward, as regent of Guienne in 1250 was quickly followed by the marriage of Edward with Eleanor, sister of Alfonso X., whose claims through the elder Eleanor to that duchy made it necessary to conciliate him, but whose legislative instinct may well have established sympathy between him and his brother-in-law. Edward I. had constant dealings with Spain. He sought earnestly to mediate between France and Castile in 1276. In 1288 he visited Catalonia in order to reconcile the French and Aragonese claimants to Naples; but Alfonso's X.'s death, and the want of success of a policy which rested entirely on mediation, caused Edward's relations to Spain to become less cordial towards the end of his reign, despite the political necessity of seeking in the south a counterpoise to French influence. Again under Edward III. the relations were renewed. The Black Prince marched with a great army into Castile to protect Peter the Cruel against Henry of Trastamare, and his victory at Navarette (April 3, 1367) for a time kept the tyrant on his throne. Peter's final discomfiture led to fierce hostility between England and the house of Trastamare, which thus gained possession of the Castilian throne. John of Gaunt and Edmund of Cambridge both married daughters of Peter. Through his wife, Constance de Padilla, John claimed to be King of Castile, but the brilliant naval victory of the Spaniards over the Earl of Pembroke, which restored La Rochelle to the French (1375), the practical failure of Edmund in Portugal [Portugal, Relations with], the equally unlucky expedition of John to Spain (1385) as pretender and crusader, showed that his chances were hopeless. At last he concluded a treaty with John II. of Castile, in which by marrying Catherine, his daughter by Constance, to the heir of Castile, he practically resigned his claims. This marriage renewed the old friendliness. The kings of Castile sympathised with the misfortunes of the house of Lancaster as with those of their own kin. Edward IV. in 1467 concluded a treaty with Castile that gave equal trading rights to Castilians and English. The *Libel of English Policy* shows how important Spanish trade was. Yet Edward would not marry his daughter to a Spanish prince, and not until the final Lancastrian triumph under Henry VII. was the alliance of the two countries really renewed, and then on conditions that made England almost a satellite of Spain. The marriage of Catharine, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, with Princes Arthur and Henry in succession was the most important result of the restoration of intimate relations. Although Ferdinand hardly treated Henry well, and although his League of Cambrai isolated England from foreign politics, Henry VIII., after breaking up the Cambrai confederation by the Holy League, fully renewed the Spanish connection. During the war of the Holy League, and the war which broke out in 1521, Henry was the decided supporter of Ferdinand and Charles his successor. At last fear for the balance of power led Henry to a neutral attitude after the battle of Pavia (1525). The divorce of Catharine involved personal and religious differences, which for a time dissolved the Spanish alliance. For some years England feared a Spanish invasion, but so strong were the ties which bound the two states that in 1541 the English and Spaniards were again fighting side by side against the French. Charles's desertion of Henry at Crêpy, and the strongly Protestant policy of Edward VI., again produced coolness, until Mary's marriage with Philip, and her subsequent participation in the last of Charles's great wars against France, brought the nations more together than ever. But the catastrophe of Mary's reign was the death-blow of the traditional connection with Spain. Though it was Elizabeth's policy to keep on fair terms with Spain, the prevalence of religious over political considerations during the crisis of the Catholic counter-Reformation, the alliance of England and the revolted Netherlanders, that of Spain with the pretender to the English throne, and the rise of an English naval power that saw in the Spanish colonies an easy and rich prey, and whose piratical forays soon more than counteracted the friendliness which long and settled trade between the two nations had produced, brought about a state of chronic irritation worse than war, and a series of acts of hostility, which in any other period both parties would have regarded as *casus belli*. At last, on the very eve of the Armada, the long-threatened war broke out. Henceforth hatred of Spain became a mark of the patriotic and Protestant Englishman. James I.'s Spanish policy and Spanish marriage scheme made him intensely unpopular, and Charles I., though less decided than his father, and actually at war with Spain in the beginning of his reign, and often rather opposed to it, was regarded with some suspicion for the

same reason. Cromwell revived Elizabeth's policy of uncompromising hostility to Spain, as the centre of Catholicism in Europe. Though successful in execution, his policy was quite obsolete in idea, and tended to promote the ambitious schemes of Louis XIV. Clarendon, who also pursued the Elizabethan tradition, incurred disgrace and exile for what had brought glory to the Protector. Still, the hostility to France, which began with the Triple Alliance, and the marriage of William and Mary, and culminated in the Revolution, did not involve any very cordial alliance with the Spaniards, though the effect of the anti-French policy was to help them. So little did William regard Spain as his ally that he joined with Louis XIV. in the Partition Treaties. The mismanagement of the allies in the Spanish Succession War made the French King of Spain the representative of Spanish national feeling, and consequently renewed an active hostility between the two countries, which the retention of Minorca and Gibraltar, as the spoils of the English triumph, did much to increase. After the Treaty of Utrecht, Alberoni plotted to restore the pretender, though the collapse of Cape Passaro (1720) showed that the Spaniards were unable to cope directly with the English. Ripperda's Austrian alliance was equally hostile to England, and involved a short war that, but for Walpole's peace policy, would have proved serious (1727). The commercial clauses of the Utrecht treaty gave the English a limited permission to trade in South America, which involved constant disputes with Spanish revenue officers, and resulted in the war of 1739, the prelude of the more general Austrian Succession War. The family compact of the Bourbon Kings of France and Spain involved England in a new hostility to the Spaniards at the close of the Seven Years' War. Spain took advantage of the American Revolution to try to regain what her former ill success had caused her to lose. But the long siege of Gibraltar proved a failure. The affairs of the Falkland islands (1770), and of Nootka Sound (1789), again almost involved a conflict. During the French Revolution the weakness of Spain soon compelled her to lend her still imposing fleet to the Republican and Napoleonic governments, and thus to enter into a naval war with England which lost many of her colonies. At last Napoleon's reckless imposition of his brother on the Spanish throne involved a national insurrection in Spain, which led to the establishment of a new alliance with England. During the whole of the Peninsular War, Spanish troops assisted the armies of Wellington, but the pride, inefficiency, and procrastination of his allies were one of Wellington's greatest difficulties. The Spanish popular movement, however, showed how Napoleon could be beaten, and without their irregular forces the Peninsular campaigns would hardly have turned out as they did. Subsequent political relations between England and Spain have been of inferior importance. Canning recognised the independence of the revolted South American colonies. The English aided Queen Christina against the Carlists. [British Legion.] In 1907 Alfonso XIII. married Princess Ena of Battenberg, a niece of Edward VII.

Mariana's *De Rebus Hispaniæ* is a standard general authority for the Middle Ages. Dunham's *Hist. of Spain and Portugal* is a useful compilation in English. The relations with England may be found in Pauli, *Englische Geschichte*, and in the *Geschichte von Spanien*, by various authors, in the Heeren and Kert series. Prescott's work on *Ferdinand and Isabella*, his edition of Robertson's *Charles V.*, and his *Hist. of Philip II.*, with Brewer's *Henry VIII.*, Schanz, *EnglischeHandelspolitik*, and Froude, *Hist.ofEng.* cover the sixteenth century. See also Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng., 1603—40*, and his later works, *1642—50*, for that period; Ranke, *Eng. Hist.* for the whole seventeenth century; Mignet, *La Succession d'Espagne*; Stanhope, *War of the Succession in Spain*, and Coxe, *Spanish Bourbons*, for the eighteenth century; Napier, *Peninsular War* and the *Wellington Despatches*, for the struggle against Napoleon. [T. F. T.]

Spanish Blanks, The, was the name given to eight papers seized on the person of a man named Kerr, who was about to convey them to Spain. These papers were blank sheets, signed by the Earls of Huntly, Errol, Angus, and by Gordon of Auchendoun. It was proved by the confession of Kerr that the sheets were to have been filled up by two Jesuits, named William Crichton and James Tyrie, and were to have contained assurances that the persons who signed them would not fail to render material aid to the Spanish armies on their landing in Scotland. The result of this discovery was immediate action on the part of the government against the Popish lords, who were compelled to fly, and were finally defeated at Glenlivat.

Burton, *Hist. of Scotland.*

Spanish Marriages. From 1840 the marriage of Queen Isabella of Spain had become a question of interest to Europe, and especially to England and France. The French plan was that Isabella should marry the Duke of Cadiz, and her sister the Duc de Montpensier, having in view the eventual succession to the Spanish throne of the children of the latter couple. The English, who strongly disliked this scheme, contended that Isabella should marry the man whom she and the Spanish people selected, and that the welfare of Spain, and not the interest of the Orleans house, should be chiefly consulted. The English government therefore declined to actively recommend any candidate, even Leopold of Coburg, who was desirable in every way, and who would have been the English candidate had there been one. In 1841 Prince Albert and Lord Aberdeen both declared that England would not interfere. In 1845, during Queen Victoria's visit to

the King of the French, the latter declared "that he would never hear of Montpensier's marriage with the Infanta of Spain." This pledge was kept as long as Aberdeen remained in office, but the accession of Palmerston in 1846 changed the views of the French. The defeat of their Eastern policy by that statesman still rankled in their minds, and he was an object of their settled distrust. Use was therefore made of an indiscretion committed by Lord Dalling, the British ambassador at Madrid, and also of a somewhat violent despatch of Palmerston, and on Aug. 29, 1846, the double marriage between the Dukes of Cadiz and Montpensier, and the Spanish Queen and Infanta, was announced. This statement, communicated shortly by M. Guizot to Lord Normanby, British ambassador at Paris, was received in England with a great deal of indignation. An official protest was made by the English government, and an unofficial one by the Queen; but they were disregarded, and the double marriage was celebrated simultaneously at Madrid (Oct. 10). The conduct of Louis Philippe gave an immense shock to his reputation in Europe, and did a great deal to break off the hitherto friendly intercourse with England. Indignation at his perfidy was increased by sympathy for the young queen thus heartlessly sacrificed to his policy, and a coolness in consequence arose.

Annual Register, 1846; Martin, *Prince Consort*; Guizot, *Memoirs*.

Spanish Succession, THE WAR OF THE, was caused by the refusal of Louis XIV. to abide by the settlement of the succession question agreed on by him and William III. in the Partition Treaties (q.v.). Besides accepting the will of Charles V., which made his grandson, Philip of Anjou, King of Spain, Louis had reserved his grandson's right to succeed to the French crown, had put French garrisons into the towns of the Spanish Netherlands, and had acknowledged the Pretender as successor to the English throne at the death-bed of James II. This last proceeding had roused the English. William III. in 1701 had laid the foundation of a grand alliance between England, Holland, and the empire. It was now concluded. But on March 8, 1702, William died. War was at once declared on the accession of Anne. The emperor, with the Electors of Brandenburg, Hanover, and the Elector Palatine, Denmark, Holland, and in 1703, Savoy and Portugal, were the allies of England. France had only the electors of Cologne and Bavaria, and the Duke of Mantua in Italy. Marlborough, commander of the English and Dutch armies, at once went to Holland with the object of capturing the Netherland fortresses occupied by the French. Venloo, Liége, and other towns on the Meuse, were taken, and the French cut off from the Lower Rhine. On the Upper Rhine, Louis of Baden had taken Landau, but was defeated by Villars at Friedlingen. In Italy, Eugene had defeated Villeroi at Cremona, but the French still held the Milanese. [For the war in Spain see below.] In France the Protestants of the Cevennes had broken into open rebellion under Cavalier. In 1703 but little was done. Villars wished to march on Vienna, but was thwarted by the Elector of Bavaria. Marshal Tallard re-captured Landau. Marlborough, who had formed a great plan to reconquer Antwerp and Ostend, was foiled by the Dutch, and had to content himself with the capture of Bonn on the Rhine, and Huy and Limburg on the Meuse. In 1704 Louis set on foot no less than eight different armies. His chief effort was to be in the direction of Vienna in concert with the Elector of Bavaria. The Hungarians had been incited to revolt. The position of the emperor seemed desperate. Marlborough, however, in a famous march from the Lower Rhine to the Danube, joined Eugene in Bavaria, and marched upon the French commanders Marsin and Tallard. In August the battle of Blenheim was fought. After that disastrous defeat the French withdrew beyond the Rhine. Landau was taken, and Marlborough, marching into the Moselle valley, conquered Treves and Trarbach. In this year Gibraltar was captured by Sir George Rooke; while the merciful policy of Villeroi put an end to the rebellion of the peasantry in the Cevennes. In Italy, Vendôme had nearly reduced the Duke of Savoy to despair. Eugene was sent thither with Prussian troops (1705). Marlborough wished to invade France by the Moselle valley, but was thwarted by the weak co-operation of Louis of Baden. Villeroi suddenly invested Liége, but on Marlborough's return to Flanders affairs were re-established there. Towards the end of the year Louis of Baden won a great battle at Hagenau. In 1706 Marlborough determined by a vigorous effort in Flanders to make a diversion to Eugene in Italy. In Brabant he encountered Marshal Villeroi at Ramillies. By that victory the allies gained the whole of the Netherlands. Marlborough wished to besiege Mons, but was deterred by the slowness with which the Dutch forwarded supplies. In Italy, Eugene by his brilliant relief of the siege of Turin accomplished a work hardly inferior to that of Ramillies. Italy was lost to France, and compelled to join the Grand Alliance. Louis offered terms of peace, but they were, somewhat unreasonably, rejected by Marlborough. The campaign of the next year (1707) was unsuccessful. Marlborough in vain attempted to bring on a pitched battle. On the Rhine, Villars took and destroyed the lines of Stolhofen. Eugene attempted to attack Toulon by invading France from the south-east; but he had no supplies, and withdrew before Marshal Tessé. In 1708 Marlborough re-

solved to complete the conquest of the Netherlands in conjunction with Eugene. But the latter experienced great difficulty in raising an army. Vendome suddenly assumed the offensive, deceived Marlborough by a feint on Louvain, captured Ghent and Bruges, and sat down before Oudenarde. In July the battle of Oudenarde was fought. The results, though it was a victory for the English, were not decisive. Eugene's troops at length joined Marlborough; Berwick reinforced the French. The allies determined to besiege Lille. It fell in October, Marshal Boufflers having made a gallant resistance. Ghent and Bruges were reconquered. General Stanhope had captured Port Mahon in Minorca. France was now absolutely exhausted. Louis once more proposed terms. Once more the demands of the allies were intolerable, consisting of the surrender of the Dutch frontier towns, and all claims to the Spanish succession. Louis appealed to the French people. Villars was sent against Marlborough. He allowed Tournay to fall, but when the allies invested Mons he was obliged to risk a battle. By the advice of Eugene the attack was deferred until troops could be brought up from Tournay. The result was that Villars had time to entrench himself, and that the victory of Malplaquet was almost as disastrous for the allies as for the French. Mons fell, but the campaign was closed. A conference was opened at Gertruydenberg; the English and Dutch consented to treat, but were opposed by Austria and Savoy, and the war was resumed. Douáy was captured. The next year Marlborough fought his last campaign. He was hampered by the withdrawal of Eugene to superintend and guard the Diet summoned to Frankfort to elect a successor to the Emperor Joseph. By skilful manœuvres he passed Villars' lines at Arras, which the French commander called the *non plus ultra*, and besieged and took Bouchain. But the Tory ministry had already proposed terms of peace. Marlborough was dismissed on his return to England, and Ormond appointed in his place. He received orders to undertake no offensive operations against the French, but he could not refuse to join Eugene in an attack on Quesnoy. In June, 1712, an armistice was declared, and the English troops ordered to separate from Eugene. The imperial general continued the campaign alone. But he was defeated at Denain, and compelled to raise the siege of Landrécies. In March, 1713, the Peace of Utrecht was signed. The Germans fought on. But they lost Landau again, and soon after Speyer, Worms, and Kaiserslautern. Villars stormed the lines at Freiburg, and took the town in spite of Eugene's efforts. In the course of 1714 the Treaty of Rastadt was concluded between France and Austria, that of Baden between France and the princes of the empire. Such was the war in Continental Europe. In Spain meanwhile, in 1702, after hostilities had been proclaimed, an armament, under the command of the Duke of Ormond, appeared off Cadiz. It was ill-conducted, and after plundering the town the English sailed off. On his way back Ormond destroyed a fleet of treasure ships in Vigo Bay. Some millions of dollars were captured, some millions more were sunk. Next year it was determined to attack Spain from the east and west. The army from the west consisted of Portuguese and English troops commanded by the Earl of Galway. The Archduke Charles, whose claims to the Spanish throne were supported by the coalition, appeared in the camp. But Berwick, the commander of the French, held Galway in check throughout the year 1704. On Aug. 3 Admiral Rooke succeeded in taking Gibraltar. In 1705 Peterborough was sent to Spain with 5,000 Dutch and English soldiers. He was joined by the Archduke Charles. He wished to march at once on Madrid, but was compelled by his instructions to attack Barcelona. The town was almost impregnable; supplies were wanting; he quarrelled with his fellow-commander, the Prince of Hesse. He determined to raise the seige, but suddenly resolved to attack the fortress of Montjuich; it fell. On Oct. 23 Barcelona was captured. Catalonia and Valencia at once declared for the Archduke. Peterborough, with 1,200 men, advanced to raise the siege of San Mattheo, where a force of 500 men was surrounded by 7,000 Spaniards. Peterborough deceived the Spanish general as to his numbers, relieved the town, and entered Valencia in pursuit of the Spanish army. Meanwhile an army under the command of Anjou, who was advised by Marshal Tessé, and a fleet under the Count of Toulouse, were blockading Barcelona. Peterborough attempted to raise the siege but failed. A new commission was sent him placing him in command of the fleet as well as of the army. He failed to entice the French to battle, but they sailed away, and were followed by the army. In this year Berwick fell back before Galway, and that general occupied Madrid (1706). Philip, Duke of Anjou, fled, and Arragon declared for the Archduke Charles. This was the highest point of the success of the allies. But the hostility of the natives, and the cowardice of Charles, made it impossible to hold the town. Galway fell back and effected a junction with Peterborough at Guadalaxara. Berwick immediately occupied Madrid. Peterborough soon quarrelled with Charles, and left the army. The allies retreated on Valencia. In 1707 Galway was rash enough to attack Berwick in a disadvantageous position on the plain of Almanza, and was utterly defeated. Valencia and Arragon surrendered to the French, and the Archduke Charles was reduced to the province of Catalonia. "The battle of Almanza decided the fate of Spain." Stanhope

was sent to command in Spain with Staremberg, a methodical tactician, as his colleague. For two years nothing was done. At length, in 1710, Stanhope and Staremberg advanced on Madrid. Philip's troops were defeated at Almenara, and again at Saragossa. Madrid was occupied, and Philip was once more a fugitive. Again it was found impossible to hold the town. The allies retreated to Toledo, and thence to Catalonia. Vendome, the new French commander, followed hard after them. Stanhope, who had separated from Staremberg, was surrounded at Brihuega, and had to capitulate; Staremberg, who marched to his rescue, was defeated after an obstinate resistance in Villa-Viciosa. He fled through Catalonia to Barcelona. Philip was now safe on the throne of Madrid. The war was practically over; for, although Argyle was sent to Catalonia in 1711, he could effect nothing with a demoralised army and no supplies. Perhaps, in view of the impending negotiations, it was not intended that he should affect anything. The Peace of Utrecht was signed on March 31, 1713. The Catalans, faithful to a hopeless cause, deserted by their allies, still fought on. But in Sept., 1714, Barcelona fell, and the war in Spain was at an end.

Marlborough's *Despatches*; Coxe, *Marlborough and Spanish Bourbons*; Stanhope, *Reign of Queen Anne*; Alison, *Life of Marlborough*; Wyon, *Queen Anne*; Burton, *Queen Anne*; Martin, *Histoire de France*; Arneth, *Prinz Eugen von Savoyen*; Mahon, *War of the Succession in Spain*; Macaulay, *Essays*. [S. J. L.]

Speaker, The, is the name given to the officers who preside over the House of Lords and the House of Commons. The Speaker of the House of Lords is the Lord Chancellor or the Lord Keeper of the Great Seal; his office is not nearly so important as that of the Speaker of the Lower House. He is allowed to take part in debates, and to vote as an ordinary member; his official duties being chiefly confined to putting the question to the House. The Speaker of the House of Commons, on the contrary, is an official of the highest importance; his duties are not only to preside over the debates and to put the question, but to maintain order, to enforce the decrees of the House, and to act generally as its representative or "mouth": through their Speaker the Commons have the privilege of access to the sovereign. Unlike the Speaker of the Lords the Speaker of the Lower House, who holds rank as the first commoner of the realm, can take no part in debates, and has no vote unless the numbers are equal, when he has a casting vote. The office, which is filled by vote of the Commons subject to royal approbation, is of very ancient origin. That some spokesman was necessary from the first institution of Parliament is sufficiently obvious, but the position and title of Speaker were only settled in 1376. But Henry of Keighley, who in 1301 bore the petition of the Lincoln Parliament to the royal presence; Sir William Trussell, who answered for the Commons in 1343, though not a member of the House itself; Sir Peter de la Mare, the famous leader of the Good Parliament in 1376, who discharged the functions without the title, must all practically have been in much the same position as the later speaker. But in 1376 the title is definitely given to Sir Thomas Hungerford, and from that date the list is complete.

SPEAKERS OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Sir Thomas Hungerford	1376
Sir Peter de la Mare	1377
Sir James Pekeryng	1378
Sir John Gildersburgh	1380
Sir Richard de Waldsgrave	1381
Sir James Pickering	1383
Sir John Bussy	1394
Sir John Cheyne	1399
John Dorewood	1400
Sir Arnold Savage	1401
Sir Henry de Redeford	1402
Sir Arnold Savage	1404
Sir John Cheyney	1405
Sir John Tivetot	1406
Thomas Chaucer	1407
John Dorewood	1413
Wautir Hungerford	1414
Thomas Chaucer	1414
Richard Redman	1415
Sir Walter Beauchamp	1416
Roger Flou	1416
Roger Hunt	1420
Thomas Chaucer	1421
Richard Banyard	1421
Roger Flou	1422
John Russel	1423
Sir Thomas Wauton	1425
Richard Vernon	1426
John Tyrrell	1427
William Alyngton	1429
John Tyrrell	1431
John Russel	1432
Roger Hunt	1433
John Bowes.	1435
Sir John Tyrrell	1437
William Boerley	1437
William Tresham	1439
William Burley	1445
William Tresham	1447
John Say	1449
Sir John Popham	1449
William Tresham	1449
Sir William Oldham	1450
Thomas Thorp	1453
Sir Thomas Charleton	1454
Sir John Wenlok	1455
Thomas Tresham	1459
John Grene	1460
Sir James Strangways	1461
John Say	1463
William Alyngton	1472
John Wode	1483
William Catesby	1484
Thomas Lovell	1485
John Mordaunt	1487
Sir Thomas Fitzwilliam	1489
Richard Empson	1491
Sir Reginald Bray	1495
Sir Robert Drury	1495
Thomas Ingelfield	1497
Edmund Dudeley	1504
Thomas Ingelfield	1510
Sir Robert Sheffield	1512
Sir Thomas Nevile	1515
Sir Thomas More	1523
Thomas Audeley	1529
Sir Humphrey Wingfield	1534
Richard Rich	1536

Sir Nicholas Hare	1539
Thomas Moyle	1542
Sir John Baker	1547
Sir James Diar	1553
John Pollard	1553
Robert Brooke	1554
Clement Heigham	1554
John Pollard	1555
William Cordell	1558
Sir Thomas Gargrave	1559
Thomas Wylliams	1563
Richard Onslow	1566
Christopher Wray	1571
Robert Bell	1572
John Popham	1581
Serjeant Puckering	1584
Serjeant Snagg	1589
Edward Coke	1593
Serjeant Yelverton	1597
Serjeant Croke	1601
Serjeant Philips	1603
Sir Randolph Crewe	1614
Sir Thomas Richardson	1621
Sir Thomas Crewe	1624
Sir Heneage Finch	1626
Sir John Finch	1628
John Glanvill	1640
William Lenthall	1640
Francis Rous	1653
William Lenthal	1654
Sir Thomas Widdrington	1656
Chaloner Chute	1659
Thomas Bamfield	1659
Sir Harbottle Grimston	1660
Sir Edward Turner	1661
Sir Job Charlton	1673
Edward Seymour	1673
Sir Robert Sawyer	1678
Edward Seymour	1678
Serjeant Gregory	1679
William Williams	1680
Sir John Trevor	1685
Henry Powle	1689
Sir John Trevor	1690
Paul Foley	1695
Sir Thomas Littelton	1698
Robert Harley	1701
John Smith	1705
Sir Richard Onslow	1708
William Bromley	1710
Sir Thomas Hanmer	1714
Spencer Compton	1715
Arthur Onslow	1728
Sir John Cust	1761
Sir Fletcher Norton	1770
Charles Cornwall	1780
William Grenville	1789
Henry Addington	1789
Sir John Mitford	1801
Charles Abbot	1802
Charles Manners-Sutton	1817
James Abercromby	1835
Charles Shaw-Lefevre	1839
John Evelyn Denison	1857
Sir Henry Brand	1872
Arthur Peel	1884
William Court Gully	1895
James William Lowther	1905

Speed, John (*b.* 1552, *d.* 1629), a laborious antiquarian, was a native of Cheshire, who became a tailor in London, until Sir Fulk Greville gave him an allowance to enable him to pursue his favourite researches. His *Theatre of the Empire of Great Britain* (1606) was a well-executed series of maps of counties and towns; and his chief work, *The History of Great Britain* (1614), was a laborious and voluminous compilation from preceding authors. Though in no sense an authoritative work, Speed's compilation is not without value to the historian.

Speights Bay, The Battle of (1651), was fought in Barbadoes between the colonists (who were Royalists) under Lord Willoughby of Parham, and a Parliamentary force under Admiral Ayscue and Colonel Alleyne. The victory lay with the Royalists.

Spelman, Sir Henry (*b.* 1562, *d.* 1641), a Norfolk squire, was an eminent antiquary, whose learned works are still useful. Such are his *Glossarium Archæologicum*, his treatise on *Knight's Tenures*, his *History of English Councils*, etc. A very strong Anglican, Spelman, wrote a *History of Sacrilege* to show the fate which holders of church lands were likely to incur, a *Treatise concerning Tithes*, and a book *De non temerandis Ecclesiis*. The *Reliquiæ Spelmannianæ* contain a large number of his posthumous works.

Spencean Philanthropists were followers of James Spence, a Yorkshire schoolmaster, who wished to nationalise the land and support the people on the produce. They arranged the Spa Fields Meeting (q.v.), December 2, 1816. Thistlewood and other notorious demagogues were members of the society.

Spencer, John Poyntz, 5th Earl (*b.* 1835), was elected M.P. for South Northamptonshire in 1857, but was summoned to the House of Lords in the same year. From 1868 to 1874, and from 1882 to 1885, he was Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland; from 1880 to 1883, and again in 1886, Lord President of the Council; and from 1892 to 1895, First Lord of the Admiralty. In 1901 he was made Keeper of the Privy Seal, and in 1902 became leader of the Liberal Peers in the House of Lords.

Spenser, Edmund (*b.* 1553, *d.* 1599), author of the *Fairie Queen*, was a friend of Sir Philip Sidney (q.v.), who introduced him to the notice of the Earl of Leicester. In 1580 he was appointed Secretary to the Lord Deputy of Ireland, Lord Grey de Wilton, and obtained large estates in that country. In 1598 his property was plundered and destroyed by the insurgents in Tyrone's rebellion, and Spenser was obliged to return to England, where he died shortly afterwards. His *View of the State of Ireland*, written in 1596, is a valuable source of information for the condition of the country at that period, and illustrates the stern measures by which the English colonists were prepared to maintain their position.

Spithead Mutiny, The, took place in 1797, and was the result of the legitimate grievance of the seamen at a naval system honeycombed with corruption and abuses, which subjected the sailors to barbarous treatment, while keeping their pay at the rate fixed under Charles II., and leaving their commissariat to the control of venal and greedy pursers. In conjunction with the still more famous Mutiny at the Nore, it was

a formidable danger in the midst of the war. Every ship refused to obey the order to sail. At a council on board the *Queen Charlotte*, the meeting was organised, and petitions addressed to the Admiralty. Lord Howe succeeded by great tact in winning the mutineers back to their duty, and even persuaded them to express full sorrow, a confession which resulted in an Act that removed their worst grievances.

Sports, The Book of, is the name generally given to James I.'s Declaration, issued in 1618, which permitted the use of "lawful" recreations on Sunday after Church time. Dancing, the setting up of maypoles, archery, leaping, Whitsunales were among the list of lawful sports. Bear baiting, bowling, and interludes were declared unlawful. Those not attending church were not allowed to join in the sports. In 1633 Charles I. reissued his Declaration, and enforced the reading of it in all churches. It was bitterly opposed by the Puritans, and the Long Parliament ordered all copies of the Declaration to be burnt.

Spottiswood, John (*b.* 1565, *d.* 1639), Archbishop of St. Andrews, accompanied James VI. to England (1603), receiving the Archbishopric of Glasgow in the same year, and that of St. Andrews in 1615. In 1633 he crowned Charles I. at Holyrood, and two years later was made Chancellor of Scotland.

Spottiswoode Gang, The (1837), was the name given to an association in London which was formed to collect subscriptions to test the legality of Irish elections. Mr. Spottiswoode, one of the Queen's printers, presided over it, and from this circumstance the name arose. Sir F. Burdett (q.v.) was a zealous supporter of the association. It was attacked in the House by Mr. Blewitt, member for Monmouth, but he met with little support.

Spragge, Sir Edward (*d.* 1673), was a distinguished naval commander during the reign of Charles II. He took a prominent share in many battles against the Dutch, and, in particular, gallantly, though unsuccessfully, defended Sheerness in 1667. In 1671 he took part in an expedition against the Algerine pirates. In 1673 he was killed in action against Van Tromp.

Sprat, Thomas, Bishop of Rochester (*b.* 1636, *d.* 1713), was educated at Wadham College, Oxford, and took deacon's orders in 1660. He became a Fellow of the Royal Society in 1662. He was created by rapid promotion Prebendary of Westminster (1668), Canon of Windsor (1680), Dean of Westminster (1683), and Bishop of Rochester (1684). He was weak enough to accept a seat in James's ecclesiastical commission board in hopes of obtaining the Archbishopric of York. With trembling voice he read the Declaration of Indulgence in Westminster Abbey. Soon afterwards he resigned his place on the commission. When William of Orange landed he declined to sign a declaration of fidelity to James. He voted for a regency, but took the oaths of fidelity without hesitation, and assisted at the coronation of William and Mary. In 1692 he was involved in a supposed Jacobite conspiracy, designed by one Robert Young, and for a while imprisoned; but his innocence was clearly proved. His chief works are *A History of the Royal Society* (1667), and *An Account of the Rye-House Plot* (1685). Macaulay thinks that his prose writings prove him to have been "a great master of our language, and possessed at once of the eloquence of the preacher, of the controversialist, and of the historian. His moral character might have passed with little censure had he belonged to a less sacred profession; for the worst that can be said of him is that he was indolent, luxurious, and worldly; but such failings, though not commonly regarded as very heinous in men of secular callings, are scandalous in a prelate."

Birch, *Life of Tillotson*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*

Sprigge, Joshua (*b.* 1618, *d.* 1676), was born at Banbury, entered at New Inn Hall, Oxford, in 1634, became a preacher in London, afterwards chaplain in the New Model, and Fellow of All Souls College, Oxford. He was author of *Anglia Rediviva*, a history of the successes of the New Model, of which book, according to Clement Walker, Nathaniel Fiennes was chief compiler.

Wood, *Athenæ Oxonienses.*

Sprot, George, a notary of Eyemouth, was legal adviser to Logan of Restalrig, from whom he acquired information concerning the Gowrie conspiracy (q.v.). Having incautiously revealed his knowledge, he was tortured, and, having confessed all he knew, was executed.

Spurs, Battle of the, is the name usually given to the action fought at Guinegate, near Terouenne, Aug. 16, 1513, during the campaign of the English under Henry VIII. and the Imperialists under Maximilian in Flanders. The allies had formed the siege of Terouenne and a body of French cavalry came up to relieve the town. The allies advanced in order of battle, and the French on seeing them were seized with panic, put spurs to their horses, and fled without a blow.

Stafford, John, Archbishop of Canterbury (*d.* 1452) was a member of one of the most illustrious families in England in the fifteenth century. After holding several minor preferments, he was made Bishop of Bath and Wells in 1425, and in 1443 was translated to Canterbury. He held many important civil offices, being appointed Treasurer in 1422, Keeper of the Privy Seal in 1428, and Lord Chancellor in 1432. He held the great seal till 1450. Stafford was a strong supporter of Beaufort and the peace

party, and was zealous in promoting the marriage of Henry VI. with Margaret of Anjou. In Jack Cade's rebellion he showed great intrepidity, and did much to restore tranquillity to the country by a judicious admixture of firmness and leniency. His conduct as a statesman and judge is worthy of considerable praise, and while he lived he was able to keep the rivalry between the Yorkists and Lancastrians within bounds. He would seem to deserve higher praise than is bestowed upon him by Fuller, who says—"No prelate hath either less good or less evil recorded of him."

Hook, *Archbishops of Canterbury.*

Stafford, Sir Humfrey (*d.* 1450) was cousin to the first Duke of Buckingham, and nephew of John Stafford, Archbishop of Canterbury. On the outbreak of Jack Cade's rebellion he was sent with a detachment against the insurgents, whom he met at Sevenoaks, and an encounter took place, in which Stafford was defeated and slain.

Stafford, Sir Thomas (*d.* 1557), was the son of Lord Stafford, and the nephew of Cardinal Pole. He was for a long time an exile at the Court of France during the reign of Mary, but in April, 1557, headed an expedition to the Yorkshire coast, and took the castle of Scarborough, with the object "of delivering his country from foreign tyranny," though "not to work his own advancement touching possession of the crown." The castle was retaken at once by the Earl of Westmorland, and Stafford was put to death.

Strype, *Annals;* Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*

Stafford, William Howard, Viscount (*b.* 1612; *d.* 1680), was a Roman Catholic peer of high personal character, who in 1678 was accused by Oates and Bedloe of complicity in the Popish Plot. He was committed to the Tower with four other Catholic peers, and in 1680 was the one chosen to be tried. He was impeached of high treason by the Commons, and tried by the House of Lords, and, although the only witnesses against him were Oates, and other perjured wretches, he was found guilty by 55 votes to 31. His execution, which took place in Dec., 1680, marks the turn of the tide against Shaftesbury, and the other upholders of the Popish Plot. Stafford protested his innocence on the scaffold, and the populace avowed their belief in his assertion.

Stair, James Dalrymple, Viscount (*b.* 1619, *d.* 1695), had borne arms in his youth, and was subsequently a teacher of philosophy at Glasgow University. He was a member of Cromwell's commission of justice, which in 1651 superseded the Court of Session. After the Restoration he sat in the Privy Council, and became President of the Court of Session, and was knighted by Charles II. On refusing to make a declaration against the covenant, he was condemned to forfeiture. On passing through London, however, he had an interview with Charles II., and his office and estates were restored to him. In 1676 he became Lord President, and boldly opposed the severities which preceded the fall of the Stuarts. He was deprived of office, and felt it advisable to retire to Holland. There he composed his *Institutes,* a legal work of great value. He assisted with his counsel and purse the unfortunate enterprise of Argyle. His estates would probably have been confiscated had not his eldest son taken the Stuart side on political affairs. At the revolution Stair assisted William with his advice. He became President of the Court of Session, and William's trusted agent in Scotland. An attempt was made by the opposition to rid themselves of him and his son by passing a law to the effect that all who had shared in the proceedings under the Stuarts were to be excluded from office, but the royal assent was refused to the bill. William wished to make him Lord President of the judicial bench, but the estates claimed the appointment. Next year, however, the opposition was overcome. Dalrymple's attempts to reform the bench do not seem to have been particularly successful. On the fall of Melville the government of Scotland passed entirely into the hands of the Dalrymples. Sir James was raised to the peerage, with the title of Viscount Stair (1691). It is not generally asserted that he took any active part in organising the massacre of Glencoe. In 1695 he died. Stair, as well as his son, were thoroughly unpopular in Scotland. "He was," says Mr. Burton, "the unapproached head of the Scotch law . . . To the field of Scotch jurisprudence, such as it was, Stair brought so entire an intellectual command, both in knowledge and genius, that he made his labours within it illustrious."

Burton, *Hist. of Scotland.*

Stair, John Dalrymple, Earl (*b.* 1648, *d.* 1707), son of the above, is known in history by the title of the Master of Stair. He took office under James II., and became Lord Advocate of Scotland. By this means he saved the estates of his father from confiscation. The coldness that ensued between father and son was merely affected. At the revolution he early changed sides. He was one of the Scotch commissioners who were sent to offer the crown to William. On his return he was falsely accused by the opposition of having betrayed the liberties of his country. Shortly afterwards he became Lord Advocate, and, on the fall of his rival Melville, Secretary of State for Scotland (1696). In conjunction with Argyle and Breadalbane, he planned the infamous massacre of Glencoe. An inquiry in 1695 clearly traced the design to him, but the Scotch Estates simply censured him in vague terms, and left his treatment to the wisdom of the king. William contented himself with dismissing the Master from

office. On the death of his father (1695) he became viscount, and was created Earl Stair in 1703. As one of the commissioners of the Scotch Union he displayed his great legal talents. In 1707, during the debate on article 22 he spoke with success, and with considerable earnestness. But the strain on his nerves was too great; he returned home, and died. "The Master of Stair," says Macaulay, "was one of the first men of his time—a jurist, a statesman, a fine scholar, an eloquent orator. His polished manners and lively conversation were the delight of aristocratical societies, and none who met him in such societies would have thought it possible that he could bear the chief part in an atrocious crime." The defence that is offered for his complicity in the massacre of Glencoe may be given in the words of Mr. Burton:—"If it is to be called malignity, it was no more personal than the desire of a chief of police to bring a band of robbers to justice."

Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Burton, *Hist. of Scotland.*

Stair, John Dalrymple, Earl of (son of the foregoing; *b.* 1673, *d.* 1747), served under William III. in Ireland and the Netherlands, became a lieutenant-colonel in 1701, and was one of Marlborough's officers. He shared his general's disgrace. In 1707 he succeeded to his father's earldom. In 1715 he was sent as ambassador to France. There his friendship with the regent stood the English government in good stead. The fortifications at Mardyk were discontinued owing to his representations. Hearing that ships were being fitted out for the Pretender by the French government, he requested that they might be given up, and the regent went so far as to unload them. It is said that he tried to bring about the assassination of the Pretender before he started for the expedition of 1715. On his return from that fruitless attempt he was dismissed from France on Stair's demand. In 1718 Stair successfully negotiated the quadruple alliance between England, France, Austria, and Holland. In 1720 he was recalled owing a dispute with his fellow-countryman, Law, the financier. For twenty years he was kept out of employment. At length (1741) he was sent as ambassador to Holland, in order to induce the States General to take part in the war of the Austrian succession. As commander of the English army in Flanders (1743) he displayed great incapacity. It was only by extreme good fortune that the English army escaped destruction at Dettingen. After the battle jealousy sprang up between him and the German commanders. Disgusted at the rejection of his advice he sent in his resignation. In 1745 he was reappointed commander-in-chief on the occasion of Prince Charles Edward's invasion, but took no active part in the campaign.

Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; Arneth, *Maria Theresia.*

Stamford Bridge, The Battle of (Sept. 25, 1066), was fought between the English, under King Harold II., and the Norwegians, led by Harold Hardrada and Tostig. The early success of the invaders at Fulford, and the submission of York had not prepared them for the sudden advance of Harold, and they seem to have been taken unawares, as they were encamped on the banks of the Derwent, east of York. The party on the right bank were completely surprised, and could make but little resistance, and, having defeated these, the English proceeded to press across the bridge, which was for awhile gallantly defended by a single Norwegian champion. The main fight took place on the left bank, and, after a hard struggle, the English gained a complete victory. Harold Hardrada and Tostig lay dead on the field, and of the Norwegian host very few escaped to their ships.

Freeman, *Norman Conquest.*

Stamp Act, The (1764, 1765, 1766), was one of the chief causes of the war with the American colonies. In it George Grenville, as Chancellor of the Exchequer, in 1764, asserted for the first time the right of the imperial legislature to impose taxation on the colonies; and by it customs duties were charged upon the importation into the colonies of various foreign products. The proceeds of these duties were, on a totally new principle, to be paid into the imperial exchequer, and to be applied, under the direction of Parliament, towards defraying "the necessary expenses of defending, protecting, and securing the British colonies and plantations." This Act was also accompanied by a resolution, passed by the Commons, that "it may be proper to charge certain stamp duties" in America, as the foundation of future legislation. A year's delay was allowed by Grenville before passing the threatened bill, but in the following year, in spite of the unanimous protests of the American colonies, and their assertion of their constitutional right to be taxed only through their representatives, the fatal bill passed almost without opposition. The colonists, however, resisted its execution, and their discontent became so marked that Parliament was reluctantly obliged to take notice of it. Pitt, who had been prevented by illness from being present at the discussions on the bill, now came forward, and, insisting that taxation without representation was illegal, urged the immediate repeal of the tax, while he proposed to uphold the dignity of the mother country by asserting the general legislative authority of Parliament over the colonies. From this Act he expressly excepted the right of taxation, bnt the crown lawyers were against him, and, in spite of the fact that Lord Rockingham was now at the head of the government, the exception was eliminated, and the bill was passed maintaining the absolute right of

England to make laws for the colonies. Though defeated in this particular, Pitt carried his original proposal, and in 1766 the Stamp Act was repealed, while at the same time several of the obnoxious duties, which had been imposed in 1764, were withdrawn, and others were modified.

Massey, *Reign of George III.*; May, *Const. Hist.*; Adam Smith, *Wealth of Nations*, book iv., c. 7; Burke, *American Taxation*; Bancroft, *Hist. of the American Revolution*, vols. ii., iii.; Evidence of Franklin, *Parl. Hist.* xvi.

Standard, The Battle of the (1137), was fought near Northallerton in Yorkshire. David of Scotland invaded England on the pretext of assisting Maud against Stephen; but the hatred and dread of the Scots united all the English of the North against him. Under the authority of Thurstan, Archbishop of York and the leadership of Raoul, Bishop of Durham, an army was collected, while to inspire courage, the consecrated banners of St. Cuthbert of Durham, St. Peter of York, St. John of Beverley, and St. Wilfred of Ripon were entrusted to the army. "These were all suspended from one pole, like the mast of a vessel, surmounted by a cross, in the centre of which was fixed a silver casket, containing the consecrated wafer of the Holy Sacrament. The pole was fixed into a four-wheeled car, on which the Bishop stood." The Scots were completely routed, and fled in disorder.

Standing Orders are orders drawn up by the Houses of Parliament for the regulation of its conduct and proceedings. They continue in force from one Parliament to another, until they are repealed or suspended.

Stanhope, Charles, 3rd Earl (*b.* 1753, *d.* 1816), took a prominent position in politics, until his extreme partisanship of the French Revolution lost him all influence. His advocacy of Republicanism often left him single in a minority in the House of Lords.

Stanhope, James, General, 1st Earl (*b.* 1673, *d.* 1720), in 1695 served as a volunteer in Flanders, and was given a colonel's commission by William III. In Anne's first Parliament he sat as member for Cockermouth. He was made Brigadier-General in 1705. At the siege of Barcelona, he was second in command to Peterborough, and afterwards returned to England. In 1708 he brought forward a Bill for the dissolution of the Highland clans; but as the danger of a Jacobite invasion passed away, the Bill was dropped. In the same year he was appointed Commander in Catalonia [Spanish Succession, War of]. Unsuccessful on the mainland, he took Port Mahon in Minorca, and in 1710 advanced on Arragon. The Spanish were utterly defeated at Almenara, and again at Saragossa. Madrid was occupied. But Stanhope was caught, defeated, and taken prisoner by Vendome at Brihuega. He was ransomed in 1712, and became on his return leader of the Whig opposition. Owing to his firmness, no attempt at rebellion was made by the Jacobites on the death of Anne. He was prepared, if necessary, to seize the Tower. On the accession of George I. he became Secretary of State, and was despatched to Vienna to persuade the Emperor to agree to the Barrier Treaty. His vigorous measures checked a serious outbreak in England during the rebellion of 1715. He went with George to Hanover (1716), and began negotiations with the Abbé Dubois for the establishment of friendly relations with the Regent of France. The result was the triple alliance between England, France, and Holland (1717). On the retirement of Walpole and Townshend from the ministry in April, Stanhope became First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer. It was thought that a Jacobite invasion was impending. Stanhope was removed from the Treasury, and became Secretary of State for the Southern Department. At home he succeeded in repealing the Schism Act, but his Peerage Bill was thrown out by large majorities in the Lower House. In 1720 came the downfall of the South Sea scheme. Stanhope had no share in the speculation; and even proposed that ministers who had received bribes from the company should be accounted guilty of "notorious and dangerous corruption." During the examination of the directors, the young Duke of Wharton directed a violent attack against the administration, especially against Stanhope himself. He rose to reply; but his passion brought a rush of blood to his head, which next day proved fatal.

Stanhope, *Reign of Anne, Hist. of Eng.*, and *War of Succession in Spain*; Macaulay, *Essay* on *War of Succession*.

Stanhope, Henry, Earl (*b.* 1805, *d.* 1875), was returned in 1830, as Lord Mahon, to Parliament as member for Wootton Bassett, and afterwards for the Borough of Hertford. In the first Peel ministry he was Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs, and during the last year of Peel's second administration he was Secretary to the Board of Control, and supported the repeal of the Corn Laws. Lord Stanhope was the author of numerous important historical works. His *War of the Succession in Spain* is full and accurate. His *History of the Reign of Queen Anne* is a useful general history. His more lengthy and elaborate *History of England in the Eighteenth Century* has taken its place as a standard work, and though corrected and supplemented has not been superseded by the more recent work of Mr. Lecky.

Stanley, Sir William (*d.* 1495), was the brother of Henry VII.'s step-father, Justice of North Wales, and constable under Richard III., and the nobleman to whose treacherous conduct the king's victory at Bosworth Field was chiefly due. In consideration of his im-

portant services on this occasion, Henry made him Lord Chamberlain, and one of his counsellors. Stanley, however, was not satisfied. His continued demands alienated the king, for whom Stanley conceived a growing dislike. He became involved in some way with the affair of Perkin Warbeck. On the evidence of the king's spy, Sir Robert Clifford, he was suddenly arrested on a charge of treason, and after the merest semblance of a trial, was condemned and executed on that charge (Feb. 16, 1495).

Bacon, *Life of Henry VII.*

Stanley, Sir William, who had been employed for some time in Ireland, was in 1586 recalled, and sent to the Low Countries, when he became Governor of Deventer. He was a traitor to Elizabeth, and a friend of the Jesuits, and is supposed to have been privy to the Babington Conspiracy. After the discovery of the plot, Sir William accomplished a long-meditated piece of treachery, and surrendered Deventer to the Spaniards, himself entering Philip's service with 1,300 men (June, 1587).

Stannary Courts, The, were the courts for the administration of justice among the tinners of Cornwall and Devonshire, held before the Lord Warden and his steward. The privilege of the tin-workers to be subject to the jurisdiction of these courts only was confirmed by a charter 33 Edw. I, and by a statute 50 Edw. III., pleas of life, land, and member excepted. There was no appeal to Westminster, but to the council of the Duke of Cornwall after reference to the Warden in person. These courts became the engines of an arbitrary prerogative which robbed the mining districts of the west of the benefit of the common law. The Stuarts largely availed themselves of them; and in consequence of the complaints made, the Long Parliament (16 Car. I., c. 15) passed an explanatory and regulating Act concerning them, and abolished some analogous special jurisdictions. Since that date the proceedings of the Stannaries Courts have ceased to possess any great historical importance and they were abolished on Jan. 1, 1897.

Stapledon, Walter de (*d.* 1326), was made Bishop of Exeter in 1308, and in 1319 Lord High Treasurer. He sided with the king against Queen Isabella and Mortimer, and soon after the landing of the latter in England he was seized by the citizens of London, whom he seems to have offended during his tenure of the treasurership, and barbarously murdered.

Staples, or **Marts,** for the sale of the chief commodities of England, viz., wool, woolfels (skins), leather, lead, and tin, were established in certain places by Edward I. and Edward II. The foreign staple was fixed first at Antwerp and then at St. Omer. When we took Calais a staple was set up there which, on the loss of Calais in 1558 was moved to Bruges. Within England there were staples at several of the principal towns, at London, York, Bristol, Newcastle, &c. After some changes the staple system was established by statute (27 Edw. III., c. 9.) In this statute the staple towns are enumerated, Dublin, Waterford, Cork, and Drogheda being fixed on for Ireland, and Caermarthen for Wales; the ancient customs payable on staple goods are recited; all merchants, save merchants of the staple, are forbidden to buy or export these goods, and arrangements are made for the government of each staple by its own mayor and constables. The appointment of staple towns was a measure of considerable importance. As a matter of administration it facilitated the collection of the customs. Constitutionally, it bore on the relative rights of the crown and the parliament as regards taxation. Possessing exclusive privileges, and under the special protection of the crown, the merchants formed a body apart from the estates of the realm, and the king negotiated with them separately. The various changes in the policy relating to the staples Dr. Stubbs considers to be evidence that parliament looked on the dealings of the crown with these merchants as infringements of its rights. Regarded in this light, the authority given by statute to the ordinances of the staple previously made by the council, and the recitation of the ancient customs, may be regarded as assertions of the rights of the estates. Commercially, the staples were of importance as insuring the quality of our exports, for at the staple ports the officers viewed and marked the goods of the merchants. From the jurisdiction of the courts of the staples arose a species of estate defeasible on condition subsequent, called *statute staple* of the same nature as that founded on the statute, *De Mercatoribus*, 13 Edw. I., being a security for debt whereby not only the person and goods of the debtor might be taken, but his lands might be delivered to the creditor until out of the profits the debt should be satisfied. "So much more readily did the feudal restraints on alienation yield to considerations of a commercial kind than to any others" (Stephen's *Blackstone*, i. 317). This security, originally granted only to traders, was extended as a recognisance in the nature of a statute staple to all subjects by 23 Hen. VIII., c. 6. Such securities have been superseded by the law of bankruptcy.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, i. 411; Stephen, *Commentaries*, i. 314; Bacon's *Abridgement*, art. *Staples*; Macpherson, *Hist. of Commerce*, vol. i.

[W. H.]

Star Chamber (possibly from the Hebrew *shetar*, the Jewish covenants that were kept in the Star Chamber). One of the main objects of Henry VII. was to secure good "governance" for the country and to

keep the nobles in order. For this purpose he caused an Act (3 Henry VII., c. 1) to be passed, which, after reciting the evils caused by maintenance, and the giving of liveries, by the abuse of the power of the sheriffs, by the bribery of jurors, and by the riots and unlawful assemblies which prevented the administration of justice, empowers the Chancellor, Treasurer, and Keeper of the Privy Seal, or any two of them, with a bishop and a temporal lord of the Council, and the Chief Justices of the King's Bench and Common Pleas, or two other justices in their absence, to call before them persons offending in the above-mentioned respects, and to inflict such punishment, not extending to death, as might be imposed were they convicted in the ordinary course of law. This seems to have been not so much the creation of an entirely new court, as a Parliamentary recognition of certain powers of criminal jurisdiction long claimed by the Privy Council, and the limitation of their exercise to what may be regarded as practically a committee of that body. The Privy Council had long been accustomed to meet in the Star Chamber, but now this term Star Chamber began to be definitely applied to the new court which had sprung out of the Council. The words do not occur in the bill itself, only in the heading, but in the Act 20 Henry VII., which extended the jurisdiction of the court, the title is actually employed.

Subsequently, however, the jurisdiction of the court was extended beyond the Act 3 Henry VII., so that in the reigns of James I. and Charles I. it included most "misdemeanours of an aggravated nature, such as disturbances of the public peace, assaults accompanied with a good deal of violence, conspiracies, and libels. Besides these, every misdemeanour came within the proper scope of its inquiry; those especially of public importance, and for which the law, as then understood, had provided no sufficient punishment." (Hallam.) At the same time the limitation as to the judges came to be disregarded, and any member of the Privy Council was allowed to sit. Thus the Star Chamber became, as has been aptly said, a sort of scratch tribunal consisting of privy councillors, a change which, according to Hallam, probably took place during the reign of Edward VI. It can scarcely be doubted that during a great part at any rate of the Tudor period, the power of the court was beneficially exercised. "It is the effect of this court," says Sir Thomas Smith in his Treatise on the *Commonwealth of England*, written early in the reign of Elizabeth, "to bridle such stout noblemen or gentlemen who would offer wrong by force to any manner of men, and cannot be content to demand or defend the right by order of the law." He goes on to ascribe much of the praise to Wolsey: "It began long before, but took augmentation and authority at that time that Cardinal Wolsey was Chancellor of England, who of some was thought to have first devised that court because that he, after some intermission by negligence of time, augmented the authority of it, which was at that time marvellous necessary to do to repress the insolency of the noblemen and gentlemen in the north parts of England who . . . . made almost an ordinary war among themselves." Moreover, it was able to provide equitable remedies for cases which could not be fairly dealt with by the ordinary law courts. But its power had very early been abused; juries were summoned before it for verdicts disagreeable to the government, and were fined or imprisoned, so that although the Star Chamber could not itself condemn to death, the fear of its displeasure made juries sufficiently pliant. Persons accused before the court were forced to incriminate themselves by examination upon oath, and, it is scarcely necessary to add, no jury was employed to determine the question of guilt. It imposed ruinous fines (though in many cases they were remitted), and began in Elizabeth's reign to sentence to the pillory, whipping, and cutting off the ears. Under James I. and Charles I., the Star Chamber became the chief weapon of defence used by the government against its assailants; the punishments inflicted by it in such cases as those of Prynne, Burton, and Bastwick, excited general indignation; and it was abolished by Act of Parliament (July, 1641). A committee of the Lords in 1661 reported "that it was fit for the good of the nation that there be a court of like nature to the Star Chamber;" but the government did not venture to submit a bill to this effect to the Commons.

Coke, *4th Institute*, p. 61; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, iii., c. 18; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*, cc. 1, 8.

[W. J. A.]

State Trials, The. Collections of trials for treason and others of political interest have been made and published under the designation of State Trials. They are often invaluable sources of historical information, especially in the seventeenth century. The earliest collection was in six volumes folio, published early in the eighteenth century. Howell's edition in thirty-four volumes with index includes all up to 1820. A useful series of selections from the State Trials is issued from the Cambridge Press under the editorship of Mr. Willis Bund (1880).

Statutes may be defined as written laws, established by the sovereign, with the advice and assent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and of the Commons in Parliament assembled. Our legislation, however, did not take this form for a long time. The edicts, or assizes of Henry II., are declarations of methods of procedure rather than

enactments, and most of the legislative work of Edward I. was done without the co-operation of the Commons. The declaration of Edward II. in 1322, that matters touching the state of the king, the kingdom, and people should be established in Parliament by the king with the assent of the prelates, earls, barons, and the commonalty, forms an era in the history of our legislation. Nevertheless, the author of the *Mirror*, writing in this reign, declares that ordinances made by the king and his clerks, by aliens and others, took the place of laws established by Parliament, and for a long time our kings constantly neglected to gain the full concurrence of the three estates, legislating by ordinances or temporary regulations put forth by the Council rather than by statute. So long also as statutes were founded simply on petition, it sometimes happened that one estate only gained a statute, and more often that the statutes which were drawn after the Parliament had broken up, and which purported to be answers to the petitions presented, were more or less contrary to them. To obviate this, the Commons in the reign of Henry V. demanded and obtained that the judges should frame the statutes before the end of each Parliament. In the next reign the present system of making statutes by Act of Parliament was introduced. Statutes are written laws; yet such laws as were made before legal memory—*i.e.*, the beginning of the reign of Richard I.—though written, form part of our *lex non scripta*. Some written statutes also are extant that are not of record, being contained only in chronicles and memorials, yet even though a statute be not of record, it is still part of the written law if it is within legal memory. The earliest statute of record is 6 Edward I., called the Statute of Gloucester. The first statute in the printed collection is the Great Charter, 9 Hen. III., as confirmed and entered on the statute roll of 25 Edward I. The statutes from the Great Charter to the end of Edward II. are said to be *incerti temporis*, and are called *antiqua*, while all those that follow are called *nova statuta*. A statute takes effect from the moment that it has received the royal assent, unless some special time is expressed in the statute itself. Among the rules to be observed in interpreting statutes, it may be noted that a statute is to be interpreted not by the letter, but according to the spirit and intention with which it was made: and so judges, whose business it is to interpret statutes, sometimes depart from the mere words; that remedial statutes are to be interpreted in a wider, penal in a narrower fashion; and that though it was formerly held that if a statute repealing an earlier one was itself repealed, the earlier statute was thereby revived; since 13 & 14 Vict., c. 21, this is no longer the rule. Statutes have been named in different ways at different times, being called sometimes by the name of the place where they were made, as the Statute of Merton, sometimes by their subject, as *De Donis Conditionalibus;* and sometimes by their first words, as *Quia Emptores*. They are now described by the year of the king's reign in which they were made, with the chapter, and when two sessions have been held in one year, with the statute denoting the session in which it was enacted, as 1 William & Mary, st. 2, c. 2 (the Bill of Rights). Statutes are now divided into Public General Acts; Local and Personal Acts, declared Public; Private Acts printed and Private Acts not printed. Up to the time of Edward I. our statutes are in Latin; in his reign French was also used, and became the constant language of legislation until Henry VI. Some of the statutes of Henry VI. and Edward IV. are in English; but Henry VII. was the first king whose statutes are all expressed in our own tongue.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.* passim; Stephen, *Commentaries*, i., Introd.; Bacon, *Abridgment of the Statutes.* [W. H.]

Steele, Sir Richard (*b.* 1671, *d.* 1729) was born in Dublin. At Oxford he became acquainted with Addison, and when after failing there and in the army, he aspired to a literary career, Addison got him introductions to the Whig leaders, on whose behalf he soon distinguished himself. In 1709 he entered Parliament, but his pamphlets, *The Crisis* and *The Englishman*, led to his expulsion by the irate Tory majority. After the accession of George I. he was knighted, elected a member of Parliament, and wrote numerous political pamphlets. He quarrelled with his party about the Peerage Bill, and, not succeeding in his literary and stock-jobbing projects, retired to Carmarthen, his wife's home, where he died. Of his literary eminence there is no need to speak here. As a political writer Steele was one of the boldest and most sagacious of the Whigs, and at the same time he was, in a great degree, free from the narrowness which came over some of the "old Whigs," in George I.'s reign. His political pamphlets are among the most important contributions to the controversial literature of the period.

Steenie was the pet name given by James I. to his favourite, George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham.

Steinkirk, The Battle of (Aug. 4, 1692), fought between William III. and the French soon after the naval victory of La Hogue. The enemy had taken Namur. On the frontier of Brabant, Luxemburg was left to oppose the English king. William's headquarters were at Lambeque, Luxemburg's about six miles off at Steinkirk, while still farther off lay a large force under Marshal Boufflers. The country between the armies was exceedingly difficult. A traitor in the

English army had habitually informed Marshal Luxemburg of the movements of the allies. His correspondence was discovered, and with pistol at his breast he was forced to write false information dictated by William. The French commander was thrown off his guard. The whole of the allied army marched down upon him in the night. His outposts were driven back. But the progress of William's forces was obstructed by several fences and ditches, and Luxemburg was able to get his troops into order. Meanwhile, Boufflers was coming up. Mackay's division was the first to engage. The enemy were attacked and routed. It was determined to send Louis' household troops against the English. After a bloody struggle our men were borne down. Count Solmes refused to bring up his infantry to their support, and the division was nearly destroyed. The French loss was about 7,000, and that of the allies was not much greater. The English army and the English nation loudly expressed their resentment against Solmes.

Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*

Stephen, King (*b. circa* 1094, *r.* 1135—1154), was the third son of Stephen, Count of Blois, and Adela, daughter of William the Conqueror. He was brought up at the court of his uncle Henry I., from whom he received in marriage Matilda or Maud of Boulogne, niece of the queen. He took the oath of fealty to his cousin the Empress Maud, but immediately on the death of Henry I. he caused himself to be proclaimed king. The dislike of Maud's husband, Geoffrey of Anjou, contributed in great measure to Stephen's success, and at first he met with no opposition. But his misgovernment, and his conduct towards the Church and the officials of the administration rapidly alienated his friends, and in 1138 the Empress invaded England in company with her brother, Robert of Gloucester. From 1138 to 1145 was a period of complete anarchy, sometimes one, sometimes the other party gaining the upper hand. Every lord of a castle acted as king in his own domain. The fearful effects of feudal government were for the first and last time fully exemplified in England. In 1145 Robert of Gloucester died, and the Empress retired to Normandy leaving Stephen master of England. But in 1152 her son Henry landed in England, and the war was renewed. In 1153 a treaty was made at Wallingford by which Stephen was to retain the crown during his lifetime, when it was to pass to Henry. In the next year Stephen died at Dover Priory on Oct. 25. By his marriage with Matilda, Stephen had three sons and two daughters—Eustace, his intended heir, who died in 1153; William, who received the patrimonial estate and the earldom of Surrey, and died in the service of Henry II. at the siege of Toulouse in 1160; Mary, who became a nun, but leaving her convent married Matthew of Flanders; Baldwin and Maud who died young. Stephen possessed bravery, generosity, and the other simple virtues of a soldier; but his position required him to be false, and no man trusted him, knowing that he could trust no one. He was quite commonplace, and might have been more successful if more unscrupulous or less honest. A terrible picture of the anarchy of Stephen's reign is drawn by the English Chronicler. "When the traitors [*i.e.*, the barons] perceived that he was a mild man, and soft and good, and did no justice, then did they all wonder . . . every powerful man made his castles, and held them against him. They cruelly oppressed the wretched men of the land with castle-works. When the castles were made, they filled them with devils and evil men. Then they took those men that they thought had any property, both by night and by day, peasant men and women, and put them in prison for their gold and silver, and tortured them with unutterable tortures . . . Many thousand they killed with hunger; I cannot and may not tell all the wounds or all the tortures which they inflicted on wretched men in this land, and that lasted the nineteen years while Stephen was king; and ever it was worse and worse. They laid imposts on the towns continually, and when the wretched men had no more to give they robbed and burned all the towns, so that thou mightest well go all a day's journey, and thou shouldest never find a man sitting in a town, or the land tilled . . . Never yet had more wretchedness been in the land, nor did heathen men ever do worse than they did. . . . The bishops and the clergy constantly cursed them, but nothing came of it; for they were all accursed and forsworn, and forlorn. However a man tilled, the earth bare no corn, for the land was all fordone by such deeds; and they said openly that Christ and his saints slept."

Gesta Stephani; Hexham Chronicle (Surtees Soc.); *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle;* Stubbs, *Const. Hist.;* Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.* [F. S. P.]

Steward, The Lord High, was a great officer in the court of the Norman kings, but all his important functions were very early assigned to the Justiciar, and the office soon became little more than honorary. It was hereditary in the house of Leicester, and was inherited by Henry IV., and so absorbed into the royal dignity. Since that date it has only been conferred for some occasion. and the office ceases when the business which required it is ended; and this occasion has usually been when a person was to be tried before the House of Lords. The Steward had his own court, the jurisdiction of which was defined in the *Articuli super Cartas*, but despite this there are many complaints in subsequent reigns of the encroachment of the Steward's court, and in 1390 the powers of the court were once more limited.

Stigand, Archbishop of Canterbury (1052—1070), is first heard of as a chaplain, adviser, and minister of Queen Emma, and in 1043 was made Bishop of Elmham, but almost immediately afterwards deposed on the occasion of a quarrel between his patroness and the king. But in the next year he made his peace with Edward, and was restored to his see. During the whole of the reign of Edward the Confessor we find Stigand heading the English party in the Church, and strongly opposing the Normanising tendencies of the king. The bishopric of Winchester was given to him in 1047, and on the flight of Robert of Jumièges in 1052 Stigand obtained the archbishopric. He still continued to hold the bishopric of Winchester, and seems to have been energetic and conciliatory in the performance of his ecclesiastical duties. On the death of Edward, Stigand summoned the Witenagemot which elected Harold, but the archbishop did not actually crown the king. After Harold's death it was Stigand who anointed Edgar Atheling as king, and who when the cause of the young prince was proved to be hopeless, made peace between him and the Conqueror. Stigand was present at William's coronation, and did homage to him, and was one of the Englishmen whom the king took over with him to Normandy in 1067. But the oppression of the Norman nobles drove the English to revolt, and Stigand fled with Edgar to the Scotch court. Subsequently we find the archbishop among the small band of patriots who held out against the Normans among the fens of Ely. Taken prisoner with the others in 1072 he was condemned to perpetual imprisonment at Winchester, where he died. He had previously (in 1070) been deposed from his archbishopric, three charges being brought against him. (1) That he held the bishopric of Winchester together with his archbishopric, this being uncanonical; (2) that he had assumed the archbishopric during the lifetime of Robert, who had been unlawfully deposed, and (3) that he had received the pallium from the anti-Pope Benedict. Of his character, Dr. Hook says, "Stigand was neither a hero nor a saint. He did not possess the moral force or the intellectual power which enables a great mind to make adverse circumstances a stepping stone to usefulness and honour; and he did not possess the meaner ambition of those who, failing in the arena of manly contest, are satisfied with the effeminate applause which is elicited by sentimentalism and romance. But Stigand was a sturdy patriot, in whose breast beat an honest English heart."

Anglo-Saxon Chronicle; William of Malmesbury; Hook, *Archbishops*; Freeman, *Norman Conquest.*

Stile, John, a servant of Henry VII., and his messenger on several important occasions. From the mention of his name in the instructions given to Wolsey with regard to the treaty of marriage between Henry and Margaret of Savoy, he seems to have taken some part in the more private arrangements on the subject, and he was also one of Henry's confidential messengers with reference to the king's matrimonial plans in Naples. In 1502, for some unknown reason, John Stile seems to have fallen temporarily into disgrace, as there is a mention of a pardon being granted him on June 16 of that year.

Stillington, Robert (*d.* 1491), after holding minor preferments, was in 1466 made Bishop of Bath and Wells. He was a strong Yorkist, and in 1467 was entrusted with the Great Seal. He held it till 1470, and again from 1472 to 1475. After Edward's death Stillington became an adherent of Richard, and drew up the Act by which Edward's children were bastardised. On the accession of Henry VII. he was imprisoned for a short while, but soon obtained pardon. In 1487, however, he was implicated in the attempt of Lambert Simnel, for which he was kept in prison till his death.

Stirling, a town of Scotland, situated on the Forth, was one of the four burghs given up to the English (1174) as security for the fulfilment of the conditions of the Treaty of Falaise, but was restored to Scotland by Richard I. (1186). In 1297 it was the scene of the battle between Wallace and the Earl of Surrey, and in 1304 was taken by Edward I., after being defended for three months by Sir William Oliphant. In 1313—14 it was besieged by Edward Bruce, and after the battle of Bannockburn, which was fought in the endeavour to relieve it, was surrendered by the governor, Mowbray. In 1339 it again fell into the hands of the Scotch, being given up by its governor, Thomas Rokeby. In 1571 an attempt was made on it by the party of Queen Mary, and in 1583 it was taken by the Ruthven conspirators. During the disturbances of 1639 it was in the hands of the Covenanters, and in 1715 was occupied by Argyle against the Jacobites. In 1746 it was unsuccessfully besieged by the Pretender.

Stirling, The Battle of (Sept. 11, 1297), resulted in a complete victory for Sir William Wallace and the Scotch over the English, who were led by Warenne, Earl of Surrey, and by Cressingham. Wallace fell on the English, who numbered about 50,000 men, as they were in process of crossing a narrow bridge over the Forth, and cut them to pieces, killing Cressingham.

Stockdale v. Hansard, Cases of (1837—40), arose from the publication by Hansard, by order of the Commons, of a report, which described a book published by Stockdale as indecent. Stockdale suing Hansard for libel, the Queen's Bench decided that the order of the House was no justification. After

five suits had been brought, and Stockdale and the sheriffs committed by the Commons, an Act was passed preventing any suit in future concerning papers printed by order of either House.

Stoke, The Battle of (June 16, 1487), the last battle between the rival houses of York and Lancaster, was fought between the Yorkist adherents of Lambert Simnel and Henry VII. at a small village near Newark. John de la Pole, Earl of Lincoln, Lords Lovel and Fitzgerald led the revolters, assisted by an experienced German general, Martin Schwarz, at the head of 2,000 mercenaries. After an obstinate conflict of three hours' duration, on account of their numerical superiority the royal forces, commanded by Henry VII. in person, prevailed. Not one of the rebel leaders escaped. Simnel was taken prisoner, and the revolt was thoroughly suppressed.

Stone, George, Archbishop of Dublin (*b.* 1707, *d.* 1764), was the son of a banker. Through the influence of the Duke of Newcastle, he became in early life Dean of Derry, and then successively Bishop of Kildare and Derry, and in 1747 was made primate. During Lord Dorset's viceroyalty he was virtually governor of Ireland, and he ruled it by means of the pension list. In 1755 he was dismissed from the Privy Council, but in 1759 again joined the ministerial party. He was called the "Beauty of Holiness," and was very unpopular. He was, however, a liberal man, and in favour of the removal of Catholic disabilities.

Lecky, *Hist. of Eng. in the Eighteenth Century*; Plowden, *Hist. of Ireland*; Walpole, *Memoirs of the Reign of George II.*

Storie, Dr. John (*d.* 1571), was in Jan., 1548, whilst a member of the House of Commons, committed to the custody of the Serjeant-at-Arms, "probably," says Hallam, "for some ebullition of virulence against the changes of religion." Under Mary, Storie became one of the most violent enemies of the Reformation, and a leading persecutor. He was queen's proctor at the trial of Archbishop Cranmer, and in 1559 made a violent speech in the House against the Supremacy Bill. He was subsequently imprisoned for refusing to take the oath of allegiance, and on his release went abroad, where he occupied himself in plotting against Elizabeth's government. He is said to have been plotting the death of James VI. of Scotland, in order to smooth the way "for his mother's marriage with some Catholic prince," when he was inveigled on board a vessel at Antwerp by a man named Parker, one of Burleigh's spies, and carried to Yarmouth. He was tortured to extort his secrets, and shortly afterwards was hanged.

Stowe, John (*b. circa* 1525, *d.* 1605), was a London citizen and most industrious antiquarian. Besides minor works, such as his *Summarie of English Chronicles* (1561), his *Flores Historiarum*, his contributions to Holinshed, and to editions of Chaucer, he is chiefly known for his *Survay of London*, published in 1598, which has been the basis of all subsequent attempts at a history of London. He suffered from great poverty in his old age.

An enlarged edition of Stowe's *Survay* was published by Strype in 1720, and re-issued with further enlargements in 2 vols. folio (1754).

Stowell, William Scott, Lord (*b.* 1745, *d.* 1836), was the elder brother of Lord Eldon. From the Grammar School of Newcastle-on-Tyne, he went up to Corpus Christi College, Oxford, as a scholar, and obtained a fellowship. In 1774 he was appointed Camden Reader in ancient history, while in the meantime he was studying for the bar. He proved an admirable lecturer, but, leaving Oxford in 1777, practised in the Ecclesiastical and Admiralty Courts. Practice flowed in to him at once. In 1783 he was appointed Registrar of the Court of Faculties, and five years later Judge of the Consistory Court and Advocate-General, with the honour of knighthood, and, ten years later, he became Judge of the High Court of Admiralty. In 1790 he had been returned to Parliament for Downton, but during a long career in Parliament he scarcely ever made a long speech. In 1821 he was raised to the peerage. As a judge he cannot be too highly praised. He ranks even higher than his distinguished brother. He was painstaking, clear, and logical in his decisions, and displayed a breadth of learning and research which has done much to form our international law. "He formed," says a contemporary writer, "a system of rational law from the ill-fashioned labours of his predecessors, erecting a temple of jurisprudence, and laying its foundations not on fleeting policy, or in occasional interests, but in universal and immutable justice."

Haggard, *Reports*; *Annual Obituary*, 1837.

Strafford, Thomas Wentworth, Earl of (*b.* April, 1593, *d.* May 12, 1641), the son of Sir William Wentworth, was educated at St. John's College, Cambridge, represented Yorkshire in Parliament from 1613 to 1628, with the exception of the assembly of 1626, when he was incapacitated by being appointed sheriff. In Parliament Wentworth maintained an independent position, inclining rather to the popular party than to the court. In 1621 he opposed the attempt of James to limit the rights of Parliament, and proposed a protestation. In 1627 he opposed the forced loan levied by Charles, and was for a short time in confinement. In the Parliament of 1628 he for a time exercised great influence in the Commons, and attempted to embody the liberties of the subject in a bill, and thereby to lay a secure foundation for the

future, and reconcile king and Commons. But he did not share in the general passion for war with Spain in 1624, nor did he sympathise with the objections of the Puritans to the king's religious policy. What he desired was a government intelligent enough to perceive the real needs of the nation, and strong enough to carry out practical reforms, in spite of the opposition of local and class interests. It was in accordance with these ideas that Wentworth entered the king's service. He was created a peer in July, 1628, and became in December of the same year President of the Council of the North. He entered the Privy Council in November, 1629, and became Lord Deputy of Ireland in the summer of 1636. Measures for the better carrying out of the poor law, for the relief of commerce, and for the general improvement of the condition of the people were probably the results of his presence in the Council. In the North his vigorous enforcements of the law without respect of persons was the chief characteristic of his administration. In Ireland his abilities had freer scope. He protected trade, founded the flax manufacture, organised a respectable army, and introduced many reforms into the Church and the administration. But his harshness to individuals, and his intolerance of opposition gained him numerous enemies amongst the English colonists, whilst his disregard of the king's promises to the native Irish, and the threatened Plantation of Connaught, created feelings of distrust and dread, which bore fruit in the rebellion of 1641. In Sept., 1639, he was summoned to England, and became at once the leading spirit in the committee of eight, to whom Scotch affairs were entrusted, and the king's chief adviser. In Jan., 1640, he was created Earl of Strafford. By his advice the king summoned the Short Parliament, and dissolved it when it became unruly. In order to carry on the war with Scotland, he suggested expedients of every kind—a loan from Spain, the debasement of the coinage, and the employment of the Irish army to subdue Scotland, or if necessary to keep down England. The king appointed him Lieutenant-General of the English army (Aug. 20, 1640), but his energy could not avert defeat, and when the council of peers advised the king to summon a Parliament, his fate was assured. In spite of illness Strafford hurried up to London to impeach the popular leaders for treasonable correspondence. Pym moved Strafford's impeachment on Nov. 11, and he was arrested the same day. His trial began in Westminster Hall on March 22, 1641. The extreme party in the Commons, dissatisfied with the slow and doubtful course of impeachment, brought in a bill of attainder (April 10), which passed its third reading in the Commons on April 21, and in the Lords on May 8. The king's attempts to save Strafford, and above all the discovery of the first Army Plot, sealed his fate, and prevented the acceptance of a suggested compromise, which would have saved his life, but incapacitated him from all office. The king postponed his answer as long as he could, and consulted the bishops and judges, but the danger of a popular rising induced him to yield, he gave his assent to the bill (May 10), and Strafford was executed on May 12. His attainder was reversed in 1662.

Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng., 1603—1642*; Rushworth, *Historical Collections*; *Strafford Papers*; Life of Strafford in Forster's *British Statesmen*, vol. ii. [C. H. F.]

Straffordians. The bill of attainder against Strafford passed the third reading (April 2, 1641) by a majority of 204 against 59. Mr. William Wheeler, M.P. for Westbury, took down the names of the minority, copies of the list got abroad, and one was posted up in the Old Palace Yard, Westminster, with the addition "these are the Straffordians, betrayers of their country." The list included the names of Selden, Lord Digby, Orlando Bridgeman, and Holborne. It did not contain those of Falkland and Hyde, who voted for the bill. The publication of the division lists was at this time a breach of privilege. The House itself first published the names of members voting in the year 1836.

Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion*; T. L. Sanford, *Studies of the Great Rebellion*.

Straits Settlements, The, situated in the Straits of Malacca, comprise Singapore, Penang, with Wellesley Province and The Dindings; and Malacca. In 1906 the boundaries were extended so as to include Labuan. These settlements, originally formed under the Indian government, were transferred to the charge of the Colonial Office, 1867. The government of the collective colony at Singapore is vested in a governor and executive and legislative councils. Penang and Malacca have each a resident councillor, under the Governor of Singapore. The population, numbering a little over half a million, is very mixed, and includes Malays, Chinese, Bengalese, Arabs, Burmese, Siamese, and numerous other races. Associated with the colony is a group of protected native states.

Stratford, John, Archbishop of Canterbury (*d.* 1348), first appears as sitting in Parliament in 1317. He was frequently employed on embassies by Edward II., and in 1323 was made Bishop of Winchester by the Pope, contrary to the wishes of the king, who, however, eventually recognised him. He took an active part in the deposition of Edward II., but though he saw the necessity of getting rid of the infatuated king, he did not wish to put the power into the hands of Isabella and Mortimer. His opposition to the guilty pair led to his persecution, and he

was compelled to take refuge in a forest in Hampshire, where he remained till the fall of Mortimer. Edward III. made him Chancellor in 1330, and he was translated to the see of Canterbury in 1333. He held the Great Seal twice again, from 1335 to 1337 and for a short period in 1340. In this latter year occurred the great quarrel between the king and the archbishop. There is no doubt that Stratford was a faithful minister to Edward, but it was impossible for him to find money sufficient to defray the expense of the costly French wars. Edward, angered by his want of money and the ill-success of his expedition, turned round on the archbishop and accused him of malversation. A lengthy dispute followed, in the course of which the king being desirous of bringing Stratford before the Council, the peers declared that a peer could only be tried by the House of Lords, thus incidentally establishing an important privilege. The archbishop having got Parliament on his side, the king was compelled to give in, and a reconciliation followed. Stratford was often employed by the king on important affairs, but he never again received the chancellorship. Though they can hardly rank as statesmen, the archbishop and his brother were able and faithful ministers, anxious to check the extravagance of the king, and to preserve the liberties of the people.

Hook, *Archbishops of Canterbury*; W. Longman, *Edward the Third*.

Stratton, The Battle of (May 16, 1643), took place during the Great Rebellion. The Parliamentary forces under General Chudleigh, Sir Richard Buller, Sir Alexander Carew, and the Earl of Stamford, were defeated by the Cornish army under Sir Ralph Hopton and Sir Bevil Grenville. The Parliamentary forces were weakened by the detachment of Sir George Chudleigh with all their cavalry. They were posted on the top of Stratton Hill, which the Cornish army after several hours' hard fighting succeeded in storming. General Chudleigh and 1,700 prisoners were taken, together with thirteen guns, and all the baggage and stores of the defeated army.

Strickland, Agnes (*b.* 1806, *d.* 1874), the daughter of Mr. Thomas Strickland, of Reydon Hall, Suffolk, was the author of numerous works of fiction and poetry. She published *Lives of the Queens of England from the Norman Conquest*, 12 vols., 1840—48 (new ed., 8 vols., 1851—52), which attained great popularity. The work is interesting, and written in a lively style, but the author's judgment was not sufficiently critical, nor her acquaintance with general English history wide enough, for it to be of much value as an authority. In 1850—59 she wrote *Lives of the Queens of Scotland*, which includes an elaborate, but not conclusive, vindication of Mary Queen of Scots. In 1866 she published *Lives of the Seven Bishops*

Strode, William (*d.* 1645), was returned to the House of Commons in the last Parliament of James I., and the five Parliaments of his son. In the third Parliament of Charles he took part in the tumult caused in the House of Commons by the Speaker's refusal to put Eliot's resolutions, for which he was called before the Council and imprisoned until January, 1640. In the Long Parliament he is mentioned by Clarendon as "one of those ephori who most avowed the curbing and suppressing of majesty," and "one of the fiercest men of the party, and of the party only for his fierceness." On Dec. 24, 1640, he introduced the bill for annual Parliaments, and on Nov. 28, in 1641, moved that the kingdom should be put in a posture of defence. He did not scruple to avow that the safety of the Parliament depended on the Scottish army. "The sons of Zeruiah," he said (referring to the court party), "are too strong for us." He was one of the five members impeached by the king (Jan., 1642). After the Civil War began he took an active part against the king in Somerset, and in his place in the Commons opposed all proposals to treat.

S. R. Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng., 1603—1642*, and *Great Civil War, 1642—1649*.

Strongbow was the surname of Richard de Clare, Earl of Pembroke, a nobleman of ruined fortunes and adventurous spirit. It was this doubtless that made him eager to accept the hand of Eva, daughter of the King of Leinster, and to attempt the conquest of Ireland. He applied to Henry for leave, and got a dubious answer, which became finally an absolute prohibition, but in spite of it he sailed from Milford Haven in 1170. At once he married Eva, and was probably elected tanist, and succeeded to the kingdom of Leinster in 1171. In 1172 he joined Henry in Normandy, and returned to Ireland as governor in 1173. A mutiny of the soldiery compelled him to supersede his friend Hervey Mount-Maurice by Raymond le Gros, but he refused him the hand of his sister. Being defeated by the O'Briens in 1174 he found it necessary to accept Raymond as a brother-in-law. Though Henry himself had recalled that leader, the voice of the soldiery again compelled Strongbow to make Raymond their commander. In 1176 he died at Dublin of a cancer in the leg, and was buried in the cathedral. He left but one daughter, Isabel, who brought his vast lands to William Marshal of Pembroke, her husband. According to Giraldus he never originated an enterprise, but allowed himself to be guided by others; he, however, allows him to have been just and even generous, and brave in battle. He was a munificent patron of the Church, and was the founder of the priory of Kilmainham.

Giraldus Cambrensis, *Expugnatio Hibernica*; Lyttelton, *Henry II.*

Strype, John (*b.* 1643, *d.* 1737), an industrious compiler of materials for the history of the English Reformation, was vicar of Leyton in Essex. His chief works are *Ecclesiastical Memorials*, a Church history under Henry VIII., Edward VI., and Mary, with invaluable original papers in appendices; *The Annals of the Reformation;* the *Lives* of *Cranmer*, *Parker*, *Grindal*, *Whitgift*, *Cheke*, *Smith*, and *Aylmer;* and an enlarged edition of Stowe's *Survay of London* (1720). A man of little ability and some prejudice, Strype's solid work has made his collections quite indispensable for the history of the change of religion in England. The best edition is that of the Oxford Press in octavo.

Stuart Family. The Stuarts were descended from a certain Walter Fitz-Alan, lord of Oswestry, who entered the service of David I., by whom he was created High Steward of Scotland. The office became hereditary in the family. Alexander, the fourth Steward of the Fitz-Alan stock, commanded at the battle of Largs in 1263; the fifth, James, was one of the regents appointed on the death of Alexander III.; the sixth, Walter, supported Robert Bruce, commanded a division at Bannockburn, and was rewarded in 1315 by the hand of Bruce's daughter, Marjory. Marjory's son, Robert, ruled Scotland as regent during the minority of David II. and his captivity in England, and upon David's death, in 1371, succeeded to the Scottish throne. [For the history of the Stuart sovereigns of Scotland, *see* Robert II. and III., James I., II., III., IV., V., and Mary.]

With the accession of James VI. of Scotland to the English throne (1603) as James I., the history of the Stuart rule in England begins; it is that of the transition from the personal government of the Yorkist and Tudor periods to the Parliamentary system of Hanoverian times. Such a transition was, in England, inevitable; but to the character and policy of the Stuart kings it was due that the change had to be effected by means of a rebellion and a revolution. Parliament had already in the later years of Elizabeth begun to assume a more independent attitude; but that queen had tact enough to keep it in good temper, and, as in the question of the monopolies, knew when to yield. But James I. was utterly devoid of tact, and never succeeded in making himself respected. More than this, he continually forced upon men's attention a doctrine of prerogative which cut at the root of English liberties. Moreover, his Scotch experience had rendered him singularly unfit to deal with English ecclesiastical difficulties. The time had come for concessions to, or at any rate considerate treatment of, the Puritans. But James, though he did not, as Charles I., regard episcopacy as a sacred institution, valued it highly as a means of keeping the clergy in order; any concession to the Puritans would, he thought, weaken episcopal authority, and so prepare the way for that independence of the clergy which in Scotland had proved so dangerous to the state; therefore he refused all change, and so brought about the union against himself of the political and religious oppositions. His domestic difficulties were increased by his ill-advised foreign policy. James knew far better than his subjects the true position of affairs on the Continent; and, although his policy of mediation could never have succeeded, a frank statement of reasons would have done much to lessen the opposition of the Commons; but as he took no pains to make his people understand him, it was inevitable that the Protestant feeling of the country should be offended by the marriage negotiations with Spain, and by the king's refusal to interfere energetically to save the Palatinate. So firm was the distrust which his action inspired, that even when, under pressure from Buckingham, James declared war against Spain, Parliament would not believe that a great continental war was seriously intended, and refused supplies. The question more and more clearly defined itself: could the king persist in a certain policy, or retain a certain minister, against the will of Parliament? The actual Parliamentary gains of James's reign were but few; more important was it that the impositions had raised the question of unparliamentary taxation, and that the revival of impeachment had given Parliament a weapon against the king. But it is clear that if the king determined to carry out a certain policy against the wish of his subjects, and to raise the necessary funds by unparliamentary means, and if Parliament in vain attacked ministers, the ultimate issue would depend on the preponderance of power, and this could be decided only by war. This is what came to pass under Charles I.

But while the victory of Parliament was inevitable, it was well that it should not be premature. Had Charles yielded to all the demands of the Commons in 1629, had he given them complete control of taxation, and recognised the responsibility of ministers, he would have handed over his sovereignty to them. But the Commons were not yet fit to exercise such a power. Their supremacy would have established a gross tyranny in ecclesiastical matters, for all opinions disliked by the majority of average Englishmen would have been proscribed in the National Church. Nor were the Commons as yet fit to govern. Nothing existed comparable to the modern system of cabinet and party government; the rule of the House of Commons would have been the rule of an unorganised mob.

Then followed eleven years without a Parliament. At first the country was quiet; but

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PRINCE CHARLES EDWARD STUART, THE YOUNG PRETENDER.

From the portrait by Nicolas Largillière, in the National Portrait Gallery.

Laud's action upon becoming archbishop, and the attempt to raise Ship-money, strengthened and bound more closely together the Puritan and the constitutionalist opposition; and when the Scotch attack forced Charles to put himself into the hands of Parliament, the opposition saw their own strength, and Charles had to surrender one by one the powers and prerogatives by which he had attempted to govern.

But the redress of political grievances left the religious difficulties still unsolved. It became clear during the struggles of 1641—42 that the main question left was that of the existence of episcopacy; from the episcopalian party arose the Cavalier party; and though the attempt to seize the Five Members, and the consequent introduction of the Militia Bill was the immediate cause of the war, the religious element was far more important than the constitutional in the early years of the war.

The constitutional questions of the second Stuart period differ from those of the first. No longer was there a direct assertion of "absolute power;" no unparliamentary taxation was attempted; there was no exercise of judicial power by Council or Star Chamber. Charles II. ruled not against, but through, a Parliament which he tried to make subservient. Yet the judges were still under court influence; prerogative lingered in the "dispensing power;" and divine right reappeared under the doctrine of "non-resistance." The fall of the Whigs after the dissolution of 1681 showed how strong the Royalist feeling of the country remained, in spite of eighteen years' misgovernment; and even after the lessons of the Great Rebellion, the Stuarts might at the eleventh hour have succeeded in creating a despotism, had not James II. attacked the English Church, and so united all classes against him.

The reigns of William and Mary, and of Anne, though the sisters were of the Stuart house, are more closely connected with later than with earlier history. In them begins the development of party cabinet government; and instead of a shifting policy of neutrality or a truckling to France, the great struggle commences between France and England which was to last till the nineteenth century. [Petition of Right; Great Rebellion, &c.]

Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng., 1603—1642*, and *Great Civil War, 1642—1649*, is the great authority for Charles I. and James I.:-Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*, is specially valuable for the later Stuarts. For Charles II. and James II. we have also Macaulay's *Hist. of Eng.* The best short general sketch is in the small volume by Mr. Gardiner, entitled *The Puritan Rebellion*.

Stuart, Arabella. [Arabella Stuart.]

Stuart, Charles Edward, known as the Young Pretender (*b.* 1720, *d.* 1788), was the son of James Edward Stuart, and Clementina, granddaughter of John Sobieski, King of Poland. He was born at Rome. His education was very much neglected. He became of political importance on the renewal of the hostility between England and France after the fall of Walpole. Cardinal Tencin, the French minister, was in favour of an invasion of England, and in 1743 Charles came to Paris. Louis XV., although he refused to see him, was not unfriendly to his cause; 15,000 veterans under Marshal Saxe were stationed at Dunkirk, while fleets were collected at Brest and Toulon. But the French admiral, Roquefeuille, feared to attack the English under Sir John Norris; his ships were dispersed by a storm, and the French ministry abandoning the design, appointed Saxe to command in Flanders. The Pretender retired to Paris, whence he communicated with his Scotch adherents through Murray of Broughton. The results of the battle of Fontenoy (1745) caused him to hasten his plans. He embarked at Nantes (1745) in a privateer, attended by a French man-of-war, but the latter vessel was attacked and disabled by an English ship, so that Charles arrived in Scotland stripped of supplies, and with only seven companions. [Jacobites.] After the battle of Culloden Charles fled, and succeeded, after five months' wanderings in the Hebrides, in escaping to France. He owed his life to Flora Macdonald. On his return to Paris he found that no more help was to be expected from the French court. On one occasion Tencin proposed that he should be supplied with French troops on condition that in the event of his success, Ireland should be given to Louis. Charles replied, "Non, M. le Cardinal, tout ou rien, point de partage." In 1747 he went to Spain, and in 1748 to Prussia, to try and get assistance, but without success. He quarrelled with his father and brother when the latter became a cardinal. He was compelled to leave France by the conditions of the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, but he obstinately refused to go, and was imprisoned. He resided chiefly after this with his friend, the Duc de Bouillon, in the forest of Ardennes. In 1750, and perhaps in 1753, he paid mysterious visits to England. On the death of his father he repaired to Rome. His character had become degraded; his former chivalrous promise had quite vanished, he was a confirmed drunkard, and his friends were alienated by his refusal to dismiss his mistress, Miss Walkinshaw, who it was said betrayed his plans. In 1772 he married Princess Louisa of Stolberg, a girl of twenty, but the union was unhappy, and she eloped with Alfieri. His adherents had sent him proposals that year of setting up his standard in America. "The abilities of Prince Charles," says Lord Stanhope, "I may observe, stood in direct contrast to his father's. No man could express himself with more clearness and elegance than James . . .

but on the other hand his conduct was always deficient in energy and enterprise. Charles was no penman; while in action, he was superior. His quick intelligence, his promptness of decision, his contempt of danger, are recorded on unquestionable testimony. Another quality of Charles's mind was great firmness of resolution, which pride and sorrow afterwards hardened into sullen obstinacy."

Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; Lecky, *Hist. of the Eighteenth Century*; Horace Walpole, *Reign of George II.*; Ewald, *Life of Prince Charles Edward*; Vernon Lee, *The Countess of Albany*.

Stuart, James Edward, known as the Old Pretender (*b.* 1688, *d.* 1765), was the son of King James II. and Mary of Modena. It was generally believed at the time that he was a supposititious child; but without just cause. When James II. contemplated flight, the child was conveyed to France by Lauzun. In 1701, at his father's deathbed, he was acknowledged by Louis XIV., who undertook to uphold his claims. In 1708 Louis fitted out an expedition against this country. But James, who was to have accompanied it, was taken ill of the measles, and the expedition failed completely. He then joined the French army, and was present at the battle of Oudenarde. On the fall of the Whigs his prospects considerably improved. In 1711 Harley opened negotiations for peace with the French court through the Abbé Gautier, who was also a Jacobite agent. In 1712 James ventured to write to his sister Anne. On the conclusion of the Peace of Utrecht, he was compelled to leave France, and removed to Bar in Lorraine. During this period it was constantly urged upon him that he should change his religion, but he distinctly refused to do so. In June 23, 1714, proclamations against him were issued by both Houses of Parliament. On receiving the news of the death of Anne, he went from Bar-le-Duc to Plombières, where he issued a proclamation claiming the crown, and from thence to Commercy. With Bolingbroke as Secretary of State, the Pretender's schemes seemed to have a chance of success. It was hoped that Louis might be induced to break the peace; the Jacobites in England were supposed to be eager to rise. But the flight of Ormonde from England was followed by the death of Louis XIV. Despite Bolingbroke's advice Mar rose in Scotland. [Jacobites.] It was not until Mar's expedition was doomed to failure that James arrived in Scotland. He went to Scone, where he assumed the style of royalty. But it was evident that he lacked all energy. Argyle advanced on Perth, James and Mar withdrew before him, and, deserting their followers, secretly fled to France. On his return James most unjustly laid the blame of the failure on Bolingbroke, and dismissed him. His place was taken by Mar. In 1717 Charles XII. of Sweden, and the Spanish minister Alberoni, resolved to bring about a Stuart restoration. But their plans failed. Soon afterwards the Regent of France was compelled by the English government to expel James from the French dominions. He went to Rome (1717). He was betrothed to Clementina, granddaughter of John Sobieski, King of Poland; but on her way to Rome, she was arrested by the Emperor, and detained prisoner. In 1719 Alberoni fitted out an expedition against England. The Pretender was invited to Spain, and there publicly received. The expedition under Ormonde was scattered in the Bay of Biscay. This year Princess Sobieski escaped from Austria, and went to Italy, where she married the Pretender. In 1720 Charles Edward was born. In 1722 Atterbury's plot seemed for a short period likely to succeed. James sent an extraordinary declaration from Lucca, offering to allow George II. the succession to the throne, and the title of King of Hanover, if he would quietly surrender the English crown. In 1728 an unsuccessful attempt to incite a rebellion in the Highlands was made by Allan Cameron. James had quarrelled with Mar, and now had as a favourite Colonel Hay, who was made Secretary of State and Earl of Inverness. Clementina, jealous of Inverness, left her husband, which alienated the Emperor and Spain from him. On the death of George I. he repaired to Lorraine full of hopes. They were soon dashed to the ground, and the French government were compelled to send him from France. He returned to Italy and was reconciled to his wife, who died in 1735. He now took as his adviser James Murray, Inverness's brother-in-law, whom he created Earl of Dunbar. On the breaking out of war between England and France (1740) the Jacobite hopes revived. An association of seven was formed in Scotland; the English Jacobites were roused; the French minister was friendly to his cause. The ultimate result of these intrigues was the Young Pretender's expedition in 1745. James Edward now ceased to exercise any real influence. He quarrelled with his son in 1747. James had fair abilities, but was thoroughly selfish, faithless, and licentious.

Jesse, *Memoirs of the Pretender*; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; Lecky, *Hist. of the Eighteenth Century*.

Stubbe, Thomas, a Puritan lawyer, and brother-in-law of Cartwright, wrote in 1579 a pamphlet against the proposed marriage of Elizabeth with the Duke of Anjou. For this he was sentenced to have his right hand cut off; and on the infliction of the penalty is said to have waved his hat in his left hand, crying, "Long live Queen Elizabeth!" This story is, however, doubtful. Stubbe was in 1587 employed by Burleigh to answer the libels of Cardinal Allen. In 1588 he was elected M.P. for Yarmouth.

Stubbs, Thomas (*d.* 1373), a Dominican, wrote a chronicle of the Archbishops

of York, which contains much valuable historical matter. It has been printed by Twysden.

Stukeley, Sir Thomas (*d.* 1578), an adherent of the Protector Somerset, was implicated in the rebellion of Sir Thomas Wyatt (1554), and was compelled to leave England, subsequently becoming a noted pirate or privateer. He afterwards went to Ireland and acquired considerable possessions there. In 1570 he betook himself to Spain, and entered into negotiations with Philip, declaring that his influence was sufficient to procure an easy conquest of Ireland; but the contemplated invasion came to nothing. A few years later Stukeley again projected an attack on Ireland, but this time with papal aid; he was killed, however, on his way at Alcazar in battle with the Moors.

Subinfeudation was the process of creating inferior feudal obligations by the lord of a fief. For example, a lord who held an estate of the crown, would grant part of it to a sub-tenant of his own, who would henceforward stand in an analogous relation to him to that in which he stood to his lord. Very often the process of subinfeudation went so far that the nominal holder of a fief had not enough left in his own hands to perform the services required of him. Fraudulent acts of this type were not uncommon. At last the statute *Quia Emptores* (July, 1290) practically abolished future cases of subinfeudation by enacting that in future transfers of land, the purchaser should not enter into feudal relations of dependence with the alienor, but should stand to the lord of the fief in the same relation in which the alienor had himself stood. [Feudalism.]

Submission of the Clergy, The, was an agreement forced upon the Convocation of Canterbury by Henry VIII. in 1532, that no new canons should be enacted without the king's sanction, and that a review of the existing canons should be made, and all disapproved of struck out. In 1534 this submission was embodied in an Act of Parliament called the Statute of the Submission of the Clergy (25 Hen. VIII., c. 19), which moreover gave the king power to summon Convocation by his own writ, annul all done without his licence, and to appoint commissioners to review the canon law. The exact significance of these Acts was fiercely debated during the stormy period that preceded the virtual suspension of Convocation in 1717.

Subsidy, a Parliamentary grant to the crown, acquired during the sixteenth century a fixed and technical sense. The custom of granting a round sum of money which had grown up since the days of Edward IV., became in the reign of Mary stereotyped. Henceforth a subsidy meant a tax of 4s. in the pound for lands, and 2s. 8d. for goods from Englishmen, and of double that sum from aliens; in all amounting to £70,000. Besides this a special subsidy of £20,000 was levied on the clergy. From this date, a Parliament granted one or two or more subsidies. The *Subsidy Rolls* give an account of how the taxes were raised.

Sudbury, Simon of, Archbishop of Canterbury (1375—1381), was born at Sudbury, studied canon law at Paris, and became attached to the Papal Curia. He also attached himself to John of Gaunt. In 1360 he was made Chancellor of Salisbury, and in 1362 Bishop of London. He took part in several embassies. He incurred unpopularity by his enlightened aversion to pilgrimages. In 1375 he was made Archbishop of Canterbury. He was murdered in 1381 by the insurgent peasantry when they took possession of the Tower.

Hook, *Archbishops of Canterbury.*

Sudoosain, The Battle of (July 1, 1848), was fought during the second Sikh War. After Kineyree, Lieutenant Edwardes was reinforced by 4,000 men from Cashmere. Moolraj, alarmed at the growing power of his opponents, drew together his whole force, which had been augmented by 11,000 deserters, and attacked them near Sudoosain. The battle began with a furious cannonade, which lasted several hours, but at last a brilliant charge by one of Colonel Cortland's regiments broke the ranks of the Sikhs. Moolraj fled, and was followed by his whole army to Mooltan.

Sudreys, The (*Sudreyjar*), was a name given by the Norwegians to the Hebrides, or Western Islands, in contradistinction to the Orkneys or Norderies. Some authorities say that the Western Islands themselves were divided into the Norderies and Suderies, the point of division being Ardnamurchan. Peopled by a Gaelic race, the Western Isles were early ravaged by the Danes, and in the ninth century colonised by Norwegians, who made themselves the lords of the original inhabitants, though the islands preserved more Celtic than Norse characteristics. There were frequent contests for the possession of the Western Isles between the Norwegian jarls of Orkney and the Danish kings of Dublin about 1070. A new Norwegian dynasty was founded in these isles by the Viking, Godred Crovan. In 1154 a division of the islands was made, those south of Ardnamurchan Point becoming the territory of Somerlaed of Argyle. In 1222 Argyle was absorbed into Scotland proper, and in July, 1266, the rest of the Western Isles were ceded to Alexander III. on consideration of the payment of a sum of money. The name is still preserved in the designation of the Manx bishop, as Bishop of Sodor and Man, though none of the Southern Islands have for many centuries been included in his diocese.

Skene, *Celtic Scotland*; Munch, *Chronicon Regum Manniæ.*

Suetonius Paulinus was Roman commander in Britain from 59 to 62. His first action was the reduction of the island of Mona (Anglesey), the chief seat of Druidism. From this he was recalled by the news of the revolt of the Iceni, under Boadicea, the capture of Verulamium, Camulodunum, and other ports, and the slaughter of the Romans and their allies. After a tedious campaign, Suetonius gained a decisive victory over the Britons near London; but his harshness having greatly conduced to the rebellion, he was, despite his ultimate success, recalled in the year 62.

Tacitus, *Vita Agricolæ.*

Suffolk, Charles Brandon, Duke of (*d.* 1545), a general and courtier of the reign of Henry VIII. As a commander his success in an expedition against France was but indifferent, but as an exponent of chivalry he was without rival. His marriage to Mary, Henry's sister, very soon after the death of her first husband, Louis XII., was with Henry's consent, and their issue were preferred in the king's will to those of his elder sister, Margaret of Scotland.

Suffolk, Edmund de la Pole, Duke of (*d.* 1513), was the son of John de la Pole, Duke of Suffolk, by Elizabeth, eldest sister of Edward IV. For consenting to take service under Henry VII. he was created Earl of Suffolk, and allowed to redeem a portion of the estates of his father. A few years later he was guilty of homicide, and resenting the notion of being tried for the crime as a deadly insult, he fled to Flanders, and entered into active relations with the Dowager Duchess of Burgundy. Henry, however, persuaded him to return, but in the following year he again fled to Flanders, this time with a view of restoring his broken fortunes by some private enterprise. On the shipwreck of the Archduke Philip in Jan., 1506, Henry did not hesitate to insist upon his surrender as a main article of the treaty he then extorted from Philip. He was at once committed to the Tower, from which he did not emerge again till the day of his execution in 1513. It is supposed that his execution at this date was chiefly due to Henry VIII.'s anger at his brother, Richard de la Pole, entering the service of France.

Bacon, *Life of Henry VII.*

Suffolk, Henrietta, Countess of (*b. circa* 1688, *d.* 1767), was the supposed mistress of George II. She was the daughter of Sir Henry Hobart, and married a Mr. Howard, who afterwards succeeded to the earldom of Suffolk. When her husband tried to remove her from the household of Caroline, then Princess of Wales, the latter protected her. "Queen Caroline," says Stanhope, "used to call her in banter her sister Howard, and was pleased to employ her at her toilet, or in menial offices about her person. Lady Suffolk was placid, good-natured, and kind-hearted, but very deaf, and not remarkable for wit. Though the king passed half his time in her company, her influence was quite subordinate to that of the queen." She entertained a strong regard for Swift and Pope, and was courted by the Opposition partly in the mistaken expectation of gaining the royal ear, partly from real regard for her amiable character. After her withdrawal from court in 1734, she married the Hon. George Berkeley.

Horvey, *Memoirs* and the *Letters of the Countess of Suffolk*, both edited by Croker.

Suffolk, Michael de la Pole, Earl of (*d.* 1389), was the son of William de la Pole, a Hull merchant, who had risen to be a baron of the Exchequer. He early succeeded in ingratiating himself with Richard II., and in 1383 was created Chancellor. He was extremely unpopular with the barons, and the misgovernment of the kingdom was in great measure attributed to him. He was made Earl of Suffolk in 1385, and this still further increased his unpopularity, so that in 1386 the king was obliged to remove him from the chancellorship, and the Commons drew up articles of impeachment against him. The charges preferred were for the most part frivolous, but his condemnation was determined on, and he was sentenced to imprisonment till he should ransom himself according to the king's pleasure. After the dissolution of Parliament an attempt was made by the king and his friends to annul their decisions, but the barons were too powerful for them, and finding resistance of no avail, De la Pole fled in 1388 to France, where he died in the following year.

Suffolk, Thomas Howard, Earl of (*d.* 1626), son of Thomas, fourth Duke of Norfolk, was one of the volunteers who assisted in attacking the Spanish Armada off Calais. In 1591 he was in command of the fleet which attacked the Spanish treasure ships off the Azores, when Sir Richard Grenville was killed, and in 1596 was second in command of the fleet during the expedition to Cadiz. In the following year he accompanied Essex in his disastrous attempt on the Azores. On his return home he was created Lord Howard de Walden, and in 1603 Earl of Suffolk. In 1604 he was appointed one of the commissioners for executing the office of Earl Marshal, and was mainly instrumental in the discovery of the Gunpowder Plot. In 1614 Lord Suffolk was created Lord High Treasurer of England, but was deprived of his office four years later.

Suffolk, William de la Pole, Earl and Duke of (*b.* 1396, *d.* 1450), grandson of Michael de la Pole, served with distinction in the French wars, and took part in the battle of Verneuil, and the siege of Orleans. He was one of the ambassadors at the Congress of

Arras in 1435, and was the chief promoter of the marriage of Henry VI. with Margaret of Anjou, for arranging which he received a marquisate in 1445, and four years later he was made a duke. From 1445 he was practically prime minister of England, and was strongly inclined towards a peace policy, which brought great odium upon him, while the terms of the marriage treaty which he had negotiated were greatly in favour of France, Anjou and Maine being ceded to King Réné, the father of Margaret. Suffolk's great rival was the Duke of Gloucester, whom he accused to the king of treachery. Gloucester was arrested, and his suspicious death shortly afterwards was popularly attributed to Suffolk. Suffolk's administration was extremely unfortunate; abroad disaster followed disaster, while at home taxation was heavy, and misery and desolation prevailed. The popular anger against Suffolk culminated in 1449. The Commons brought grave charges against him. He was accused of gross mismanagement and treachery in France, of wishing to marry his son to Margaret Beaufort, and thereby of getting the crown for his descendants, and of appropriating and misusing the royal revenue. Suffolk, while denying the charges, placed himself at the king's disposal, who, without declaring his guilt or innocence, banished him from the realm for five years. It would seem that Suffolk assented to this rather than inculpate the king and the Council by awaiting his trial at the hands of the Lords. On his way to Flanders he was seized by the crew of a ship sent in pursuit of him, and put to death by them as a traitor. He married Alice, daughter and heiress of Thomas Chaucer.

Brougham, *Eng. under the House of Lancaster*; Gairdner, Introd. to *Paston Letters*.

Sunderland, Charles Spencer, 3rd Earl of (*b.* 1674, *d.* 1722), in 1698 married Anne, daughter of the Duke of Marlborough. He quarrelled with his father-in-law (1702). In 1705 he was sent as envoy extraordinary to Vienna. The Whigs were anxious that he should be admitted to office, as they hoped thereby to draw Marlborough over to their side. The queen disliked him for his impetuosity of temper. However, Godolphin's threats of resignation, and the prayers of Marlborough, induced her to create him Secretary of State (1706). In 1710 he foolishly advised Sacheverell's impeachment, and was therefore to a great extent the cause of his party's overthrow. On the accession of George I. he was much disgusted at being appointed Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, a post he imagined to be inferior to his merits. He began to cabal with the seceders from the Whigs against Townshend and Walpole. In 1716 he went to Hanover, where he gained the ear of George I. and Stanhope. He accused Walpole and Townshend of questionable dealings with the Duke of Argyle. George was opposed to Townshend for his opposition to his German plans, and dismissed him; Walpole followed his brother-in-law out of office. Sunderland became Secretary of State, and subsequently exchanged offices with Stanhope. The ministry was strong; and in 1719 Walpole and Townshend finding opposition useless formed a coalition with him. The defeat of the government on the Peerage Bill, suggested by Sunderland in order to thwart the future king, had done them but little harm. In 1720 came universal distress owing to the bursting of the South Sea Bubble. The original scheme had been laid before Sunderland, and therefore it was chiefly on him that odium fell. He was accused of having received £50,000 stock as a present. He was most probably guiltless; indeed it is said that he had lost heavily by the transactions of the company. He was declared innocent by the Lords; but the popular indignation was so great that he was forced to resign. During the last year of his life he is said to have intrigued with the Pretender. "Lord Spencer," says Coxe, "in person was highly favoured by nature, and no less liberally gifted with intellectual endowments. In him a bold and impetuous spirit was concealed under a cold and reserved exterior. He was a zealous champion of the Whig doctrines in the most enlarged sense. Associating with the remnant of the Republicans who had survived the Commonwealth, he caught their spirit. His political idol was Lord Somers, although he wanted both the prudence and temper of so distinguished a leader."

Boyer, *Annals*; Coxe, *Marlborough* and *Walpole*; Stanhope, *Reign of Queen Anne*; Wyon, *Reign of Queen Anne*.

Sunderland, Robert Spencer, 2nd Earl of (*b.* 1641, *d.* 1702), was in his earlier career a supporter of the Exclusion Bill, and of the Prince of Orange. But a singularly ambitious and self-seeking disposition made him never hesitate to change his side when it was likely to be unprosperous. He became a strong Tory, the leading minister of James II., and ultimately, though quite destitute of religious convictions, professed his conversion to Catholicism. James found in him a subtle and accommodating minister of very great ability, and quite without scruples. The Revolution of 1688 drove him into exile; but in a few years he returned, and managed to insinuate himself into William III.'s favour. He was William's adviser in forming a Whig ministry, and was made one of the Lords Justices in 1697.

Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*

Supplicants, The, was the name assumed (1637) by those persons in Scotland who petitioned or "supplicated" against the introduction of Laud's *Service Book*, and the *Book of Canons*. The Supplicants were so numerous and strong that on the presentation

of the Great Supplication (which embraced charges against the *Service Book*, the *Book of Canons*, the bishops, and the government), the Privy Council found it necessary to authorise the election of delegates from the Supplicants to confer with the executive: these delegates were called "The Tables." In 1638 the Supplicants signed the Covenant, and thenceforward became known by the name of Covenanters.

Supremacy, Acts of. (1) 26 Hen. VIII., c. 1, embodied the recognition of Convocation, and enacted "that the king shall be taken, accepted, and reputed the only supreme head on earth of the Church of England," and that he shall have "full power to visit, repress, redress, reform, restrain, and amend all heresies, errors, and enormities, which by any manner of spiritual jurisdiction ought lawfully to be reformed." (2) 26 Hen. VIII., c. 13, or the Treason Act, made it high treason "to imagine or practise any harm to the king, or deprive him of any of his dignities and titles." Under this Act More and Fisher suffered. (3) Elizabeth's first Act "restoring to the crown the ancient jurisdiction over the state ecclesiastical," and empowering her to visit, reform, and amend errors, heresies, and schisms as in Henry VIII.'s Act. But some limitations were secured in the clause that nothing was to be judged as heresy but what was proved so out of the Bible, the canons of the four general councils, or what Convocation and Parliament should judge to be so. Elizabeth was also declared no longer "supreme head," but "supreme governor" of the Church. (4) In 1563 a more stringent Act of Supremacy was passed, with sterner penalties, and further obligations in new classes to take the oath of supremacy. By all the above Acts the *oath of supremacy* was enforced.

Supremacy, The Royal, was in its earlier forms merely the necessary result of the *imperial* rights of the English crown. Even as against the Church, which in mediæval times was in a sense a state within the state, there are many mediæval examples of the exercise of the royal supremacy. The Customs of William I., preserved by Eadmer, the Constitutions of Clarendon, the Statutes of Provisors and Præmunire all embodied the principle. But Henry VIII. brought out the principle with a new clearness in his definite claim to be "in all causes and over all persons as well ecclesiastical as civil supreme." Admitted with reservation by Convocation, and enforced by Acts of Parliament, this newly-formulated doctrine soon proved incompatible with the power of the papacy, and even with the independence of the English Church. Henry VIII.'s interpretation of the supremacy hardly put him in an inferior position to German princes whom the Reformation made *summi episcopi* of their dominions. Under it Cromwell received his extraordinary commission. Through it Somerset and Northumberland revolutionised the Church. Never abandoned even by Mary, it was asserted in a new and less insidious form by Elizabeth, and has ever since been part of the prerogatives of the English crown.

Surajah Dowlah was grandson of Aliverdy Khan, and succeeded him in 1756. He perpetrated the abominable crime of the Black Hole; was beaten by Clive at Plassey, whence he fled, but was recaptured, brought back, and put ignominiously to death by Meer Jaffier's son (1757).

Surat is a town in the Konkan, in India, situated near the mouth of the Tapti. It was the port to Persia, and one of the largest cities in India. It was originally the chief English factory on the west coast. The Guicowar and the Peishwa both had claims on it, but in 1800, in consequence of the misgovernment of the Nabob, Lord Wellesley ordered it to be annexed. The Guicowar was easily persuaded to surrender his claim, and in 1802 by the Treaty of Bassein the Peishwa consented also.

Surat, The Treaty of (March 6, 1775), was concluded between the Bombay Presidency, without the authority of Calcutta, and Ragoba, a deposed Peishwa. Its stipulations were that the Bombay government should furnish Ragoba with 3,000 British troops; and that in return Ragoba should pay eighteen lacs of rupees a year, should make an assignment to the value of nineteen lacs, and should cede Salsette and Bassein.

Surgee Anjengaom, The Treaty of (1) (Dec. 4, 1803), concluded between the Company and Dowlut Rao Scindia. Its stipulations were, the cession of all his territories lying between the Jumna and the Ganges, and north of the Rajpoot kingdoms of Jeypoor and Joudhpoor, the fortress and territory of Ahmednugger in the Deccan, and Baroach, with its dependencies in Guzerat; the relinquishment of all claims on the Nizam, Peishwa, Guicowar, and British government; the recognition of the independence of all the British allies in Hindostan. (2) (Nov. 23, 1805), concluded between the Company and Dowlut Rao Scindia. Its stipulations were that all the provisions of the first treaty which were not modified by the new arrangement were to remain in force; that Golind and Gwalior were to be restored to him as a matter of friendship, on his engaging to assign three lacs of rupees from the revenues to the Rana. Pensions which had been granted to different officers of his court were relinquished, and annuities were settled on himself, his wife, his daughter. The Chumbul was to form the boundary of the two states, but the British government

engaged to enter into no treaties with the Rajahs of Oodypore, Joudhpoor, and other chiefs, the tributaries of Scindia in Mewar, Marwar, or Malwa, and Scindia agreed never to admit Shirgee Rao Ghatkay into his counsels.

Surrey, Henry Howard, Earl of (*b.* 1516, *d.* 1547), was the son of Thomas Howard, third Duke of Norfolk. A promising scholar and soldier, and a poet of considerable power, his career was brought to a premature close through Henry VIII.'s jealous interpretation of some indiscreet assumptions of royal arms and titles and references to his relationship to royalty, at a time when the king began to reject again the counsels of the conservative Anglicans, of whom Norfolk and Surrey were the chief. Though barely thirty years of age at his death, the young earl had distinguished himself in some of the Scotch and French campaigns, besides winning fame as a poet of real if limited powers. For a short period he was entrusted with the governorship of Henry's French conquest, Boulogne, but his defeat before the city in 1546 led to his being superseded in his command, and to his engaging in a quarrel with his successor at Boulogne, Lord Hertford, which was one main cause of his incurring the king's displeasure. Accused, at the instance of Hertford, of treason, he was condemned, and executed (Jan. 21, 1547). The Earl of Surrey was the brother-in-law and frequent companion of Henry's natural son, the Duke of Richmond.

Susa, The Peace of (April 14, 1629), was made between England and France, through the mediation of the Venetian ambassador, Contarini, and largely through the good offices of Queen Henrietta Maria. It tacitly recognised the principle that each king was free to settle his dealings with his own subjects as he thought fit.

S. R. Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng., 1603—1642*, vol. vii.

Suspending Power, The, was the royal claim to suspend altogether the operation of any statute which was found contrary to the well-being of the state. Like the analogous Dispensing Power (q.v.) it arose from the necessity in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries of combining with friendship with the Pope the maintenance of the Acts of Provisors and Præmunire. Abused by the Stuarts, especially by Charles II.'s and James II.'s Declarations of Toleration, which suspended many statutes, and stretched to the uttermost by James II.'s suspensions of the Test Act and others, this power was finally declared illegal in the Bill of Rights.

Sussex, Kingdom of. The first Saxon attack upon Britain after the conquest of Kent by the Jutes, was that under Ælla, and his three sons (one of whom, Cissa, has given his name to Chichester). Landing with a small force at Selsey in 477, the South Saxons slowly fought their way eastward, conquering the strip of land between the Andredes-weald and the Channel, until in 491 they reached Anderida. After a desperate struggle the fortress was taken, and "all that were therein slain." But they were unable to advance further, for immediately to the east of Anderida a dense forest belt came down to the sea and barred further progress. The kingdom of Sussex was always one of the least important of the English powers. It fell under the overlordship of Ethelbert of Kent, and after a period of independence, under the rule of Wulfhere of Mercia. Hitherto it had remained heathen, but in 661 its king, Æthelwalch, was baptised in Wulfhere's presence, and at the same time the overlord added to his dominions the Isle of Wight, and the lands of the Meonwara along Southampton Water. But the mass of the people were still heathen, and in 678—83 Wilfred occupied his enforced leisure among them in bringing about their conversion. In 685 Ceadwalla brought Sussex under West Saxon supremacy, and from this time it ceases to have any separate history.

Bede, *Hist. Eccles.*; Henry of Huntingdon; Green, *Making of England*; Lappenberg, *Anglo-Saxon Kings.* [W. J. A.]

Sussex, Kings of. Besides Ælla who, after founding the kingdom of Sussex, probably assisted the Gewissas, and is therefore mentioned by Bede as the first English prince who held an *imperium* or *ducatus*, *i.e.*, war-leadership (*v.* Green, *Making of England*, 308), few of the South Saxon princes were of importance. Æthelwalch, the first Christian king, and his successor, Eadric, fell in battle against Ceadwalla of Wessex. Lappenberg (*England under Anglo-Saxon Kings*, ed. 1881, i., p. 313) mentions also the names of Huna, Numa or Nunna, Nothelm and Wattus, as ruling under Ine, and of Osmund, Æthelberht, and Sigeberht as later princes.

Sussex, Thomas Radcliffe, 3rd Earl of (*d.* 1583), though inclined to Catholicism, was the faithful and honourable counsellor and affectionate kinsman of Elizabeth. He was made, on his father's death in 1557, Lord Deputy of Ireland, where he distinguished himself by his energetic government. He became an active servant of Elizabeth, and on his recall from Ireland (1567), where he had quarrelled with Sir Henry Sidney, was sent to Vienna to try to arrange the conditions of the queen's marriage with the archduke. On his return to England he became President of the Council of the North, and was one of the commissioners at York for the inquiry into the Darnley murder. Sussex afterwards advocated the marriage of the Scottish queen with the Duke of Norfolk, and on that account was supposed by the confederate earls to be favourable to their cause. He remained loyal, however, and as President of the North took

part in suppressing the rebellion of 1569, though he incurred the charge of lack of energy. He was one of the few peers who were in favour of the Alençon marriage, and in his capacity as Lord Chamberlain seems to have exercised a good deal of influence at court. Sussex was a man of blunt and straightforward character, a good soldier, but not much of a courtier.

Suttee was the Hindoo custom of burning the live widow with the dead husband. It was practised for twenty centuries, and is supposed to be of religious origin, but was really grafted on the original Hindoo law, owing to the unwillingness among the Brahmins that the widow should acquire her settled property, and celebrate the funeral rites of her husband. The English were at first afraid to interfere, fearing that it would create a religious excitement against the English rule. Lord William Bentinck, however, determined to abolish this custom, and in 1830 passed a regulation which declared the practice of suttee illegal, and punishable by the criminal courts as culpable homicide. Not the slightest feeling of alarm or resentment was exhibited. A few attempts at suttee were prevented by the police, and now the practice is a matter of history.

Sveaborg, The Bombardment of (1855), took place during the war with Russia. The second Baltic expedition, under Admiral Dundas, addressed itself to the bombardment of Sveaborg. On the morning of Aug. 9 the bombardment was opened. Shot, shell, and rockets rained into the fortress from our gun and mortar boats, and the batteries which the French had established on one of the many neighbouring islands. The bombardment was continued with little intermission till four o'clock on the morning of the 11th, by which time it was computed that no less than one thousand tons of shot and shell had been thrown into the place by the English alone. Finding the destruction of the stores and arsenals, and every building of importance to be complete, the admiral resolved to make no further attempt on the fortifications themselves, as this must have cost many lives.

Swainmote was the court of the freemen of the forest. As the forest jurisdictions were arranged on the model of the ordinary shire jurisdictions, its organisation was analogous to that of the shire or hundred court. Swain is an equivalent of freeholder (*libere tenens*).

Sweating Sickness, The, was the name given to a most destructive malady which ravaged Europe, and more particularly England, during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. Beginning in the form of a violent fever, accompanied by a profuse fœtid perspiration, it speedily reduced its victims to a state of utter helplessness and prostration, a few hours only sufficing, as a general rule, to transform a healthy, vigorous man into a loathsome corpse. The mortality caused by a plague of this mysterious and deadly character was enormously great, and in England, where its effects were more severely felt than in any other part of Europe, it resulted, according to Stowe, in a marked depopulation of the kingdom. The first appearance of the "sweating sickness" in England was in Aug., 1485, when, breaking out seemingly among Henry VII.'s troops at Milford Haven, it spread with fatal rapidity to London. Here, and generally, the plague raged furiously till about the end of October, when its force began to abate, till eventually on New Year's Day, 1486, all traces of it disappeared. In July, 1517, it again broke out among the people, and ran a violent course of six months. In May, 1528, its ravages brought about an almost total suspension of business. On this occasion the plague lasted on till July, 1529. Its next appearance was in April, 1551, when it destroyed in the space of a few days nine hundred and sixty of the inhabitants of Shrewsbury, whence it spread rapidly. It again took its departure in September, and with the exception of a short interval in 1575, when the sickness caused a vast number of deaths, principally in Oxford, we have no record of any subsequent renewal of the visitation. A remarkable circumstance connected with the "sweating sickness" was the comparative freedom which foreign residents in England enjoyed from its effects; upon the native-born population alone, for the most part, and chiefly on the upper classes among them, did the sickness exercise its deadly influence. Hence it has been supposed that the malady was largely due to the immoderate indulgence in beer so common among all classes of English people in the days of the Tudors.

Bacon, *Hist. of Henry VII.*; Chambers, *Book of Days*; Creighton, *Epidemics of the Middle Ages.*

Sweden, Relations with. There were practically no dealings between England and Sweden during the Middle Ages. Gustavus Wasa at last freed the merchants of Sweden from the commercial yoke of the Lübeckers, as he had previously freed the country from the political yoke of Denmark. And in 1551 a commercial treaty between England and Sweden marks the beginning of a trade that ultimately became important. The general leaning of Sweden to France, however, made really cordial political intercourse impossible. Half-mad King Eric's proposal to marry Queen Elizabeth (1560) must not be taken too seriously. Charles IX. sought in 1599 the alliance of Elizabeth and her mediation between Sweden and Denmark. Gustavus Adolphus welcomed Scottish settlers into his new commercial town of Gothenburg. But the weak and uncertain policy of James I. and Charles I. determined Gustavus not to embroil himself in the Thirty Years' War

until he had found in Richelieu a stronger ally than the English kings. Though many English served in his army, and English subsidies and troops were slowly doled out to him he found no substantial help from England, and both his opposition to an unconditional restoration of the Elector Palatine and Charles I.'s desire that Germany should be freed from foreign conquerors, prevented any close relations between the two parties. Towards the end of Christina's reign, England and Sweden drew nearer together, as is shown by Whitelocke's famous embassy in 1654, the treaty of amity concluded by him, and Christina's acceptance of Cromwell's portrait. Though Charles X. was generally supported by England in his Danish war, his unexampled success necessitated the union of England and Holland to force on him a peace which would prevent his obtaining the exclusive possession of the Sound. A common corruption and dependence on France united England and Sweden under the minority of Charles XI. In 1667 both countries reversed their policy and united with Holland to check France by the Triple Alliance. This wise policy was, however, not pursued again until after 1680, when Charles XI. became master of his kingdom, and declared against France, an act which secured his friendship with the England of the Revolution. His last act was to mediate at the Congress of Ryswick (1697). But Sweden and England really belonged to very different political systems—a fact strongly illustrated by the very slight connection of Charles XII. and his northern wars with the War of the Spanish Succession raging just at the same time. Charles, however, found on his return from Bender that the Elector of Hanover had seized on his German duchies of Bremen and Verden; and his anxiety to recover these was one strong motive for his union with Peter of Russia and Alberoni against George I., and of his schemes to restore the Pretender. Hence England welcomed the oligarchical revolution, which, on his death, rendered Sweden powerless for nearly two generations. During these "Times of Freedom" the English and Russian ambassadors jointly bribed and intrigued to obtain the supremacy of the "Caps" over the "Hats," though events showed that the Swedish alliance was hardly worth its cost. Twice the ascendency of the French party involved Sweden in war, first against England and Russia in 1741—43, next against Prussia, the English ally during the Seven Years' War. The failure of each war restored the Caps to power. At last, in 1772, Gustavus III., with French help, got rid of the corrupt oligarchy of placemen that was almost a parody of the English Whig connection. His action was very much resented in England, and his share in the Armed Neutrality showed that he had become anti-English in policy.

But the abandonment by the younger Pitt of the old English policy of alliance with Russia, led to a change in our relations with Sweden, and Gustavus's vain attack on Russia (1788—90) was a welcome though ineffectual help to Pitt's plans. At the end of his reign Gustavus's fury against the French Revolution brought him into the coalition against France. But he was assassinated in 1792, and Gustavus IV., though in 1800 he joined the Armed Neutrality, in 1805 united with Pitt in the coalition against France. But after the Treaty of Tilsit, the Russians deprived him of Finland, and, having offended the English general of the forces sent to his assistance, he was compelled to resign his throne to his uncle Charles XIII., who sought by adopting a French marshal as his heir to appease the fury of Napoleon. Nevertheless the Crown Prince—as Bernadotte was now called—joined in the alliance which dethroned his old master in 1815. Since that period Sweden has had no very striking direct political dealings with England. Her commercial relations have for the last two centuries been of importance.

Geijer and Carlsson, *Geschichte von Schweden*; Whitelocke, *Swedish Embassy*; Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*; Geoffrin, *Gustave III.*; *Memoirs of Charles XIV.* Dunham, *Hist. of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark*; and Otte, *Scandinavian History*, are the only English histories of Sweden.

[T. F. T.]

Sweyn, King of Denmark (*d.* 1014), during the lifetime of his father, Harold Blaatand, threw off the Christianity which had been forced upon him, and distinguished himself as a Viking chief. In 982 he made a great expedition to England and destroyed Chester, Southampton, and London. Again, in 994, tho hopes of a fresh Danegeld brought him anew to England. In 1002 the murder of his sister in the massacre of St. Brice's Day, gave him a new motive of hostility. At last he succeeded to the Danish throne, and led a great national invasion of England with the object of effecting a permanent conquest. All the Danelagh submitted at once, and the flight of Ethelred to Normandy, and the submission of the West Saxons made him practically ruler of England (1013). But as he was never crowned, the chroniclers call him Sweyn the Tyrant. His death in the next year left the throne open to his greater son, Canute.

Freeman, *Norman Conquest.*

Sweyn was the eldest son of Godwin, and in 1043 was appointed to an earldom, which included the shires of Hereford, Gloucester, Oxford, Berks, and Somerset. We read of his wars with the Welsh, and in 1046, on his return from one of these expeditions, he abducted Eadgifu, Abbess of Leominster. Being forbidden to marry her, he threw up his earldom and retired to Denmark. In 1048 he made overtures to Edward for the

restoration of his earldom, which had been divided between Harold and Beorn, but his chances of pardon were destroyed by his treacherous murder of Beorn. Declared a *nithing* by the army, he escaped to Flanders, but in the next year he was restored to his possessions by Edward. In 1051 he was outlawed with his father, and once more retired to Flanders, but did not return with Godwin. "The blood of Beorn, the wrongs of Eadgifu lay heavy on his spirit," a pilgrimage to the Holy Land could alone expiate him for his crimes. Thither he went barefooted, and on his return "breathed his last in some unknown spot of the distant land of Lykia."

Freeman, *Norman Conquest*.

Swift, JONATHAN (*b.* 1667, *d.* 1745), was born at Dublin, and educated there at Trinity College. In 1688 he was received into the family of Sir William Temple, to whom he was related. In 1695 he was ordained, but soon resigned a small Irish living, and returned to reside with Temple. During his residence with Temple began his mysterious connection with Hester Johnson, the "Stella" of his Journal. In 1699, failing of promotion to an English living, Swift went to Ireland as chaplain to Lord Berkeley, and was scantily rewarded by receiving, not the deanery which he had expected, but the living of Laracor, in the county of Meath. Swift began his political career as a Whig. In 1704 he published the *Tale of a Tub*, a satire on the corruptions of early Christianity, and the results of the Reformation. The *Battle of the Books* (1704), on the literary dispute about the letters of Phalaris, added to his reputation. During Anne's reign he paid frequent and protracted visits to England, and became closely connected with the leading Tories. During the last five years of Queen Anne's reign he played a very prominent part in English politics as the leading political writer of the Tories, and the friend and confidant of their leaders. He was on terms of the closest intimacy both with Harley and Bolingbroke, and attempted to allay the quarrel between the rival statesmen. His pamphlet, *The Conduct of the Allies*, was of immense service to the Tory party; and in a paper called the *Examiner*, he upheld their course with zeal, and supplied the ministry with arguments. In 1713 he received the deanery of St. Patrick's, Dublin. There he is thought to have been secretly married to Stella. She died in 1728. On the death of Anne, the dean retired to Dublin a disappointed man. In 1724 he wrote the *Drapier Letters*, an attack on the monopoly to coin halfpence which had been granted to a man named Wood; and this was followed by several other tracts on Irish affairs in which the treatment of Ireland by the English government was satirised with unsurpassed power. In writing of Ireland Swift thought chiefly of the English colony in Ireland; but his writings made him the idol of the whole Irish people. In 1726 appeared his greatest work, *Gulliver's Travels*. It is a satire on mankind with contemporary allusions. Swift outlived his genius, and sank into idiotcy; the last years of his life were spent in almost complete mental darkness. Apart from his literary renown, Swift owes his position in history to the fact that in his writings we have the Tory view of politics in Queen Anne's reign set forth with the greatest literary skill. In Irish politics he is the typical representative of the Protestant ascendency in Ireland, whose attack on the English government prepared the way for Grattan and the Volunteers of 1779.

Swift's *Works*, edited by Scott, and republished 1883; Forster, *Life of Swift*, which was left unfinished; Craik, *Life of Swift*, 1882; Lecky, *Leaders of Public Opinion in Ireland*; Macaulay, *Essay on Sir William Temple*; Bolingbroke, *Correspondence*.

Swing, CAPTAIN. During the agricultural outrages of the year 1830, which had their origin in the increased use of machinery for agricultural purposes, threatening letters were frequently sent to those proprietors who made use of machinery, ordering them to refrain from doing so, and threatening notices were affixed to gates and barns. These letters and notices were usually signed "Captain Swing," much as Irish threatening letters are signed "Rory of the Hills." This nickname was used in order to identify the various documents with the same movement.

Swinton, SIR JOHN, was a Scottish knight who fought with great gallantry at the battle of Homildon Hill. He crossed over to the aid of France with the Earl of Buchan, and was present at the battle of Beaugé (1421), where he unhorsed the Duke of Clarence. In 1424 he was killed at Verneuil.

Swithin (SWITHUN), ST. (*d.* 862), was a monk of Winchester, of which see he became bishop in 852. He was one of the chief ministers of Egbert and Ethelwulf, and one of the instructors of Alfred, whom he accompanied on his journey to Rome. It is said to have been at his suggestion that Ethelwulf bestowed on the Church the tenth part of his lands.

Swordsmen was the name given to the able-bodied Irish who, in 1652 were allowed to leave their country and enlist abroad. Some 30,000 or 40,000 are said to have availed themselves of this permission. At first this was only a private arrangement between the Irish leaders and the Puritan generals to whom they surrendered. But Parliament legalised their capitulations by a special Act; at the same time banishing all officers, while allowing them to enlist more recruits. Spain, France, Austria, and Venice

took advantage of this opportunity for strengthening their forces.

Froude, *English in Ireland*; Lecky, *Hist. of Eng.*

Swynford, Catherine (*d.* 1403), successively governess, mistress, and third wife to John of Gaunt, was the daughter of Sir Paon de Rolt, and widow of Sir Hugh Swynford. From her are descended the Beauforts, and consequently Henry VII. Her marriage with John of Gaunt took place in 1396, but all her children were born previously.

Sydenham, Charles William Poulett Thomson, Lord (*b.* 1793, *d.* 1841), was a merchant, who first represented Dover (1826 to 1830), and then Manchester, in the House of Commons. In 1830 he entered Earl Grey's Reform administration as Vice-President of the Board of Trade and Treasurer of the Navy. In July, 1834, he became President of the Board of Trade and resigned with Lord Melbourne's ministry in November following. In April, 1835, he resumed that office until he was selected to replace Lord Durham in Canada. As a cabinet minister his efforts were directed to amendment of the Custom Laws and extension of our foreign trade by a more liberal policy. On Lord Seaton's recall from Canada, Mr. Thomson was appointed to the supreme government of British North America. In 1840 he was raised to the peerage as Baron Sydenham of Toronto.

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Tables, The, was the name given to a national council in Scotland, formed in 1637 to represent all those who objected to the New Service Book, and other changes which the Scottish Council, under orders from Charles I., was attempting to introduce. It was virtually an extraordinary Parliament, its sixteen members being elected equally from the four classes of nobles, barons, clergy, and burgesses. The creation of the Tables was sanctioned by the Privy Council in 1637, as a means of intercourse between the supplicants (or opposition, which included the whole nation almost) and the crown. The following account of them is given in Gordon, *Scots Affairs*:—"These sixteen thus chosen were constitute as delegates for the rest, who were to treat with the Council thereafter in name of the rest, and to reside constantly where the Council sat. These delegates thus constitute were appointed to give intelligence to all quarters of the kingdom to their associates of all that passed betwixt the king, the Council, and them; to correspond with the rest, and to receive intelligence from them, and to call such of them with the mind of the rest as they thought expedient." The Council soon discovered that in authorising the creation of the "Tables" they had called into being a representative body of an extremely troublesome and dangerous nature. In 1638, on the publication of a proclamation of the king exonerating the bishops, the Tables summoned their adherents to meet at Stirling, and issued the famous Protestation, declaring the "king to be deceived by the prelates, and to be personally guiltless of the whole." Shortly afterwards they issued the Covenant, compelling persons to sign allegiance to it all over Scotland. To the Tables is due the organisation of the Glasgow Assembly of 1638, and the indictment of the bishops in the same year. It was the Tables, moreover, which made preparations for the war that broke out the following year.

Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng., 1603—1642.*

Tackers, The (1704), was the name given to a party of zealous Tories, headed by Nottingham, who proposed, in imitation of a plan which had been resorted to in the previous reign in the case of the Irish Resumption Bill, to tack the Occasional Conformity Bill to the New Land Tax Bill, "so that the peers could not fling out the proposal of intolerance without losing the proposal of supply." The moderate Tories, however, headed by Harley and St. John, voted against them, and they were routed by 251 against 134 votes.

Tahiti Question, 1842—44. In Sept., 1842, the French Admiral Du Petit Thouars extorted a convention from Queen Pomare, by which the French assumed possession of the island of Tahiti. The question was taken up by England with great vigour. The French government professed that they did not desire the annexation, but merely the protectorate of the island. The French people were, however, most indignant. Popular feeling ran high in both countries, and it was only the moderation of the governments which preserved peace. In 1844 the two governments were once more embroiled by the indiscretion of the French officials in Tahiti. They had made themselves most unpopular in Tahiti, and on the night of the 2nd March one of their sentinels was seized and disarmed by the natives. This was made the pretext for seizing and imprisoning Mr. Pritchard, British consul, and a prominent missionary, who was peculiarly obnoxious to the Roman Catholics. He was only released on the condition of his instantly leaving the Pacific. This outrage created a profound indignation in England, and Sir R. Peel denounced it in Parliament as a gross indignity. After some months of negotiation, the Queen's speech of 1845 announced that the question had been satisfactorily settled, and an indemnity given to Mr. Pritchard.

Tailbois, Lady (Elizabeth Blount), was the daughter of Sir John Blount, and the wife of Sir Gilbert Tailbois, at one time Governor of Calais. She was one of Henry VIII.'s favourite mistresses, and the son whom

she bore him was specially distinguished by the marks of his father's regard, being created successively Earl of Nottingham, and Duke of Richmond and Somerset.

Talavera, The Battle of (July 27 and 28, 1809), was perhaps the most important, as it certainly was one of the most hard-fought, of the earlier battles of the Peninsular War. The town of Talavera de la Reyna stands on the left bank of the Tagus, forty-two miles west of Toledo, in a small plain, which is bounded on the north and west by a range of low hills. Wellington extended his line along these hills and occupied an old ruined building, the Casa des Salinas, in the plain, while Cuesta with the Spaniards, who composed two-thirds of the allied army, was posted in front of the town on his right. Early on the 27th the British division in the Casa des Salinas was surprised by French skirmishers, but was quickly rallied by Wellington in person, and withdrawn to the hills, where they formed up behind the troops already posted there. Victor followed up his advantage, and opened a heavy fire on the position, which towards evening was suddenly attacked. The Germans, who were in advance, were completely surprised; but Donkin in the rear repulsed the attack. The French, however, seized an unoccupied eminence on his left, from which they annoyed the English until Hill by hard fighting drove them from it, just as darkness put an end to the fight. At dawn on the 28th a violent onslaught was made on the English left, but the French were driven off with a loss of 1,500 men. Both sides rested under the scorching heat of a midsummer sun; but the English were very short of supplies and were almost starving. In the afternoon the French renewed the attack, and fell on the British right, where they were quickly repulsed in confusion. Meanwhile a threatened attack on the left had been checked by a reckless charge of the dragoons, while in the centre the French were completely defeated. The English, however, were too much exhausted to pursue, and the Spaniards could not be trusted, so that Wellington only achieved the opening up of a safe retreat. He had, however, gained a reputation which was of immense value to him. "This battle," says Jomini, "recovered the glory of the successes of Marlborough, which for a century had declined. It was felt that the English infantry could contend with the best in Europe."

Napier, *Peninsular War*; Clinton, *Peninsular War*; Alison, *Hist. of Europe*.

Tallage. In the Pipe Roll 31 of Hen. I. appears a *town aid*, *auxilium burgi*, or *civitatis*, which seems to answer to the Danegeld in the counties. It is set down in the roll among the ordinary receipts, and it is probable, therefore, that it was an annual payment; but how long it had been exacted it is impossible to determine. After 1163 Danegeld disappeared, but its place was taken, as far as the towns and demesne lands of the crown were concerned, by a tax described loosely as *donum* or *assisa*, but to which the term *tallage* came later to be definitely attached. The amount to be paid by each county and town was assessed by officers of the Exchequer in special fiscal circuits, or by the justices in eyre; in the towns themselves the civic authorities, whoever they may have been, decided how much each citizen was to pay—a power the abuse of which led to the rising in London under William Fitz-Osbert. As the king had the right of tallaging his demesne, so the barons had the right of tallaging theirs; and towns frequently declared they were liable to the royal tallaging in order to escape the heavier exactions of their lords. The Exchequer, however, succeeded in gaining a general control over these seigneurial tallages; special permission became necessary before an imposition could be made, and when escheated baronies were regranted, it was always with the condition that tallage should only be paid to the lord when the king taxed his own demesne. As late as 1305 the king, probably to prevent opposition to the tallage imposed the year before, granted leave to the barons to tallage their own ancient demesnes as he had tallaged his. The seigneurial right was gradually bought off by the communities, and early disappears. In the Confirmation of the Charters in 1297, Edward I. promised only to renounce "aids, tasks, and prises," words which might fairly be interpreted not to include tallage from demesne lands. The document known as *De Tallagio non Concedendo*, in which the king expressly renounces the right of tallage, and which has been accepted by Hallam as the basis of his argument on this point, was merely an unauthoritative abstract of the original articles. After 1297 tallage was demanded three times: in 1304, in 1312—when it was objected to by London, not on account of illegality, but on the ground that the metropolis was exempted from such payments by Magna Charta—and in 1332, when, upon the remonstrance of Parliament, the commissions were withdrawn, and a tenth accepted instead. Finally, by a statute of 1340, "the real Act '*De Tallagio*,'" it was enacted that the nation should no more "make any common aid or sustain charge" but by consent of Parliament—words wide enough to include all unauthorised taxation. After this date it was never exacted, though until the end of the reign the Commons were uneasy, and occasionally petitioned that it might not be imposed.

Tallage was, as Gneist observes, a natural product of feudalism. As military service became the burden of a particular class, it seemed equitable that those who were exempt should contribute by taxation to the national defence. Two causes contributed to ensure for the tallaged class in England more con-

siderate treatment than abroad. In the first place the *fyrd*, or national militia, had been maintained, though partly for other purposes, so that the tallaged had weapons in their hands, with which they did good service; and secondly, the kings frequently promised not to raise the amount of tallage in order to gain an increase of the *firma burgi*.

Madox, *Hist. of Exchequer* (1711), p. 480; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, I. § 161, II. § 275; Gneist, *Englische Verfassungs Geschichte* (1882), pp. 125, 172.

[W. J. A.]

Talmash, Thomas (*d.* 1694), first appears as in command of the Coldstream Guards at the skirmish at Walcourt, under the Duke of Marlborough. He served under Ginkell in Ireland, and distinguished himself greatly at the siege of Athlone, and at the battle of Aghrim. When the notice of Parliament was directed to Solmes's conduct at the battle of Steinkirk, it was requested that his place might be filled by Talmash, who, next to Marlborough, was universally allowed to be the best officer in the army. He fought under William at the battle of Landen. He was soon afterwards sent in command of an expedition against Brest. The design was betrayed probably by Marlborough to James, from motives of personal jealousy. Accordingly when Talmash attempted to land he was received by a terrible fire from the French troops, and received a mortal wound, "exclaiming with his last breath that he had been a victim of treachery."

London Gazette; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*

Tandy, James Napper, a Dublin tradesman, commanded in 1782 the Phœnix Park Artillery. He was an ardent Irish "patriot," and as early as 1784 began to correspond with France. He became a member of the Whig Club, and in Nov., 1790, was secretary to the United Irishmen. In the year 1792 he had the audacity to challenge the Solicitor-General; he was arrested, escaped, and re-arrested the day before the close of the session, so that he was only in prison for a day. In 1795 he went over to America, but was in France in 1797, where he represented himself as an officer. In 1798, he, together with some other Irish rebels, followed Humbert in a small vessel, but did not arrive in Ireland till after the defeat of the French at Ballinamuck, and at once fled and reached Hamburg in safety. On Nov. 24th, however, he was delivered up to the English. France afterwards declared war on Hamburg on his account. He was tried in Ireland, but was thought much too contemptible to be made a martyr of, and was liberated after the Peace of Amiens (1802).

Tangiers, a seaport of Morocco, was taken by the Portuguese from the Moors in 1471, and ceded by them to England in 1662 as the dowry of Catherine of Braganza on her marriage with Charles II. Colonel Kirke was placed in command of the garrison. It was evacuated by the English in 1683, on account of the badness of the climate and the expense of the wars with the Mussulmans, and the works were destroyed. Tangiers subsequently became a nest of pirates, who frequently enslaved British subjects, and whom our government was not ashamed to subsidise in order to keep them quiet. During the reign of Soliman, however (1794—1822), Christian slavery was abolished and piracy suppressed.

Tanistry, The Custom of, was partly a system of landholding and partly a law of succession. Under the Brehon code the land was regarded as belonging, in the first instance, to the people or tribe from whom the chief held it in trust. He held a portion of it as private property in virtue of his rank as a noble, had a life interest in a second portion in virtue of his office, while he possessed jurisdiction over the land of the commune. This peculiar kind of tenure was called *tandisteact* or tanistry, but the word was more generally applied to the form of succession by which the eldest and worthiest relative was preferred to the eldest son, "as commonly the next brother or next cousin, and so forth." The idea, of course, was that a man of mature years would be able to resist aggression and administer affairs better than a minor, but as in practice it produced endless civil quarrels, it became customary for the people of the tribe or sect to elect the successor (*tanaiste minor* or *second*) in the time of the ruling chief. This law of inheritance obtained among the noble class, all the property of the inferior orders being held under the law of gavelkind (q.v.). It was from the first ignored by the English invaders, who attempted to introduce primogeniture; Strongbow, for instance, claimed the kingdom of Leinster on the ground of his marriage with Dermot's only child, Eva. But the native Irish clung tenaciously to the custom, and their rights were acknowledged more than once by the English kings. Henry III. tried to abolish it, but without success, and thence the O'Neil troubles arose. Soon after the accession of James I., however, in 1603, after a commission had been held to inquire into defective titles, tanistry, together with gavelkind, was abolished by a decision of the King's Bench in Dublin as a "lewd and damnable custom." A variation of the law of tanistry may be seen in the curious system of alternate succession by which two branches of a race shared the kingship, *e.g.*, the kingship of Munster by the McCarthys and O'Briens.

Sir John Davies, *Case of Gavelkind*; Spencer, *Views of the State of Ireland*; O'Curry, *Manners and Customs of the Ancient Irish*; Maine, *Village Communities*; Hallam, *Hist. of Eng.*, iii., ch. 18; Walpole, *Hist. of Irish Nation*. [L. C. S.]

Tanjore, THE STATE OF, was founded in the middle of the seventeenth century by Shahjee, the father of Sivajee. In 1769 it became involved in hostilities with Madras in consequence of a quarrel with Mohammed Ali of the Carnatic. The country was quickly subdued and the rajah imprisoned and the sovereignty transferred to Mohammed Ali. The Court of Directors, however, disapproved of this, and ordered that the rajah should be restored. In 1780, therefore, Lord Pigot, Governor of Madras, was ordered to restore him, and establish a Resident at his court. In 1786, on the death of the Rajah Tulfogee (who left an adopted son, Serfogee), a dispute arose as to the succession. It was asserted that Tulfogee was in a state of mental incapacity at the time of adoption, and that Serfogee was an only son, and therefore the adoption was invalid. Ameer Singh, half brother of Tulfogee, was placed on the throne. Serfogee continued to press his claim, and the misgovernment of Ameer Singh induced Sir John Shore to submit the matter to the most renowned pundits, and they declared the adoption perfectly valid. The directors thereupon ordered Lord Wellesley to place him on the throne on condition that he should accept any arrangement the government might think fit. After an exhaustive report of the condition of Tanjore, Lord Wellesley assumed the entire administration of the country (1800), giving the rajah a liberal pension.

Tankerville, FORD GREY, EARL OF (*d.* 1701), better known as Lord Grey of Wark, took a prominent part in the debates of 1681 as a most zealous Exclusionist; and for his supposed share in the design for insurrection was committed to the Tower, but escaped by making his keepers drunk. He fled to the Continent (1682). There he employed his influence on his friend the Duke of Monmouth to urge him to invade England. He landed at Lyme with Monmouth, and was appointed commander of the cavalry. He was driven from Bridport by the militia. He dissuaded Monmouth from abandoning the enterprise at Frome. At the battle of Sedgemoor his cavalry was easily routed by the royal troops, chiefly it is said because of his pusillanimity. He fled with Monmouth, and was taken in the New Forest. In his interview with the king he displayed great firmness, and would not stoop to ask for pardon. He was suffered to ransom himself for £40,000 and went abroad. He returned to England with William of Orange, and attempted to redeem his character by taking an active share in politics. In 1695 he was created Earl of Tankerville. He supported the Association Bill in a brilliant speech, and also spoke in favour of the bill for Fenwick's attainder. He vigorously opposed the bill for disbanding the army (1699). His political services were rewarded by the office of Lord Privy Seal (1701). But his health was broken, and later in the year he died. "His life," says Macaulay, "was so miserable that all the indignation excited by his faults is overpowered by pity."

Burnet, *Hist. of his Own Time;* Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.;* Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*

Tantallon Castle, in Haddingtonshire, the stronghold of the Douglases, was successfully defended (1528) against James V. by the Earl of Angus, who had, however, soon afterwards to seek an asylum in England. It was destroyed by the Covenanters in 1639.

Tantia Topee, a Mahratta Brahmin of the revolted Gwalior force (1857). He took the command, and on Nov. 28 encountered General Windham at Cawnpoor with some success. In 1858 he marched to the relief of Jhansi, but was routed at the Belwah by Sir Hugh Rose. Joined by the Ranee of Jhansi he concentrated his forces at Kooneh, but was beaten utterly. He then proceeded to Gwalior and excited an insurrection against Scindia. He was beaten again by Sir H. Rose outside Gwalior, but escaped, and waged a predatory war for some time. His hiding-place was, however, betrayed; he was seized when asleep (April 7, 1859) in the jungle in Malwa, and he was tried and executed.

Tara, THE HILL OF, situated in Meath, was in ancient days the residence of the Kings of Tara. Near here on May 26, 1798, Lord Fingal, with some 400 fencibles and mounted yeomen, routed several thousands of Irish rebels, killing 350. Here, too, on Aug. 15, 1843, Daniel O'Connell held a monster meeting in support of Repeal, said to have been attended by 250,000 people.

Tara, KINGS OF. Till the seventh century the *Ard Ri Erind,* or high king of Erin, resided in the palace of Tara. The kingdom of Meath, in which it was situated, formed his appanage. After the overthrow of the Hui Niells by Brian Boru, the position of King of Tara was held by one or another of the provincial kings; it resembled that of the Anglo-Saxon Bretwalda. Under this over-king there was a complete hierarchy of provincial kings, princes, and nobles. The nature of the relations of these classes to each other was in most cases of the same shadowy nature as the overlordship of the King of Tara.

Tasmania. [AUSTRALIA.]

Taunton was in all probability a Roman station. It was of considerable importance to the kingdom of Wessex; Ina built a castle there, and it was more than once attacked by the Welsh. After the Conquest, the castle was rebuilt by the Bishops of Winchester, to whom the town and manor were granted. It first returned a member to Parliament in 1295. Taunton was held for some time by the pretender Warbeck, and during the Great

Rebellion sustained a long siege under Colonel Blake against the Royalists under Goring, until relieved by Fairfax. Jeffreys held his "Bloody Assize" at Taunton after the failure of Monmouth's rebellion, the duke having previously been proclaimed king there. The charter of the borough, which was granted to it by Charles I., was taken from it by Charles II., and it remained unincorporated until after the Municipal Reform Act of 1835.

[A. L. S.]

Taxation. In Anglo-Saxon times the Witan alone had the power of imposing extraordinary taxation—a power which was, however, rarely used, as the public expenditure was amply defrayed by the rents of the public lands and by the obligation of *trinoda necessitas*. The only instance of extraordinary taxation before the Norman Conquest was the Danegeld, a tax of two shillings on every hide of land, levied to buy off the attacks of the Danes; this tax continued to be occasionally levied down to the reign of Henry II., and under Richard was revived under the name of carucage. After the Norman Conquest, the ordinary revenue proved far too small for the wants of the king, and as a consequence we find the finance of the country occupying much of the attention of the executive, whilst by degrees it was found necessary to increase extraordinary taxation to a very large extent. Up to the reign of Henry II. the indirect taxation of the country, such as customs, was unimportant, while the extraordinary taxes, such as the Danegeld and scutage, fell only on land. In 1188, however, an important innovation was introduced in the Saladin Tithe, or the first tax on movables. This tax became very popular with succeeding kings. Under Richard I., one-fourth of their goods was demanded from every one; John levied one-seventh; and subsequent kings usually one-fifteenth. The imposition of taxes under the Norman kings had been practically at the will of the king, though the consent of the barons was often asked as a matter of form, and the exaction grew so heavy that a clause in Magna Charta provided that no extraordinary scutage or aid should be imposed by the king without the consent of the national council. The growth of representation is closely connected with the history of taxation, and it early became a recognised principle that the votes of those who were present bound those who were absent; whilst the idea that taxation required the consent of the taxed, which grew up after it became customary to tax movables, made it necessary to summon to Parliament the burgesses and clergy as well as knights and barons. The fact that we often find the different classes in the kingdom making grants of different rates is the result of the "right of self-taxation being recognised to the extent of each class of the community determining, independently of the rest, what amount it would contribute. The lords made a separate grant. The knights voted their own quota, and the burgesses theirs, while the clergy decided for themselves the amount of their taxation. The Confirmation of the Charters by Edward I. declared that henceforth no extraordinary tax should be levied without the consent of the whole kingdom, and a like promise was made in the statute *De Tallagio non Concedendo* (1297). From this time the exclusive right of Parliament to impose taxation, though often infringed by the illegal exercise of prerogative, became an axiom of the constitution." In spite of this, however, Edward III., in the face of repeated remonstrances from the Commons, frequently resorted to arbitrary taxation, whilst Richard II. raised forced loans; but under the Lancastrian kings we find but few cases of illegal imposts. From Richard II. the old taxes of hidage, scutage, and tallage were replaced by subsidies. A tax imposed upon persons in respect of the reputed value of their estates in 1379—80, the imposition of a graduated poll tax, ranging from £4 to 4d., proved the immediate cause of Tyler's rebellion. Soon after this time it became customary to make a grant to each king for life at the beginning of his reign. This grant, under the name of tonnage and poundage, continued to be made until the time of Charles I. The frequent demands for money by Henry VII. and Henry VIII. caused great dissatisfaction to the people. "Taxation," says Hallam, "in the eyes of their subjects was so far from being no tyranny that *it* seemed the only species worth a complaint," and in 1525 the arbitrary exactions of Wolsey paved the way for his downfall. Up to 1588 it had been usual for the Commons to vote one subsidy (£70,000) and two-fifteenths on goods; but in that year two subsidies and four-fifteenths were granted, owing to the expense occasioned by the Spanish Armada, and from that date a larger number of subsidies were granted. The financial difficulties of the Stuarts led them to resort frequently to illegal imposts. In 1608, under James I., Cecil caused a *Book of Rates* to be issued, which laid heavy duties on merchandise, while the extortions of Charles I. led to the first article in the Petition of Right, which provides that "no person from thenceforth shall be compelled to make any loans to the king against his will, as having inherited this freedom, that he should not be compelled to contribute to any tax, tallage, aid, or other like charge not set by common consent in Parliament." Taxation under the Commonwealth was heavy, and on the abolition of feudal incidents and aids, excise and customs duties and hearth-money were granted to the king as compensation. In this reign, too, the control of the Commons over taxation was much increased by the introduction of the

custom of appropriation of supplies, while at the same time the Lower House established their right of initiating all money bills. In the reign of Charles II. the clergy ceased to tax themselves in Convocation. James II. once more resorted to illegal and arbitrary taxation, and as a consequence the Bill of Rights declared that the king, amongst other things, had endeavoured to subvert the liberties of the kingdom "by levying money for and to the use of the crown by pretence of prerogative, for other time and in other manner than the same was granted by Parliament," which was illegal. From the reign of William III. the customs and excise duties gradually increased, while in 1690 a land tax of 3s. in the pound was imposed, and renewed annually. Windows, dogs, horses, and other things were taxed. In 1796 the legacy duty on personal property was imposed by Mr. Pitt, the real property tax not being imposed till 1833, and two years later the same minister taxed all incomes over £200. This tax was discontinued in 1816, but renewed by Sir Robert Peel in 1842, since which time it has continued to be levied, the rates being varied by Parliament from time to time. In 1851 the window tax was replaced by a tax imposed on houses in proportion to their rental. The first permanent tax was hearth-money, imposed in 1663, up to which time taxes had been granted for a year, or other fixed term, as occasion demanded. After the Revolution, however, permanent duties increased. "These duties," says Sir Erskine May, "were generally granted as a security for loans, and the financial policy of permanent taxes increased with the national debt, and the extension of public credit." At the present day the power of taxation remains as it was in the days of Lord Chatham, who said—"Taxation is no part of the governing or legislative power. The taxes are a voluntary gift and grant of the Commons alone." [ASSESSMENT; CUSTOMS; EXCISE; RATES; REVENUE.]

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*; May, *Const. Hist.*

Taylor, JEREMY, Bishop of Dromore, and of Down and Connor (*b.* 1613, *d.* 1667), after being educated at Oxford was made chaplain to Laud in 1637, and in 1638 was appointed rector of Uppingham. Deprived of his living by the rebellion, he retired to Wales and opened a school at Carmarthen, and afterwards became chaplain to the Earl of Carberry. During the Protectorate he was twice imprisoned, in Chepstow Castle and the Tower. In 1658 he went to Ireland, and in 1661 received the bishopric of Down and Connor. Taylor was the author of numerous works on theology and morals, some of which have enjoyed extraordinary popularity.

Jeremy Taylor's *Works* were edited by Bishop Heber, 15 vols., 1822.

Taylor, ROWLAND (*d.* Feb., 1555), was vicar of Hadleigh in Suffolk, to which living he was presented by Archbishop Cranmer in 1544. He was condemned by Bishop Gardiner and a tribunal composed of the Bishops of London, Norwich, Salisbury, and Durham for his Protestantism; and on refusing to recant was burnt at Hadleigh, Feb. 8, 1555. Foxe, who gives an affecting account of Taylor's martyrdom, says of him, that "he was a right perfect divine and parson."

Tea Duties, THE, were first imposed in 1660. In 1772 the East India Company. being in pecuniary difficulties, were allowed by Parliament to export their teas from London warehouses to America free from English duties, and liable only to a small duty to be levied in the colony. Although by this arrangement the colonists got their tea cheaper than they would otherwise have done, they looked upon it as a mere bribe to induce them to consent to the right of England to tax America. Accordingly it was resolved to resist the imposition of the duty, and when the tea-ships arrived at Boston on Dec., 1773, they were boarded and their cargoes thrown overboard. This was one of the incidents which ultimately led to the American War. In England the East India Company retained its monopoly until 1834. In 1836 new duties were imposed; these were at first 2s. 1d. in the pound, but they were reduced to 1s. 5d. in 1857, and to 6d. in 1865. Since then the duties have fluctuated to meet the demands of the revenue.

Tea-room Party, THE. Under the Reform Bill of 1867 it was proposed that direct payment of rates by the occupier should be part of the qualification for the Parliamentary franchise in boroughs. This excluded a great number of small occupiers who paid their rates through their landlord ("compound householders"). Mr. Gladstone proposed to move an Instruction, when the House went into Committee, "to alter the law of rating," and to arrange that while the poorest occupiers were to be neither rated nor enfranchised, all above a certain line should both pay rates and have the vote. But forty-eight Liberals met on April 8 in the House of Commons tea-room, and agreed to support only the first clause of the Instruction as quoted above. Mr. Disraeli and Mr. Gladstone agreed; but in Committee Mr. Gladstone gave notice of several important amendments, which Mr. Disraeli declared to be the relinquished instructions in another form. The support of the Tea-room Party enabled the government to defeat the amendments, but eventually it established household suffrage in boroughs.

Telegraphs, THE PURCHASE OF THE. In 1870 the government ventured on the bold step of acquiring possession of all the lines of electric telegraph in the United Kingdom, and making the control of communication by

electricity, a part of the general business of the Post Office (q.v.).

Templars, The, or the Order of Knights of the Temple of Jerusalem, was a military religious order of knighthood which had its origin in 1118 in an association of knights for the protection of pilgrims to the Holy Land. They did good service in the Crusades, for which they were rewarded with ample grants of land in different countries—England among the rest. After the final conquest of Palestine by the Mohammedans the Templars returned to Europe, where their pride and licentiousness excited considerable odium. Philip the Fair of France determined on their suppression, and obtained the co-operation of his son-in-law Edward II. In England the order was suppressed in 1308 without the great cruelties practised in France. The knights were allowed to enter monasteries, and their possessions given to the Hospitallers, or Knights of St. John.

Temple, Richard Grenville, Earl (*b.* 1711, *d.* 1779), was the elder brother of George Grenville, and was elected, in 1734, by the help of family interest, to represent the town of Buckingham, but subsequently for a time represented the county. In 1752 he succeeded to the earldom, and four years later Pitt, who had married his sister, gave him a place in his administration as First Lord of the Admiralty. In the following April he was summarily dismissed by the king, and Pitt's dismissal followed within a few days. Pitt, however, was recalled, and Lord Temple became Lord Privy Seal, which post he retained until Pitt's resignation in Oct., 1761, when he too withdrew. In 1766 he broke with Pitt on the question of the Stamp Act, Lord Temple upholding his brother's policy while Pitt was bent on obtaining its repeal. And he went further, by refusing to accept office under Pitt in 1766, not wishing to be "stuck into a ministry as great cypher." A reconciliation, however, took place on Lord Chatham's retirement in 1768. In 1770 Lord North began his long reign. Thenceforth Lord Temple took but an intermittent interest in political affairs, now and then actively opposing the ministry. Lord Temple has been suspected, not without some reason, of being the author of the *Letters of Junius*.

Grenville Papers; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; *Chatham Correspondence*; Massey, *Hist. of Eng.*; Macaulay, Second Essay on *Chatham*.

Temple, Sir William (*b.* 1628, *d.* 1699), was the son of Sir John Temple, Master of the Rolls in Ireland, and after being educated at Cambridge, and having spent some years in foreign travel, he returned to Ireland, becoming in 1660 a member of the Irish Convention. In 1665 he was first employed on diplomatic business, being sent as an envoy to the Bishop of Munster, and the year following he was appointed ambassador to the Court of Brussels, and devoted himself to endeavouring to form an alliance between England and Holland. His exertions were crowned in 1668 by the formation of the Triple Alliance against France, and the consequent peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. But the policy he had inaugurated was short-lived, and the Treaty of Dover (q.v.) made it necessary for the ministers to dismiss the author of the Triple Alliance, and he was relieved of his office in 1671. On the fall of the Cabal ministry Temple was offered by Danby, who became Lord Treasurer, a Secretaryship of State, but he refused this, and was appointed ambassador at the Hague. In 1675 he took an important part in the Congress of Nimeguen. In 1679 Danby was impeached, and sent to the Tower, and Charles looked to Temple as the only man who could help him to weather the storm caused by the Popish Plot. Temple's proposal was that a means should be adopted for including all parties in the government, and for this purpose proposed that the existing Privy Council should be dissolved, and that a new Privy Council of thirty members should be appointed, half of whom to be great officers of state, and the other half independent noblemen and gentlemen of the greatest weight in the country; that the king should pledge himself to govern by the constant advice of this body, to suffer all his affairs of every kind to be freely dilated there, and not to reserve any part of the public business for a secret committee. An attempt was made to carry out this scheme, but it was soon found to be unworkable. The council was too large for practical purposes, and there was no party tie to bind the members together, and before long an interior cabinet was formed, consisting of Temple, Halifax, Essex, and Sunderland. Temple himself, however, was gradually ousted from the debates of the secret committee. In 1681 he retired from public life, and devoted himself chiefly to literary work. His chief works were his well-known *Essays*, an *Account of the United Provinces*, and an *Essay on Government*.

Temple, *Works*; Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.* and Essay on *Temple*.

Tenant-right, The Irish, is a custom by which the tenant is entitled not only to compensation for unexhausted improvements when he relinquishes his holding, but by which a sum is paid, sometimes amounting to as much as the fee-simple of the land, by the incoming to the outgoing tenant for the goodwill of the farm. This tenant-right, known as the Ulster custom, was legalised by the Land Act of 1870, and extended to the rest of Ireland by later legislation. It is supposed to have arisen at the time of the plantation of Ulster (q.v.), the planters refusing to give definite leases of twenty-one years to their English and Scotch tenants, and they in disgust selling their interest in

the holdings, and the value of their capital to the native Irish—a practice which was in direct contravention to the spirit of the settlement. Other systems of tenure which obtain in Ireland are: the *cottier* system, by which tenants bid against each other for a piece of land, no fixity of tenure being recognised until the Act of 1881; and *conacre*, a feudal survival, by which land is granted to the tenant rent-free in return for so much labour. [Land Legislation, Irish.]

Tenchebrai, The Battle of (Sept. 28, 1106), was fought between Henry I. and his brother Robert, and resulted in the complete victory of Henry, who captured and imprisoned Robert, and annexed Normandy to his dominions.

Tenterden, Charles Abbott, Lord (*b.* 1762, *d.* 1832), was the son of a hairdresser. He was educated at King's School, Canterbury, and at Corpus Christi College, Oxford, and was called to the bar in 1795. His treatise on the *Law of Merchant Ships and Seamen* (1802) was recognised as the standard work on its subject. Owing to the weakness of his health he refused a seat on the bench in 1808, but in 1816 he was made a puisne judge in the Common Pleas. In 1818, he became Lord Chief Justice of the King's Bench, and though a Tory, he never allowed his political sympathies to colour his judgments. He was raised to the peerage in 1827.

Campbell, *Lives of the Chief Justices*; Foss, *Biographia Juridica.*

Tenure. [Land Tenure.]

Territorial Army, The. It had long been felt that the old Volunteer Force lacked scientific organisation: it had no cavalry; its administrative services fell far short of requirements, the strength of units varied remarkably, and contained a large proportion of men unfit to take the field; there was a deficiency of officers, and in short, the force as a whole could not be seriously considered as an engine of war. Consequently, on taking office as Secretary of State for War in 1905, it was a part of Mr. Haldane's army scheme to put an end to these shortcomings by uniting the Auxiliary Forces into a homogeneous body, recruited on a single simple principle. His ideal was a Home Army complete in itself—with the same branches and organisations as the Regular Army. By the Territorial and Reserve Forces Act, 1907, the number of Volunteer battalions were reduced and those remaining were re-named and reorganised, and a number of mounted brigades were formed from the Imperial Yeomanry, which became the cavalry of the Territorial Army. The administration—as distinct from the command and training—was placed in the hands of County Associations. Each Association is composed of officers from the Territorial Army in the county, representatives of the county and borough councils, a president, vice-president, chairman, secretary and treasurer—all nominated by the Army Council. Each Association receives a grant from the army funds, and its business is to help in recruiting, in finding rifle-ranges, manœuvre grounds, etc., in clothing the men, and in all administrative work generally. Members of the Territorial Army are not liable for foreign service; every man is paid at service rates of pay during the time he is embodied or called out for consecutive training, and enlistment is for a term of four years. The training consists of a number of compulsory drills and an annual attendance in camp.

Test Act, The (1673), was a measure passed in the reign of Charles II., and was intended to exclude from office the Catholic councillors of the king. It was passed at the instance of Shaftesbury and the country party after the king had been compelled to abandon his attempt to dispense with the penal laws against Dissenters. It required all persons holding any office of profit or trust under the crown to take the oaths of allegiance and supremacy, receive the sacrament according to the rites of the Church of England, and subscribe the declaration against transubstantiation. This Act was directed against the Catholics, but was equally operative against Dissenters. One consequence of it was that Arlington and Clifford had to retire from office, and the Duke of York was obliged to resign his post as Lord High Admiral. It was not repealed until 1828.

Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*

Test Act, The, for Scotland (1681) imposed an oath which was made compulsory on all government and municipal officials. It declares a belief in "the true Protestant religion contained in the Confession of Faith," and disowns "all practices, whether popish or fanatic, which are contrary to or inconsistent with the said Protestant religion and Confession of Faith."

Tewkesbury, The Battle of (May 4, 1471), was, strictly speaking, the last battle fought in the Wars of the Roses, for the Battle of Bosworth can hardly be included in those wars. Queen Margaret landed in England the very day that Warwick was defeated and slain at Barnet, but despite this severe blow to the Lancastrian cause, she was persuaded by Somerset and other lords of her party to continue her advance. She had landed at Weymouth, and at first marched westward to Exeter, where she was joined by reinforcements from Devon and Cornwall. She then moved eastward to Bath, but learning that Edward was marching against her, she determined to march to the north, where the chief strength of the Lancastrians lay. After a tedious march she reached Tewkesbury on May 3, and the next day Edward

gave battle. The Lancastrians were utterly routed, owing in no small degree to the treachery or folly of Lord Wenlock, who neglected to bring up the reinforcements in time. Queen Margaret was taken prisoner, and her son, Prince Edward, either fell in the battle, or, more probably, was put to death immediately after. The Duke of Somerset and others, who had taken sanctuary, were beheaded two days after in the market-place at Tewkesbury. This decisive battle coming so soon after the victory of Barnet completely established Edward IV. on the throne.

Warkworth, *Chronicle*; Hall, *Chronicles*.

Tewkesbury Chronicle, The, was compiled by more than one hand during the thirteenth century, and kept in the Abbey of Tewkesbury, whence it passed to the Cotton collection in the British Museum. It begins with the death of Edward the Confessor, and ends abruptly in 1263. The first part is very meagre, and it is not until after 1200 that it becomes adequate. These annals are chiefly concerned with monastic events, such as ecclesiastical suits, but the war between Henry III. and the Barons is treated very fully.

The Chronicle has been published, under the editorship of Mr. Luard, in vol. i. of the *Annales Monastici*, in the Rolls series.

Thanet, The Isle of, in the north-east of Kent, is still partly surrounded by the sea and the river Stour, but the passage called the Wantsum, which formerly separated it from the mainland, has been closed since the fifteenth century. It was called by the Britons *Ruim*, or the headland. As might be expected from its position the island has frequently been the landing-place for invaders of England. It was there that the Teutonic heroes Hengest and Horsa are said to have disembarked in 449, and it was the landing-place of more than one Danish invasion. Indeed, those buccaneers seem to have held part of the island from 853 to 865, and it was frequently subject to their raids. Several parishes in the isle of Thanet formed part of the Liberty of Dover.

Thegn was an Anglo-Saxon title bestowed on a class of persons who were inferior to the *eorlas* and *æthel*, the original nobility of blood, though superior to the ordinary landowners or *ceorls*. The meaning seems to be originally equivalent to *vir*, *miles*; the word does not seem to be connected, as has been often supposed, with *dienen*, to serve. But in the earlier times the thegns were, in fact, a nobility of service, and it is scarcely possible to distinguish them from the king's *gesiths*—that is, the members of his "comitatus," or personal following. Gradually, however, this characteristic of the thegn is lost sight of, and he is a landowner having a larger quantity of land than the ceorl—that is, five hides and upwards. From the end of the ninth century we scarcely hear of the gesith. The word thegn comes to include, on the one hand, those who stand in ministerial relation to the king; and on the other, those who are simply landowners, having the necessary qualifications, whether they were connected with the king or not. In fact, any ceorl who acquired five hides of land became "thegn-worthy." Among the thegns themselves there were numerous gradations in rank. The "king's thegn" is superior to the ordinary territorial thegn; and it would seem that the possession of forty hides of land entitled a thegn to the wergild and status of an earl. The wergild of the ordinary thegn was six times that of the ceorl, namely, twelve hundred shillings instead of two hundred. The dignity of thegn was hereditary, and the "thegn-born" are a semi-noble class, contrasting with the "ceorl-born." "The name of thegn," says Bishop Stubbs, "covers the whole class which, after the Conquest, appears under the name of knights," and thus it was that many of the thegns passed easily and naturally into the knightly order under the Norman kings.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, ch. vi.; Kemble, *Saxons in England*; Schmidt, *Gesetze der Angel-Sachsen*.

Thelusson's Case (decided in 1858), was of considerable importance, since it settled the question whether testators could dispose of their estates so that the income should accumulate and form a large fortune, which should be limited in favour of certain descendants. The litigation arising out of the will of Mr. Thelusson lasted for nearly fifty years, and eventually the House of Lords decided that trusts for accumulation were legal. However, by the Act 39 and 40 George III. c. 98 it had been provided that incomes should not be allowed to accumulate in this way for more than twenty-one years.

Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury (1139—1161), was Abbot of Bec, in Normandy, and in 1138 came over to England at the invitation of King Stephen, by whose influence he was elected Archbishop of Canterbury. His authority was, however, weakened by the fact that there was a papal legate in England at the time, and that subsequently Henry of Blois, Bishop of Winchester, was invested with legatine authority. In 1148 Theobald, contrary to the commands of Stephen, attended a papal council at Rheims, and joined in deposing William, the king's nephew, from the Archbishopric of York. In 1150 Theobald was appointed legate by the Pope. Throughout the troublous reign of Stephen, Theobald remained loyal to the king, and strongly advocated the compromise with Henry of Anjou as the best means of putting an end to anarchy and bloodshed. As a patron of learning Theobald occupies an interesting position, and still more important is it that it was as his secretary that Becket first came into prominence. Theobald was not a man of marked

ability, but he was loyal, generous, and earnest in striving to do his duty.

William of Malmesbury; Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops.*

Theodore of Tarsus (*b.* 603, *d.* 690), Archbishop of Canterbury (669—690), was Greek by birth, whom Pope Vitalian selected for the see of Canterbury on the death of the archbishop-elect, Wighard, at Rome. Theodore is an important personage in the history of the English Church, for he it was who organised the Church, developed the Episcopal system, and drew up the famous Penitential, which was the recognised text-book of confessors for many years. He did much to encourage learning, and was the first to introduce the study of Greek into England. His work is well summed up by Dean Hook in one sentence—"He converted what had been a missionary station into an established Church." He was the last of the Roman bishops; henceforth they were English.

Bede, *Eccles. Hist.*; *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*; Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops.*

Theological Controversy, The, held in Westminster Abbey, March, 1559, was the name given to a discussion nominally intended to settle certain questions of doctrine and ritual; but it had been determined beforehand by the Protestant party that the discussion should be in their favour, and that no decision should be arrived at. The subjects of controversy were:—

1. The use of prayer in a tongue unknown to the people.
2. The right of local churches to change their ceremonies if the edification of the people required it.
3. The propitiatory sacrifice for the quick and dead said to be offered in the mass.

The champions of Catholicism were Bishops White, Baynes, Scot, and Watson, Archdeacon Langdale, Chedsey, the chaplain of Bishop Bonner, and Harpsfeld. The Protestants were Scory, Grindal, Coxe, Whitehead, Aylmer, Horne, Guest, and Jewel.

Burnet, *Reformation*; Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops.*

Theow was the Anglo-Saxon name for a slave. There were various kinds of slaves—the born slave, *i.e.*, the child of slave parents; the captive, often a Briton; the voluntary slave, who sold himself to avoid starvation; the man who was sold into slavery because he could not pay his debts, or the fine for a breach of the peace. Nominally the slaves were the goods and chattels of their lords, who had power of life and death over them; they had no legal rights, and no wergild. But in practice the *theow* had recognised rights. He was entitled to regular food and holiday, and any ill-treatment of him by his lord was punished by the Church. In addition to this he might purchase his own freedom with his savings, or he might be manumitted by his lord. After the Conquest the slave-class ceases to exist, and is merged with the lower ceorl into the general class of villeins.

Kemble, *The Saxons in England*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*

Thirlby, Thomas (*d.* 1570), Bishop of Westminster, Norwich, and Ely, one of the commissioners at Gravelines in 1545, was sent in 1553, in conjunction with Sir Philip Hoby, to Brussels on a mission to the Emperor Charles V. Under Mary he took an active part in the persecution of the Reformers in 1558; was sent, with two other commissioners, to settle the preliminaries of peace with France. He refused to take the oath of supremacy to Elizabeth, and was deposed, though he was treated with great kindness by Archbishop Parker.

Thirty, The Battle of The (March 27, 1350), was the name given to an engagement between the English partisans of Montfort and the Breton followers of Charles of Blois. It was fought at Ploermel in Britanny, and by agreement the number of combatants was limited to thirty on either side. The English were defeated.

Thirty-Nine Articles. [Articles.]

Thistlewood, Arthur (*b.* 1770, *d.* 1820), started in life originally with some fortune as a subaltern officer, first in the militia, and then in a regiment of the line, stationed in the West Indies. After having resigned his commission, and spent some time in America, he passed into France, where he arrived shortly after the fall of Robespierre. There he formed revolutionary opinions. He was deeply implicated in the scheme of Dr. Watson, but was, like him, acquitted. He then sent a challenge to Lord Sidmouth, for which he was punished by fine and imprisonment. Upon his liberation (Aug., 1819), he found himself excluded from respectable society, without resources or hopes. The natural violence of his disposition was stimulated by this, and aided by a number of individuals equally desperate, he planned the Cato Street Conspiracy (q.v.) for which he was executed, glorying in his attempt and regretting its failure.

Thom was a broken-down brewer who had gone mad. In 1837 he appeared in Canterbury and various parts of Kent, styling himself Sir William Courtenay, of Powderham Castle, Knight of Malta, King of Jerusalem, and various other titles. He was confined in a lunatic asylum, but was subsequently released. When he came out he announced himself as a second Messiah to the peasants, and succeeded in impressing himself on their excited imaginations by denouncing the new Poor Law, which was then intensely hated and feared. He asserted that he had come to regenerate the whole world and save his followers from the new Poor Law. He as-

sembled a mob and led them against Canterbury. His followers proceeded to violence, and he himself shot a policeman. Two companies of soldiers came out from Canterbury to disperse the rioters. Thom shot the officer, and his followers charged with such fury that for a moment the troops gave way. Then they recovered, and poured in a volley which destroyed the insurrection and put an end to Thom's life, and those of many of his adherents. Several of his followers were tried and convicted of murder. But long after his fall people in many parts of Kent believed in Thom's pretensions, and looked to his future return on earth.

Thorough was a phrase used by Strafford and Laud in their correspondence, to describe the spirit of their policy. It signified "the resolute determination of going through with it, as it might nowadays be expressed, of disregarding and overriding the interested delays and evasions of those who made the public service an excuse for enriching themselves at the public expense, or the dry technical arguments of the lawyers, which would hinder them in their schemes for the public good" (Gardiner). "For the state, indeed," writes Laud, "I am for thorough; but I see that both thick and thin stays somebody, where I conceive it should not. . . . . I am confident that the king being pleased to set himself in the business, is able by his wisdom and ministers, to carry any just and honourable action, thorough all imaginary opposition, for real there can be none." "Thorough" and "through" are the same word, and were, in the seventeenth century, both spelt in the same way.

Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng., 1603—1642; Strafford Papers.*

Thorpe, Thomas (*d.* 1461), was made a baron of the Exchequer about 1453, and in the same year was Speaker of the House of Commons. In the next year he was imprisoned at the instance of the Duke of York, who brought a suit against him. The Commons thereupon claimed their privilege, and appealed to the Lords, who referred the question to the judges. The judges declared that they were unable to decide on the privileges of Parliament, but that it was usual that persons should not be prevented by imprisonment from attending Parliament. But the Duke of York was now in the ascendant, and the Lords decided that Thorpe should stay in prison, the privilege of Parliament notwithstanding. On the king's recovery he was released, and restored to his office. In 1460 he was taken prisoner in the battle of Northampton, and was the next year beheaded by the Yorkists. Thorpe's case is reported in the history of Parliamentary privilege.

Hallam, *Hist. of Eng.*

Three-cornered Constituencies, were boroughs, counties, or county divisions, which were represented by three members. In these constituencies by an amendment proposed by Lord Cairns in the House of Lords, and eventually incorporated in the Reform Bill of 1867, no elector was allowed to vote for more than two candidates. This clause was intended to afford some representation to minorities, but was frequently defeated by careful organisation which enabled one party to carry all the three candidates. They were abolished by the Reform Bill of 1885.

Throgmorton, Francis (*d.* 1583), the son of Sir John Throgmorton, and the nephew of Sir Nicholas Throgmorton, was concerned in the Spanish plots for the release of Mary Queen of Scots. He was arrested (1583) on the evidence of an intercepted letter written to the Scottish Queen by Morgan, stating that the Duke of Guise was ready to invade England. He was racked three times without effect, but on the fourth occasion made a confession, implicating the Spanish ambassador, Mendoza. This confession he subsequently declared to be false, but he was nevertheless executed; and although the evidence at the trial was insufficient, it is probable that he was really guilty of treason.

Throgmorton, Sir Nicholas (*b.* 1513, *d.* 1571), the son of Sir George Throgmorton, who incurred the displeasure of Henry VIII. by refusing to take the oath of supremacy, first comes into notice during the Scotch campaign of Somerset (1547), in which he greatly distinguished himself. In 1554 he was implicated in the rebellion of Sir Thomas Wyatt, but was acquitted on his trial as there was barely sufficient evidence to convict him of having been an active accomplice. His trial is noticeable from the fact that the jurors were imprisoned and heavily fined for their verdict. After the accession of Elizabeth, Throgmorton was restored to favour at court, and in 1559 was sent to France as ambassador, where he took an active part in the conspiracy against the Guises. His alliance with the Huguenot party, and his advice to them to proceed to violent measures, caused his imprisonment by the Duke of Guise in the Castle of St. Germain as "the author of all our troubles." He was one of the strongest opponents of the proposed marriage of Elizabeth with the Earl of Leicester. In 1561, in his capacity of ambassador, he was employed to demand the ratification of the treaty of Edinburgh from Mary Stuart. In 1565 Throgmorton was sent to Scotland to protest against the marriage of the Queen of Scots with Lord Darnley, and gave Mary Stuart, whose cause he warmly espoused, much advice as to the most politic course of action to pursue. Two years later he was again sent to Edinburgh to negotiate with the rebel lords for the queen's release, and is said by his representations to have saved her life at Lochleven. In 1569 he was

arrested and sent to the Tower for being implicated in the plot to bring about a marriage between Mary Stuart, whose partisan he always remained, and the Duke of Norfolk. He obtained his release in a short time, but never regained the queen's favour, and died, as some say, of poison administered by Leicester.

Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Burnet, *Hist. of the Reformation.*

Thugs, The, were an Indian fraternity of hereditary assassins who subsisted on the plunder of the victims they strangled. They generally attached themselves, as if by accident, to the travellers whom they met, and then at a convenient spot strangled them and buried the bodies in a pit hastily dug with a pickaxe which had been consecrated by religious ceremonies. They were bound to secrecy by oath, and had peculiar signs for recognising one another, and a slang language of their own. They considered themselves the especial favourites of Doorga the goddess of thieves and murderers, and celebrated her rites with the most scrupulous piety. The gang was recruited by children kidnapped for the purpose, and cautiously initiated into the arcana of their society. Their victims were counted by thousands annually, and no district was free from their ravages. Lord William Bentinck determined to suppress these ruffians, and, in 1830, organised a regular department presided over by Major Sleeman. An elaborate system was worked out. Every inducement was offered to informers; and in six years more than 2,000 Thugs were arrested and condemned to transportation or death. The confederacy was effectully broken up, and travelling in India ceased to be dangerous. These efforts were crowned by the establishment of a school at Jubbulpore for the Thugs who had turned informers and the children of convicted offenders.

Thurcytel, or Thurkell the Tall, was one of the leaders of the Danish buccaneering community of Iona. Thurkell, when that community was broken up, came with fifty ships of his pirate followers to England at Lammas, 1009, in alliance with Sweyn, and lay at Greenwich. After plundering a great part of England in concert with the Danish king (1010 and 1011), and extorting large sums from the English, Canterbury was betrayed to them by Elfinar. They sacked the city and captured the Archbishop Alphege (Ælfheah), who was murdered by the drunken pirates at a moot on Easter Saturday, 1012, for refusing to pay ransom for himself. He now, with forty-five ships and their crews, having received the £8,000 agreed on with Ethelred, went over to the English service, and helped to defend London against Sweyn in 1013. When the English resolved to forsake Ethelred, it was in Thurkell's ships that the exiled king was carried to Normandy. In 1014 he seems to have been still in Ethelred's pay; but he joined Canute against Edmund Ironside before the battle of Assandun, where he is said to have slain Wulfcytel, the alderman of East England, thus revenging a brother whom Wulfcytel had killed in battle some years back. He was installed in Wulfcytel's aldermanship by Canute in 1017, was outlawed in 1021, reinstated in the king's favour in 1023, and sent to act as regent in Denmark, where he died not long afterwards.

Anglo-Saxon Chronicle; Court Poets of Canute and S. Olaf.

Thurlow, Edward, Baron Thurlow (*b.* 1732, *d.* 1806), was born in Norfolk, the son of the Rev. Thomas Thurlow. He was educated at Caius College, Cambridge, from which he was sent down in 1751 without taking a degree. He at once entered at the Inner Temple. In 1758 he gained some reputation by his spirited conduct towards Sir Fletcher Norton, who was opposed to him in a case. In 1761 he was retained in the Douglas case, and thereby made the acquaintance of Lord Bute, who in 1761 gave him silk. From this time his practice increased, till in 1768 he was returned to Parliament in the Tory interest for Tamworth. He conducted the case of the plaintiff in the Douglas cause with great success; and the next year, after fiercely denying the legality of Wilkes's election for Middlesex, was appointed Solicitor-General. In 1771 he became Attorney-General, and urged the committal of Oliver and Crosby to the Tower in the matter of Junius's letters. In this affair he displayed a bitterness which was still more conspicuous throughout the debates on the American war. "Of all the orators on the government side he was the most violent and exasperating." In 1778 he was appointed Lord Chancellor. "In this office," says Lord Campbell, "he was above all taint or suspicion of corruption, and in his general rudeness he was very impartial; but he was not patient and painstaking, and he did little in settling controverted questions or establishing general principles." In the meantime he still warmly advocated the prosecution of the American war; and, being taunted by the Duke of Grafton on the humbleness of his origin, he made so crushing a retort that he at once became supreme in the House of Lords. The next year, perceiving that the ministry could not last much longer, he began to coquet with the opposition, and was rewarded by being continued in the chancellorship by the Marquis of Rockingham. Far, however, from assisting the new government, he acted as the leader of the "King's Friends," and opposed all the government measures, among others Burke's proposal for economical reform. In spite of his conduct, Lord Shelburne, on succeeding Rockingham, still retained him as chancellor; but on the for-

mation of the Coalition the Great Seal was put into commission. His deposition notwithstanding, "he was still keeper of the king's conscience," and did the king's pleasure in bitterly opposing every government measure. He was again rewarded by being appointed Lord Chancellor by Pitt in 1784, and now appeared as an advocate of a commercial union with Ireland, which he had formerly opposed. In 1787 he presided at the trial of Warren Hastings. The next year he opposed the bill for mitigating the horrors of the Middle Passage. When the king became ill, Lord Thurlow entered into intrigues with Carlton House and the opposition, in order to make his position secure in case of a regency. But Pitt did not fail to discover the manœuvres of his chancellor, and withdrew his confidence. Already, in 1791, Lord Grenville had supplanted Thurlow as leader in the House of Lords, and Pitt decided to dismiss him from his office in May, 1792. For a few years he retired to indulge his chagrin in seclusion; but in 1795 he opened negotiations with the Whigs and the Prince of Wales, and posed as a champion of the rights of the people in his opposition to the Treason and Sedition Bills. Tired of this, he took up the cause of the Princess of Wales, and intrigued to obtain for her a separation from her husband. But all his efforts failed of success; and in 1798, seeing no chance of overthrowing Pitt, he quitted public life, and remained in retirement till the resignation of Pitt in 1801. Then his hopes brightened again, but they were doomed to be disappointed. His day was past, and on Sept. 12, 1806, he died. His appearance and manner in Parliament has been thus described: he was "blunt, coarse, and vigorous, hurled hard words and strong epithets at his opponents in a tremendous voice, with a look and tone of defiance." "Of statesmanship he himself declared that he knew very little;" and, says Lord Stanhope, "It must be owned that his private life by no means eminently qualified him to stand forth as the champion of any Church or creed."

Campbell, *Lives of the Chancellors*; Trevelyan, *Early Life of C. J. Fox*; Jesse, *Mem. of Reign of George III.*; Stanhope, *Life of Pitt*; *Parliamentary Hist.* [W. R. S.]

Thurot, Invasion of. Thurot, an Irishman, who had adopted a French name, and commanded in the French navy, became the terror of English merchant ships during the Seven Years' War. In 1760, with a small armament, he appeared before Carrickfergus, landed 1,000 men, and plundered the town. On Feb. 28, 1760, however, he was overtaken on his way back to France by Capt. Elliot with three frigates, his ships were taken, and he himself killed.

Thynne, Thomas (*d.* 1682), the "Issachar" of Dryden's *Absalom and Achitophel*, was one of Charles II.'s favourites. He at first attached himself to the Duke of York's party, but subsequently joined Monmouth. In 1667 he was employed to negotiate peace with the Dutch. In 1682 he was assassinated in the streets of London by three ruffians hired for the purpose by Count Konigsmark.

Tichbourne, Chidiock, one of the conspirators in the Babington Plot, and one of the six specially told off to murder the queen. He was executed at Tyburn (Sept., 1516).

Tierney, George (*b.* 1761, *d.* 1830), was of Irish descent, but was born at Gibraltar, where his father was a wealthy prize-agent. He was sent to Eton and afterwards to Cambridge. He entered Parliament for Colchester in 1796, and joined the opposition, and very soon became one of Pitt's most formidable opponents. In May, 1798, he called Pitt out for using language of an insulting character about him; but nothing came of the meeting, which took place on Putney Heath. When Fox seceded from Parliament in 1798, Tierney became the leader of the opposition under Addington. Tierney became Treasurer of the Navy in 1803, and a member of the Privy Council, but withdrew on Pitt's resumption of office. In the Talents Administration he became Irish Secretary. He was the constant supporter of Whitbread on the subject of the Continental War, and forsook his party in 1814, when on the escape of Napoleon from Elba, the Whigs, as a body, sided with the ministry in thinking it necessary to renew the war. On all questions of finance he was a great authority, having studied the question with zealous industry. On Ponsonby's death, Tierney became the recognised leader of the Whigs in the House of Commons. He opposed, as was natural, the proceedings against Queen Caroline, though a just appreciation of both sides of the case prevented him from being carried away into any enthusiastic admiration of the queen. On Canning's becoming Prime Minister, Tierney was made Master of the Mint. He retired with Lord Goderich in Jan., 1828.

Walpole, *England from 1815*; *Court and Cabinets of the Regency*; Sidmouth's *Life*.

Tilbury, Gervase of (*d. circa* 1210), an Englishman by birth, was a favourite of the Emperor Otto IV., by whom he was made marshal of the kingdom of Arles. Probably at the request of the Emperor, he wrote a work entitled *Otia Imperialia*, in which, among much miscellaneous information, are some interesting particulars relating to the history of England, especially in the reign of John.

Tilney, Charles, one of the conspirators in the Babington Plot, was arrested in London. He was accused by Savage of having been one of the six selected to murder the queen, and was executed at Tyburn (Sept., 1586).

Tippoo Sultan (*b.* 1749, *d*, 1799), was the son of Hyder Ali, founder of the Mohammedan kingdom of Mysore. He acted under his father during the first Mysore war, and on the death of the latter carried it out successfully, finally concluding the treaty of Mangalore (1784) with the English. He devoted himself to converting his subjects to Mohammedanism, reformed his army, and established foundries for cannon and other arms at Seringapatam. In 1786–7 he was engaged in a war with the Mahrattas and the Nizam, which originated in an aggression of his on the district of Kurnool. In 1789, enraged by the agreement of Lord Cornwallis with the Nizam, and at the same time inspired with courage by the evident fear in which he was held, in spite of the threats of the English, he attacked the state of Travancore, an English ally. This conduct produced the second Mysore war, the defeat of Tippoo at Arikera (May, 1791), and his submission and the limitation of his power and territory by the treaty of Seringapatam. He now engaged in a vast series of intrigues through India and even Europe for the destruction of the English, in which Scindia, the Peishwa, Zemaun Shah of Afghanistan, the French troops of the Nizam, and France were included, and which was considerably facilitated by the policy of Sir John Shore, and the defeat of the Nizam in the Kurdlah campaign. The result of Tippoo's intrigues was the issue of a proclamation (1798) by M. Malartie, French governor of the Mauritius, which revealed the whole plot while it was as yet incomplete. Lord Wellesley was able therefore to complete his preparations, and begin the war while Tippoo was unprepared. The result was the capture of Seringapatam, the death of the Sultan, and the extinction of the Mohammedan kingdom of Mysore by the two treaties of Mysore (1799).

Wilks, *Hist. of Mysore*; Mill, *Hist. of India*; *Wellesley Despatches*; Malcolm, *Political Hist. of India*.

Tithes. Payment of tithes was first made compulsory in England by decrees of the legatine councils of 787, which were attended by kings and secular magnates, and so had the authority of witenagemots. The Danes who settled in England were rendered liable to tithe by the "laws of Edward and Guthrum;" and Athelstan issued a special ordinance to the sheriffs for the payment of tithe over the whole kingdom: the *Donation* of Ethelwulf, often regarded as the foundation of the tithe system, had nothing to do with it. Though the bishop was recognised as the proper receiver and distributor of tithes, landowners were able to pay them to whom they pleased; and it was not till the decretal of Innocent III. in 1200, that it became the rule to pay them to the parson of the parish. Tithes were chiefly *praedial*—on corn, grass, hops, wood, or *mixed*—on wool, milk, pigs. Archbishop Winchelsey and the provincial councils of the thirteenth century failed to bring about the general payment of *personal* tithes (on the profits of handicrafts, commerce, etc.), and these continued to be very exceptional. Another division of tithes is into *greater* on corn, hay, and wood, and *small*, which were usually handed over to the vicar when the benefice belonged to a monastery. Tithes *appropriated* by monasteries passed at the dissolution to lay *impropriators*. The Long Parliament ordered the continuance of tithes by ordinances of 1644 and 1647; and Cromwell thought them necessary for the maintenance of the ministry. By the Tithe Commutation Act of 1836, tithes were commuted into rent-charges, annually adjusted to the average price of corn; and they may be redeemed at not less than twenty-five times their average amount.

Selden, *Hist. of Tithes*, 1618 (whereon Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng.*, iii., 253); Schmid, *Gesetze der Angelsachsen*; Kemble, *Saxons*, ii.; Stubbs *Const. Hist.*, 1, ch. viii.; Carlyle, *Cromwell*; Stephen, *Commentaries*; Phillimore, *Eccl. Law*.

[W. J. A.]

Tithes in Ireland were not levied from grassland, thus leaving only the small Catholic tenants to bear the chief burden; in Munster especially great sums were extracted from the wretched peasantry by the tithe proctors, and the clergy themselves received but little of it. The Whiteboys in part rose in opposition to tithes, and in 1787 two bills—the Insurrection Acts (q.v.), which enabled the clergy to secure tithes by a civil bill without a jury—had to be passed. In 1823 the question of tithes again became prominent. In 1824 an attempt was made to do away with the obvious injustice of tithes, and with some success; by this Act grasslands were no longer to be exempted. In 1830 great disorders amounting to what was called the "tithe war" arose from the collection of tithe, and in 1832 the Lord Lieutenant was authorised to advance £60,000 to the starving clergy. The government now, with the assistance of the military, tried to levy the tithe itself, but could only collect £12,000 out of £100,000 which were due. In 1833 the government gave up the attempt to enforce tithes, and Parliament again granted a million for the destitute clergy. An attempt was now made to substitute a land-tax for the tithe, but in 1833 and 1834 the government failed in their effort, O'Connell (q.v.) threatening the landlords with a crusade against rent if the land-tax, or, in other words, the tithes, formed part of it. The government then agreed to accept O'Connell's own plan, including a reduction of 40 per cent.; the rest was to be provided for by a redeemable land-tax. On the question, however, of what was to be done with the money thus accruing, a contest took place between the Whigs and the House of Lords, the former being in favour of the appropriation of the Church

property to lay uses, the Lords energetically resisting this. It was in consequence of this struggle that tithe commutation bills failed to pass (1834, 1835, 1836). At last, in 1838, the Lords remaining firm, and it being impossible to collect the tithes in Ireland, Lord Melbourne's government gave way. Tithes were commuted for a permanent rent-charge upon the land reduced by one fourth. But the security of this new rent-charge was an ample compensation to the clergy for their loss; as further compensation the loan of a million adverted to above now became a gift.

Titles, Royal. Early royal titles in England as in the other kingdoms of the west were national and not territorial. Thus Egbert was "King of the West Saxons," and in one charter (of 828) "King of the English." Alfred often used the title "King of the Saxons." Edward the Elder commonly calls himself "King of the Anglo-Saxons," a term almost confined to this sovereign and to Edwy. From the time of Athelstan "King of the English," is the usual title; though in one charter he is described as "Ongol-Saxna cyning and *Brytaenwalda* ealles thyses iglandes," which is translated in the Latin version "Angul-Saxonum necnon et totius Britanniae rex." By succeeding kings up to the time of Canute, such titles as "Imperator," "Cæsar totius Britanniae," "Basileus," are frequently used, expressing supremacy within Britain, and independence of all other authority. "King of the English" is the official style of the Norman kings. Henry II. retains this, but also frequently calls himself "King of England, Duke of Normandy and Aquitaine, and Count of Anjou," to which was added upon the conquest of Ireland "Lord of Ireland," "following the syllables," as Selden says, of the bull of Adrian VI., which ordered the Irish to obey Henry "sicut dominum." Edward I. dropped the title derived from Normandy, which had been conquered by the King of France in 1204, and was crowned as "King of England, Lord of Ireland, and Duke of Aquitaine;" and to this title Edward III., in 1339, added that of "King of France," which was retained far into the reign of George III. By a bull dated Oct. 11, 1521, the title "Defender of the Faith," was conferred upon Henry VIII., a title which has been retained until the present. Twenty-one years later Henry marked his rejection of the papal authority by assuming the title King of Ireland (for according to Mediæval jurists the regal title could only be conferred by emperor or pope; *see* Bryce, *Holy Roman Empire*, p. 250). James I. was proclaimed "King of England, Scotland, France, and Ireland," and was wise enough to drop the title "King of Great Britain," which he had assumed by proclamation. After the union with Scotland (1707), Anne was styled "Queen of Great Britain, France, and Ireland," which was exchanged upon the Union with Ireland (1809), for the style since used "of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland King." By the Royal Titles Bill of 1876, Victoria was empowered to add to her style, and on Jan. 1, 1877, she was proclaimed "Empress of India," at Delhi. On his accession Edward VII. became Emperor of India. On Nov. 4, 1901, the words "and of the British Dominions beyond the seas" were inserted in the king's style of titles.

Tippermuir, The Battle of (Sept. 1, 1644), was fought four miles west of Perth between the Cavaliers, under Montrose, and the Covenanters, led by Lord Elcho. Montrose gained a complete victory.

Tobago (Assumption Island), the most southerly of the Windward Islands, was discovered by Columbus in 1498. In 1608 the island was claimed by England; and in 1625 some colonists from Barbadoes attempted to form a settlement there, but were prevented by the natives. In 1748 the neutrality of Tobago was recognised, but in 1762 it was taken by the English, and it was ceded to them by the peace of 1763. In 1770 a slave rebellion broke out, but was speedily suppressed; in 1781 the island was again occupied by the French for two years, and, though retaken by us in 1793, was surrendered to them by the treaty of Paris (1802). The next year, however, it was captured by General Greenfield, and finally ceded to England in 1815. The government is in the hands of a Commissioner appointed by the Governor of Trinidad.

Toleration Act, The (May 24, 1689), was a measure due to the Earl of Nottingham. It passed both Houses with but little difficulty, and received the hearty consent of King William. In order to be properly appreciated it must be judged by the religious prejudices of a past age. It relaxed the stringent conditions of the Act of Uniformity, the Five Mile Act, and the Conventicle Act. "It exempts," says Hallam, "from the penalties of existing statutes against separate conventicles, or absence from the established worship, such as should take the oath of allegiance, and subscribe the declaration against popery, and such ministers of separate congregations as should subscribe the Thirty-nine Articles of the Church of England except three, and part of a fourth. It gives also an indulgence to Quakers without this condition. Meeting-houses are required to be registered, and are prevented from insult by a penalty. No part of this toleration extended to papists, or to such as deny the Trinity." The inconsistencies of the Act are that persecution continued to be the rule, toleration the exception; and that freedom of conscience was granted in a most capricious manner. "The

provisions," remarks Macaulay, "removed a vast mass of evil without shocking a vast mass of prejudice; they put an end at once, and for ever, to a persecution which had raged during four generations."

Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*; *Parl. Hist.*; Stoughton, *Religion in England.*

Tone, Theobald Wolfe (*b.* 1763, *d.* 1798), the founder of the Society of United Irishmen. He entered Trinity College, Dublin, in 1781, but had little taste for study. He took his B.A. in 1786, came to London, and for a time was a member of the Middle Temple. He returned to Dublin in 1788, and was called to the Irish Bar, but politics proved more attractive than the law. He became paid secretary to the United Irishmen, and was a whole-hearted enthusiast for the French Revolution. On the arrest of Jackson, one of his associates, he felt himself seriously implicated, and, on the single condition of not being called to bear witness against Jackson, agreed to leave his country for America. Accordingly, he sailed for America with his wife, children, and sister on June 13, 1795. He did not, however, consider himself bound to remain there; and after an interview with the French Minister at Philadelphia, sailed for France on Jan. 1, 1797, in order to enlist French sympathies on behalf of the independence of Ireland. In Paris he was encouraged to believe that the French would undertake a considerable expedition, to be commanded by Hoche, and received a commission in the army of the Republic.

The expedition, consisting of 43 vessels in all, with 15,000 troops on board, actually started on Dec. 15, but was driven back by a storm. A second expedition was rendered abortive by foul weather and the superiority of Admiral Duncan's fleet, and, to add to Tone's disappointment, Hoche died. On the outbreak of the Irish rebellion in 1798, a French fleet actually sailed, came into action with an English squadron off Lough Swilly on Oct. 10, and after a stubborn fight was worsted. The *Hoche*, with Tone on board, struck, and he was made prisoner. On Nov. 10 he was tried by court-martial and condemned to death for high treason. He pleaded his right, as a French officer, to be shot, but this was refused him. Sooner than submit to be hanged, he attempted to take his life in prison; the attempt was not immediately successful, but he died, after lingering a week in great agony, and so escaped the ignominy which he dreaded.

Tooke, John Horne (*b.* 1736, *d.* 1812), was the son of John Horne, and assumed the title of Tooke after being adopted by William Tooke, of Purley. His family persuaded him, after taking his degree in 1758, to enter the Church, but his own inclination was for the law, and in 1779 he tried to obtain admission to the bar, but his clerical profession prevented him. Tooke had already become conspicuous as a democratic politician; at first as a friend of Wilkes, with whom, however, he speedily quarrelled, and was in consequence attacked by Junius. In 1775 he was sentenced to a year's imprisonment and a fine, for saying that the Americans who fell at Lexington had been "murdered" by the English soldiers. He plunged actively into the political agitation which followed the French Revolution, and in 1794 he was committed for trial on account of his connection with the supposed treason of the Corresponding Society, but after an able and witty defence he was acquitted. After contesting Westminster twice without success, he was returned for old Sarum in 1801, but a bill was passed in the next session rendering clerical persons ineligible. His last days were spent in easy retirement. Tooke had a great social reputation; his *Diversions of Purley* is an original, though somewhat primitive, work on philology.

There are Lives of Tooke by J. A. Graham, A. Stephen, and W. Hamilton.

Toolsye Bhye was the favourite concubine of Jeswunt Rao Holkar. During the insanity of the latter she carried on the government in conjunction with his chief minister, Baharam Sett. On his death, in 1811, she adopted a son of his by another concubine, and conducted the government as regent. The army, however, was too large and turbulent for the State, and the revenue was totally unable to support them. They were therefore generally in a mutinous state, and at last drove the Bhye to seek refuge in Kotah, by the threat of actual violence. Her amours and crimes embroiled her with Guffoor Khan, the leader of the Patan horse, and in the warfare which followed she in person led her Mahratta horse with the most undaunted courage to the assault. Between these various factions the government of the Holkar State fell into complete anarchy, the administration being vested in the Bhye nominally, and all real power being in the hands of the military leaders. On the outbreak of Bajee Rao, in 1817, the chiefs assembled their forces, and determined to support the Peishwa, but Toolsye Bhye opened negotiations with the British government, offering to place the young Holkar, and the Holkar State, under their protection. These proceedings of hers being suspected, the chiefs seized and imprisoned her ministers, and she herself was put to death.

Tories, The. The name is derived from an Irish word, meaning to pursue for the sake of plunder. It was applied to those Irish who in 1654 preferred to remain as outlaws in their own lands to emigrating to Connaught

The government offered prizes for their heads, and a free pardon to any Tory who brought in the head of a confederate. In 1693, after the civil war had come to an end, they again appear; they are described by the law as "out of their keeping." A statute passed (7 William and Mary) put a reward of £20 on the head of any Tory, and assessed the Catholic inhabitants of a barony for any loss caused by them. This statute was not repealed till 1776. In English politics the word appears to have been first used contemptuously to designate the Court and Roman Catholic party in the disputes between the Abhorrers (q.v.) and Petitioners in 1679. In the debates on the Exclusion Bill it was applied insultingly to the partisans of James II. In William III.'s reign the term was coming into current use without an opprobrious meaning, as the title of the party who opposed the Whig interest in Church and State; and in the reign of Anne it was the common designation of this party. On account, however, of its suspicious connection with Jacobitism, and the honourable and respectable traditions attaching to the name of Whig, because of the large share borne by the Whigs in the Revolution, Tory was not a title which any party was anxious to assume. To the younger Pitt was due the revival of a great party in the state, resting on popular support as well as on that of the crown, and opposed to the Whigs, who had become to some extent an aristocratic faction; and under his administration the name was generally acknowledged by the party which towards the closing period of his premiership probably included the majority of the middle and propertied classes, and was especially identified with the continuance of the war with France, and opposition to what were assumed to be revolutionary and radical changes in domestic affairs. Since that period the word has held its own as the designation of one of the two great parties in English politics; though in the nineteenth century that of Conservative was often preferred to it. But this name has hardly supplanted the older designation as that of Liberal has done in the case of the rival party. A Tory perhaps is understood to be a person less indulgent towards the principles of his opponent than a Conservative. But the two terms are used almost indiscriminately in political phraseology.

Cooke, Hist. of Party.

Torres Vedras, The Lines of (1810—1811), were thrown up by Wellington, in order that he might protect Lisbon and the army during the winter, and thus baffle the superior forces of Massena, in their efforts to drive the British out of Portugal. "They consisted," says Napier, "of three distinct ranges of defence. The first, extending from Alhandra on the Tagus to the mouth of the Zizandre on the sea-coast, was, following the inflections of the hills, twenty-nine miles long. The second, traced at a distance varying from six to ten miles in the rear of the first, stretched from Quintella on the Tagus to the mouth of the St. Lorenza, being twenty-four miles in length." The third was intended to cover a forced embarkation, and extended from Passo d'Arcos on the Tagus to the coast. Massena soon perceived the impossibility of carrying the position at any point or of turning it, except from the Tagus, where a large flotilla of English gunboats was moored. Throughout October Massena, though harassed by sickness and increasing scarcity of supplies, persisted in his efforts to turn the position by the Tagus; but he was as persistently foiled by Wellington's manœuvres. Towards the middle of the month, Massena fell back on Santarem, but there stood firm, and Wellington, who had thought him in full retreat, had to abandon the idea of attacking him, and drew back into his lines. In November Massena again resumed his plans on the Tagus, but without success. During December and January the armies remained quiet; but the difficulty of obtaining supplies and forage led the French into horrible excesses and marauding expeditions, which undermined the discipline of the army. Had Wellington been vigorously reinforced from England, he would have attacked Massena's weakened forces; but without them he was compelled to await Massena's retreat. On March 2, 1811, the latter began his retreat, which he executed with "infinite ability." But for the lines of Torres Vedras Wellington could have hardly held his ground against Massena's much larger force.

Napier, *Peninsular War*, bk. xi., cc. 8—10.

Torrington, Arthur Herbert, Earl of, Lord High Admiral (*d.* 1716), became Rear-Admiral in 1678. In 1682 he raised the siege of Tangier. In 1684 he was placed on the Admiralty commission, and subsequently returned for Dover. He became Vice-Admiral and Master of the Robes (1685), but on refusing to consent to the repeal of the Test Act was dismissed from his offices. He thereupon entered into communication with Dykvelt, the envoy of William of Orange, and was the bearer of the invitation to that prince. He commanded the fleet with which William sailed to England, with the title of Lieutenant Admiral General. After the revolution he was placed first on the Admiralty Commission. In 1689 he engaged in a skirmish with the French fleet in Bantry Bay, but without much result. He was created Baron Herbert and Viscount Torrington, and received the thanks of Parliament. In this year he commanded the English and Dutch ships against the French, but retreated before them up the Channel, and when he re-

ceived an order to engage off Beachy Head, sent the Dutch ships alone into action, and when they were completely crushed, fled into the Thames. He was tried by court-martial and acquitted, but not again employed. "There seems," says Macaulay, "to be no sufficient grounds for charging Torrington with disaffection, still less can it be suspected that an officer, whose whole life had been passed in confronting danger, and who had always borne himself bravely, wanted that personal courage which hundreds of sailors on board every ship under his command possessed. But there is a higher courage of which Torrington was wholly destitute. He shrank from all responsibility, from the responsibility of fighting, and from the responsibility of not fighting."

Burnet, *Hist. of His Own Time; Paris Gazette*; Ranke, *Hist of Eng.*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*

Torrington, George Byng, Viscount (*b.* 1663, *d.* 1733), volunteered for naval service at the age of fifteen. In 1681 he left the sea at the request of General Kirke, Governor of Tangier, and became under him ensign, and then lieutenant. He was employed to carry assurances of friendship from the English malcontents to William of Orange, to whom he was privately introduced by Admiral Russell. In 1690 he was second in command to Sir George Rooke, at the battle of Beachy Head. During the next six years he served under Admiral Russell. He was present at the destruction of the Spanish treasure ships at Vigo Bay. Next year he was made rear-admiral, and served under Sir Cloudesley Shovel. He commanded the squadron which captured the citadel of Gibraltar, and was knighted for his bravery at the battle of Malaga. In 1705 he was elected member for Plymouth. In 1706 he helped to relieve Barcelona, and commanded the vessels detached for the reduction of Carthagena and Alicant. In 1707 he served under Shovel at the abortive siege of Toulon. He frustrated the Pretender's expedition to Scotland. He was placed in command of an expedition fitted out for a descent on the French coast, but owing to the fact that he was badly supplied with provisions and information, could effect little. In 1709 he was placed on the Admiralty Commission, but was removed shortly before the queen's death. In 1715 he was made a baronet for his vigilance in watching the French coast. In 1717, on the outbreak of hostilities with the northern powers, he shut the Swedish fleet up in the Baltic. In the following year he was made admiral and commander-in-chief. He was sent to counteract the designs of Alberoni against the Italians. In order to relieve Count Daun, who was besieged in Messina, he attacked and utterly destroyed the Spanish fleet off Cape Passaro, with the loss of only one ship. On his return he was sworn of the Privy Council, and made Rear-Admiral and Treasurer of the Navy. In 1721 he was raised to the peerage as Viscount Torrington. In 1727 he became First Lord of the Admiralty, a post which he held until his death.

Burton, *Reign of Queen Anne*; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*

Tory. [Tories.]

Tostig (*d.* 1066) was the third son of Godwin. In 1051 he married Judith, sister of Baldwin of Flanders, and in the same year he shared his father's exile. In 1055 he was created Earl of Northumbria, and was seemingly a great personal favourite of King Edward. In 1061, in company with Girth and Archbishop Ealdred, he made a pilgrimage to Rome, and during his absence Northumbria was invaded and ravaged by the Scots. In 1063 he joined Harold in his Welsh campaign. In 1065 his earldom broke out into revolt, his harsh and tyrannical government being no longer bearable. The Northumbrians held a meeting at York, outlawed and deposed Tostig, and chose Morkere as their earl; a massacre of Tostig's followers ensued, and the insurgents marched southwards to support their claims. With the advice of Harold, the king yielded to the demands of the insurgents, and Tostig was deposed and banished. He took refuge at Bruges, where he heard of Harold's election to the throne; having failed to induce William to make an alliance with him, he got together a fleet and ravaged the Isle of Wight and the southern coast. Thence he went to Lincolnshire, probably with the hope of recovering Northumbria, and failing in this, he retired to Scotland, where in all probability he met Harold Hardrada, whom he induced to join him in an invasion of England. At first they were successful, and defeated Edwin and Morkere at the battle of Fulford; but King Harold, hearing of the invasion, marched northwards promptly, and met them at Stamford Bridge (Sept. 25, 1066) where the Norwegian force was totally defeated, and Tostig and Harold Hardrada slain. Tostig left two sons, Ketil and Skule, who settled in Norway.

Anglo-Saxon Chron.; *Lives of Edward the Confessor* (Rolls Series); Freeman, *Norman Conquest.*

Totnes, George Carew, Earl of (*b.* 1555, *d.* 1629), son of George Carew, Dean of Exeter, served with credit in Ireland during his youth, and was entrusted by Elizabeth with a high command in the expedition to Cadiz (1596). The following year he accompanied Raleigh in his disastrous attempt on the Azores; and on his return was made President of Munster. His government in Ireland was firm, and in 1601 he totally defeated a Spanish force, which had landed at Kinsale. Two years later Sir George became governor of Guernsey, and in 1605 was made a peer by

James I., being subsequently appointed Master of the Ordnance. He was created Earl of Totnes by Charles I. as a reward for his military services.

Toulouse, The Battle of (April 10, 1814), was the last of the battles of the Peninsular War. Soult had thrown himself into Toulouse, and was resolved to hold the place at all hazards. As Wellington approached he took up a strong position in front of the town, which was protected on the other side by the Garonne, and outside that by the St. Cyprian heights, strongly fortified. The battle began early on the morning of the 10th. From six o'clock till four in the afternoon it raged, and in that time 4,600 men of the allies had fallen, while the French lost 3,000. Finally the French were defeated, and slowly retired from all their positions. The battle was—"a lamentable spilling of blood, and a useless, for before this period Napoleon had abdicated the throne of France, and a provisional government was constituted at Paris."

Napier, *Peninsular War;* Clinton, *Peninsular War; Wellington Despatches.*

Toulouse, The War of (1159), is the name given to the campaign undertaken by Henry II. in order to enforce his wife's claim to the county of Toulouse. The expedition, which lasted for some months, was eventually unsuccessful, though Henry's troops performed some brilliant exploits. This little war is important in English constitutional history, since it may be taken as the point at which the payment of scutage was accepted as a commutation for personal service by feudal tenants. The English knights had no temptation to fight in a quarrel not their own in the south of France, and willingly paid a tax of two marks on the knight's fee, to enable Henry to equip a mercenary force, instead of following him to the war.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, chap. xii.

Towns, in England, were probably in their origin only a development of the rural township or vicus, which Bishop Stubbs calls "the unit of constitutional machinery, or local administration." The *tun* means a quick-set hedge, and in the same way *burh*, or *borough*, "a more strictly organised form of township," was the fortified house and court-yard of the great noble. Both forms are in turn developments of, or at all events, of kindred origin to, the *mark*, or community of free cultivators. Before the Conquest the constitution of the towns was very simple. Each had its *tun-gemót*, or assembly of freemen, and its *tun-gerefa*, or chief administrative officer, who, originally elective, was soon appointed by the lord, or in free towns chosen by the king. In its ecclesiastical form the township was a *parish*, or part of a parish, the boundaries of the two communities usually coinciding, and as such the free inhabitants assembled at vestry meetings. It also had exercised judicial powers, functions which were afterwards usurped to a considerable extent by the manor courts, and the larger boroughs, which had the constitution of the hundred rather than of the townships, were exempt from the jurisdiction of the hundred courts. The townships, on the other hand, were represented by the reeve and four men at the courts of the hundred and of the shire. As yet there is no approach to the modern idea of a corporation with its legal personality, its common seal, and its perpetual succession, and London under its port-reeve and bishops was only an aggregate of communities, townships, and parishes. It is impossible to describe with any minuteness the various steps by which the towns acquired their municipal privileges. From very early times, they had, as we have seen, tribunals of their own, from which by the time of Henry III. the sheriff was excluded. Soon after the Conquest they had in several instances gained the right to compound for taxation, the collection of which was by degrees taken out of the hands of the sheriffs and assessed by the citizens themselves. This was known as the Firma Burgi, or rent paid to the crown from the borough. As the growth of the town constitutions was never uniform, but varied in each individual case, we must be content with indicating their broad features. In most of the commercial towns the gilds or associations of merchants rapidly assumed importance, and were granted by charter the privileges of owning property, and of making bye-laws, so that they became practically the governing bodies of the towns: all the more as their members would also be the members of the township courts and courts leet. Their chiefs were the aldermen, and their chief functions were to regulate trade. At the same time the communa or corporation, probably of French origin, appears alongside of the gild, with the mayor as its representative officer. The first mayor of whom we have any historical knowledge was Fitz-Alwyn, the Mayor of London in the reign of Richard I., and in 1215 John granted the citizens the right of electing their mayor annually, which, after a severe struggle with the royal power, they succeeded in making good. The provincial towns, in most cases, lagged behind the capital, and we do not find a mayor in Leicester, for instance, until 1246. By an obscure process of amalgamation a municipality was evolved out of the three elements of the borough, the original township, representing the primitive landowning community, the gild, or voluntary association of merchants, with its alderman, and the communa, with its mayor, until by the fifteenth century we have a close corporation of mayor, aldermen, and council, whose numbers and organisation are defined by charter. These corporate officers acquired under Richard II. the right of exer-

cising the functions of justices of the peace, and the right of each chartered borough or city to send members to Parliament, which had been practically acquired during or before the reign of Edward III., was definitely recognised by charter in the case of Wenlock in the reign of Edward IV. By this time, too, the internal struggle for municipal privileges, which had been going on in some cases for nearly three centuries between the aldermen, representing the old merchant gild, and the newer craft gilds, or trading companies which had sprung up in later times, was over. The companies had established their own right to form part of the municipal governing oligarchy. Under the Tudors began the policy of strengthening the power of the municipal corporations at the expense of the inhabitants. In the reign of Henry VII. a system of close election and irresponsible government was introduced, the mayor and councils being in the first instance nominated by the crown, and subsequently self-elected by co-optation. It often happened also that the power of electing the borough members of Parliament was made over to the corporation by charter, to the material injury of the power of the burgesses. Under Charles II. and James II. the last remnants of popular representation, by the exercise of which the towns still stoutly opposed the personal power of the crown, were vigorously attacked. In 1683 the corporation of London was remodelled in a way that made it the creature of the court, no mayor or sheriff being admitted until approved by the king, and *quo warranto* informations were soon afterwards brought against other towns by Judge Jeffreys, many of which hastened to meet the government by a voluntary surrender. The corporations were then remodelled on an oligarchical plan, by which the king was reserved the right of appointing the first members. The object of this aggression was, of course, to control the return of members of Parliament, a course of action which had already been inaugurated under the Tudors by the profuse creation of rotten boroughs. After the Restoration the old charters of the remodelled corporations were for the most part restored to them, and they continued to exercise their narrow independence. The Parliamentary side of the question now came exclusively to the front, and the incompetency of the close corporations for the purposes of local government were forgotten, while attention was turned to the system by which pocket boroughs flourished, and the franchise was limited to small bodies of freemen. After this abuse was remedied by the great Reform Act of 1832, reformers began to probe the corruption of municipal institutions. The report of the royal commission appointed in 1832 revealed an incredible amount of jobbery and corruption, municipal councils being for the most part self-elective, and holding office for life, while the freemen, who often formed a very small fraction of the population, alone had any share in the local administration. The result of this state of affairs was that finance was managed most negligently and dishonestly, and that justice became a matter of political partisanship. By the Municipal Corporations Act of 1835, framed on the report of the commission, these abuses were swept away, and a uniform system of government established in the 183 boroughs to which it applied. The government was placed in the hands of the mayor, aldermen, and councillors, forming a council. They were to be elected by the burgesses, *i.e.*, the resident ratepayers, freemen as such having no rights as burgesses, though they were entitled to Parliamentary franchise. The qualification for a vote at first, three years' payment of rates, was afterwards reduced to one. Twenty of the largest boroughs were to be divided by the king in council into wards, and a certain number of common councilmen were attached to each ward. Separate committees of burgesses were to manage the charity estates, and, should an adequate salary be provided, a recorder, who was to be a barrister of five years' standing, might be appointed. There was also a provision by which new municipalities might be created by charter on the petition of a certain unspecified number of resident householders, but only about seventy towns have since availed themselves of it, partly because of the cumbersome nature of the process, and partly because of the opposition of the local authorities. The Municipal Corporations Act has since been frequently amended, and the whole legislation bearing on the subject has been consolidated by the Municipal Corporations Act of 1882. London was specially exempted from the Act of 1835, and was allowed to retain its old constitution. In Scotland, where the history of the boroughs is closely akin to that of England, the corporations were reformed in 1833. Those of Ireland were regulated, and many of them abolished, by the Irish Corporations Act of 1840.

Madox, *Firma Burgi;* Brady, *On Boroughs;* Gross, *Gilda Mercatoria* (Göttingen, 1883); Maitland, *Hist. of London;* Thompson, *Illustrations of Municipal Antiquities;* Stubbs, *Const. Hist.;* Hallam, *Const. Hist.;* Merewether and Stephens, *Hist. of Boroughs;* Mr. Ludlow's article in the *Fortnightly Review* for Oct., 1869; Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, v. 460, *et seq.* See also *Municipal Corporations Report, 1835*, 5 & 6 Will. IV. c. 76, and M. D. Chalmers, *Local Government.*

Townshend, Charles, Lord (*b.* 1676, *d.* 1738), entered public life as a Tory, but soon joined the Whigs. He was one of the commissioners for the Union with Scotland. In 1709 he was sent with Marlborough as plenipotentiary to the Hague. There he concluded the Barrier Treaty, which Marlborough refused to sign. He completed his connection with the Whigs by marrying Walpole's sister.

In 1712 he was severely censured by the Tories as the author of the Barrier Treaty. George I., before his arrival in England, appointed him Secretary of State and Prime Minister, passing over the old Whig Junto, but he soon became distasteful to the king. He was disliked by the Hanoverian courtiers. He opposed George's schemes with regard to Bremen and Verden. Perceiving that Charles XII. of Sweden was threatening England, he was anxious for peace with Russia. Urged on by Sunderland, the king dismissed him from office, offering in exchange the lord lieutenancy of Ireland, which he accepted. But he was soon dismissed also from that position when, on the schism between Walpole and Stanhope breaking out in the ministry, his followers voted against a supply for hostilities against Sweden. Finding opposition useless, he rejoined the ministry in 1719 as Lord President. On Walpole's becoming Premier, he was made Secretary of State. He soon quarrelled with the king's favourite, Carteret, with whose more ambitious views on foreign policy he could not agree. The contest came to an issue at the marriage of Madame de Platen, sister of the king's mistress, the Countess of Darlington, in Paris. There Townshend sent Horace Walpole as rival ambassador to Carteret; and the latter was forced by the king to withdraw to the lord lieutenancy of Ireland. In 1725 Townshend concluded the Treaty of Hanover between England, France, and Prussia. This was to check the designs of Austria, Spain, and the Duke of Bourbon, as formulated in the Treaty of Vienna (1725), namely, a Stuart restoration and the surrrender of Gibraltar and Minorca. This treaty, which Walpole considered was too precipitate, was the cause of his quarrel with Townshend. "The firm," he said, "should be Walpole and Townshend, not Townshend and Walpole." After a violent quarrel with Walpole, Townshend retired from public life. He passed the remainder of his life at Reynham, refusing to take further part in politics. To him we owe the cultivation of the turnip, and hence a proper rotation of crops.

Coxe, *Memoirs of Walpole;* Ralph, *Hist. of Eng.;* Horace Walpole, *Memoirs;* Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*

Townshend, Charles (*b.* 1725, *d.* 1767), was the second son of the third Viscount Townshend. In 1747 he was returned to Parliament for Yarmouth. On entering Parliament he joined the Opposition, but without much warmth. In 1749 his large family influence obtained for him a place at the Board of Trade. The next year he was nominated one of the commissioners for executing the office of Lord High Admiral. In 1756 he became a member of the Privy Council. In March, 1761, he became Secretary at War. Here he fluctuated between Pitt and Bute, at one time supporting one, at another the other. In 1765 he accepted the office of Paymaster-General in the Rockingham government, although he had no faith in its strength, and called it "a mere lute-string administration, pretty summer wear." In the following year he became Chancellor of the Exchequer in the Chatham ministry. But, as usual, Townshend was not decided in his support of the cabinet, of which he was now a member. As Chancellor of the Exchequer he introduced a budget, in which he pledged himself to the reduction of the land-tax at the end of a year, but on a motion of the opposition that the reduction should take place at once, the government was defeated. With Chatham ill, the members of the ministry broke away from all control, and Charles Townshend in particular gave vent to the wildest frolics of his genius. In one of the most celebrated of his speeches he said that the government "had become, what he had often been called, a weather-cock." The revenue which he failed to obtain by the land-tax he now sought by taxing with import duties many small commodities sent to the American colonies. It was a most fatal measure, the evil results of which Townshend did not live to see, as he died of a fever on Sept. 4, 1767. Walpole, who was a friend of his, says that "Townshend had every great talent, and very little quality. His vanity exceeded even his abilities, and his suspicions seemed to make him doubt if he had any. With such a capacity he must have been the greatest man of his age, and, perhaps, inferior to no man of any age, had his faults been only in moderate proportion."

Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.; Grenville Papers; Chatham Correspondence;* Walpole, *Memoirs of George III.*

Townshend, George, 1st Marquis of (*b.* 1724, *d.* 1807), served in the army, and concluded, after Wolfe's death, the capitulation which gave Quebec to England. In 1767 he became Viceroy of Ireland, and, in accordance with George III.'s instructions, tried to govern in defiance of the Ponsonbys and Shannons; but, defeated on the Army Bill in 1768, had to abandon the attempt. A new Parliament was no more docile than the last, and corruption was now tried. By means of the new oligarchy of crown pensioners, the great families were defeated, and in 1771 Townshend secured a favourable Parliament. But by 1772 matters had so far changed that complete defeat could only be averted by making peace with Lord Shannon. Disgusted with his office, the Lord Lieutenant resigned and retired to England, leaving behind him £300,000 of arrears.

Townshend Correspondence; Froude, *English in Ireland.*

Towton, The Battle of (Mar. 29, 1461), was the most important engagement in the Wars

of the Roses. After the second battle of St. Alban's, Queen Margaret and the Lancastrians had retired to the north, while Edward and Warwick entered London, and the former was proclaimed king. The Yorkists immediately determined on marching northwards and completing the defeat of the Lancastrians. On March 12 the Yorkists were at Pontefract, the Lancastrians at York. After a skirmish at Ferrybridge, the two armies met near the village of Towton, not far from Tadcaster. The battle was fought on Palm Sunday, March 29, and lasted ten hours, ending in the complete victory of the Yorkists, and the rout and dispersion of the Lancastrian army. The Earl of Northumberland fell in the battle, Devonshire and Wiltshire were beheaded after it, and it is said that from 28,000 to 30,000 men were left dead on the field. Henry and Margaret, with Somerset and Exeter, fled into Scotland, while Edward returned in triumph to London.

Trade, The Board of. Councils "of Trade and Plantation" were created by Charles II. after the Restoration, charged with the concerns of the colonies and merchant shipping. The two were united in 1672, and abolished in 1675. The council was reappointed in 1695, and continued to exercise a certain control over colonial and mercantile matters for nearly a century afterwards. In 1782, having long been found inefficient, it was abolished. In 1786 the Board of Trade with substantially its present functions was established by order in Council. Its functions have been regulated by several Acts, notably those of 1845, 1850, and 1867, and it has been charged with the superintendence of Railways (1840) and Merchant Shipping (1854 and 1867).

Trade, Foreign, Legislation on. False notions about political economy, combined with frequent European wars and with the conditions of early society, caused constant legislation on the subject of our trade with other nations. Restrictions were held to be the best means of increasing our own wealth and diminishing the prosperity of our rivals; wealth was considered to consist exclusively of gold and silver; and, when this opinion was at last overthrown, it only gave place to the idea that the progress of a country depended on the excess in value of our exports over our imports. The extent to which these ideas prevailed and the change which has come over our policy will be best understood by noting some of the most remarkable instances of legislation on this subject. In 1261 the exportation of wool and the importation of cloth were alike forbidden. As the power of the crown to tax home merchandise was diminished, the king encouraged foreign merchants, whom he could tax without reference to Parliament, and in 1303 Edward I. gave them licence to trade on payment of special duties. The Statute of Staples [Staple] in 1353, though restrictive, was not on the whole injurious. By 28 Edward III. c. 5 the exportation of iron was forbidden. In 1402 all importers were ordered to invest their money in English goods, and the exportation of gold and silver was forbidden. Our craftsmen having in 1463 complained to Parliament of the injury done to them by the importation of goods of better quality than were produced in England, the importation of a large number of articles was forbidden. Among these were ribands, silk, laces, saddlery, ironwork, and playing cards. This prohibition was extended both as regards time and the number of articles in 1484. In the same year (1 Rich. III. c. 9) restrictions were placed on the trade of Italian and Catalan merchants, and foreigners were forbidden to exercise any craft in England except as the servants of English masters, or to have any share in the clothing trade. The trade with the Netherlands was encouraged by a famous treaty called "Intercursus Magnus," made in 1496 between Henry VII. and the Archduke Philip. The next year Parliament virtually established the Society of Merchant Adventurers, by controlling the exaction of fees demanded by a fraternity of London merchants of all Englishmen not of their company trading in Netherland ports. By 3 Hen. VIII. c. 1 the exportation of coin, plate, &c., was forbidden under the penalty of forfeiture of double the value of the export.

By an Act regulating the Baltic trade in 1566, the Russia Company was forbidden to export any English commodity except in English ships. This principle of fostering our carrying trade by restriction was soon carried further. The charter granted to the East India Company in 1600 to trade with Asia, Africa, and America, "beyond the Cape of Good Hope to the Straits of Magellan," brought us into rivalry with the Dutch. In this rivalry we were at a disadvantage, because our high dues caused our merchants to freight Dutch ships for importation. To meet this the first Navigation Act was passed in 1651, and this was afterwards extended by 12 Car. II. c. 18. By these acts the importation of foreign commodities was restricted to English ships or to the ships of the country producing the import. The act of Charles II., once held to be "the *carta maritima* of England," had an injurious influence on our trade. The navigation laws, however, remained in force until they fell before the enlightened policy of Mr. Huskisson in 1825, the last remains of them being repealed by 17 Vic. c. 5. In 1663 more correct views having prepared the way for the downfall of the false notions about money, leave was given to export gold and silver. In 1698 the East India Company obtained a renewal of its exclusive privileges of trade.

Restrictions were laid on the importation of corn by 22 Car. II. c. 3. High prices in 1766 led to a suspension of high duties, and considerable liberty of importation was granted in 1773. The complaints of the landholders, however, caused the imposition of renewed restriction in 1791. The success of the policy of Mr. Huskisson, who in 1824, by lowering duties, enormously stimulated the silk, wool. and other trades, pointed to the wisdom of removing commercial restrictions, and by 9 Geo. IV. c. 60 a graduated scale of duties on corn was established. This system, however, was open to objection, because it introduced a new element of uncertainty into the trade. Carrying on the policy of Mr. Huskisson, Sir Robert Peel in 1845 abolished the duties on no less than 420 articles of trade; and succeeded in 1846 in repealing the duties on the importation of corn. Since that date the pressure of taxation has been removed from many articles, and the work of Sir R. Peel has been consummated by Mr. Gladstone, who in 1860 succeeded in prevailing on Parliament to approve a treaty with France (since, however, terminated by the French), by which a large number of duties and prohibitions on our trade with that country were swept away.

Macpherson, *Hist. of British Commerce*; Adam Smith, *Wealth of Nations*, ed. McCulloch; Cunningham, *Growth of English Industry and Commerce*.

[W. H.]

Trades' Unions. The Act of Apprentices (5 Eliz.) made the mediæval gild regulations with regard to apprentices binding upon all the trades in existence at the time, and in addition ordered an annual assessment of wages by the justices. But these enactments gradually ceased to be observed, and as early as 1725 temporary associations were formed among workmen to secure the carrying out of the Act. But these were declared illegal by Act of Parliament, although the attempts of the legislature to revive the practice of fixing wages by the justices proved resultless. In spite of evils in particular industries, the relations of the various classes engaged in manufacture were fairly good during the earlier part of the century. The introduction of machinery, however, and with it of the factory system, soon caused an industrial war; journeymen everywhere petitioned that the Act 5 Eliz. should be enforced, and began to form societies and raise funds for the prosecution of offending masters. But while Parliament suspended the Act for the benefit of employers year after year, and repealed it for the woollen manufacture in 1809, and generally in 1814, associations of workmen were rendered penal by Acts of 1799 and 1800. The unions either assumed the guise of friendly provident societies to evade the Acts, or else became secret associations, with the usual evil results. In 1824 Joseph Hume gained the appointment of a Parliamentary committee, which reported that the administration of the law had been one-sided, that it had only touched workmen, and not masters who had combined, adding also that the law had, "in the opinion of many of both parties, tended to produce mutual irritation and distrust, and to give a violent character to the combinations." In accordance with its advice, all the Acts against combination were repealed in 1824; but so numerous were the strikes that followed that a most unwise Amending Act was passed next year, according to which, though persons meeting to determine their own wages were exempted from punishment, "all meetings or agreements for the purpose of affecting the wages or hours of work of persons not present at the meeting, or parties to the agreement, were conspiracies. So were all agreements for controlling a master in the management of his business. So were all agreements not to work in the company of any given person, or to persuade other persons to leave their employment, or not to engage themselves. In fact, there was scarcely an act performed by any workman, as the member of a trade-union, which was not an act of conspiracy and a misdemeanour." Besides, the general Acts against conspiracy could still be employed against unionists, as in 1834, when six Dorchester labourers were sentenced to seven years' transportation for "administering unlawful oaths"—*i.e.*, admitting members into a union. During the next thirty years, in spite of these Acts, the unionist movement spread with great rapidity; in 1851 a combination of several associations produced the Amalgamated Society of Engineers, which played a part in trade-union struggles comparable to that of the weavers among the mediæval gilds. Public attention was recalled to the unions by the Sheffield outrages (q.v.) of 1866, which led to the appointment of a Royal Commission in 1867 to examine the whole matter. But it was clearly proved that the large majority of unions had nothing illegal in their working, and in consequence the Trades Union Act of 1871 recognised their complete legality. Finally, the last vestiges of the Combination Acts were repealed in 1875; henceforward the offences of unionists must be tried under no special Acts, but under the ordinary criminal law. About the same time unionism was introduced into agricultural districts, and the Agricultural Labourers' Union, founded in 1872, has many thousands of members.

In 1902 the Taff Vale Company brought an action against the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants for damages in connection with a strike on that line. A verdict was given for the company, and the Amalgamated Society paid damages and costs amounting to £23,000. But more serious than the money penalty was the loss of immunity from liability for the illegal acts

of their agents which trade unions were presumed to enjoy prior to this litigation. The English trades unions are bound together in a loose confederation. In each town there is a Trades Council, upon which sit representatives of such unions as care to join. Trade-union congresses have met annually since 1868. The Congress is composed of representatives of Trade Unions, either working at their trade, or paid union officials. Unions may send one delegate for every two thousand members or fraction thereof. Voting on important questions is on the principle of one vote for every thousand members represented. Since 1871 a Parliamentary Committee has been elected to look after the interests of workmen in Parliamentary matters and elsewhere, and a paid secretary is also appointed annually.

George Howell, *Conflicts of Labour and Capital* (1878), Marshall, *Economics of Industry*, and Sidney and Beatrice Webb, *Hist. of Trade Unionism*. See also Brentano, *Introductory Essay to English Gilds* (1870); and his *Arbeitergilden der Gegenwart*; Harrison, *Good and Evil of Trade-Unionism*, *Fortnightly Review*, iii. 3[illegible] (1865); Comte de Paris, *Trades Unions of England* (1869); Annual *Reports* of Trade-Union Congresses; Held, *Zwei Bücher zur Soc. Gesch. Eng.* (1881). For their economic function, see Toynbee, *The Industrial Revolution* (1884), 170 *sec.*; Walker, *Polit. Econ.* (1883), pt. 6, ch. 5.

[W. J. A.]

Trafalgar, The Battle of (Oct. 21, 1805), was the last and most fatal blow inflicted on the naval power of France. On the previous afternoon the combined French and Spanish fleets had been descried sailing out of the port of Cadiz, and during the night Nelson had kept his fleet under all sail to keep them in sight. At daybreak on the 21st they were seen in a close line about twelve miles ahead. As the English fleet came up with him, Villeneuve (the French admiral) formed his fleet in a double line in close order. Nelson had twenty-seven men-of-war and four frigates, against the combined fleets of thirty-three ships and seven frigates, and he adopted the plan of attacking in two lines, Collingwood leading the lee-line of thirteen ships, and Nelson the weather-line of fourteen. Villeneuve made the most skilful preparations to meet the attack, but seems to have perceived at once that Nelson's plan would succeed. As the *Victory*, Nelson's ship, neared the French fleet, she was raked by a galling fire from the enemy, so that she had lost fifty men before returning a gun. At noon she opened her fire, and ran on board the *Redoubtable*, with the intention of breaking the enemy's line. That ship fired one broadside, and then, through fear of being boarded, let down her lower ports, and contented herself for the rest of the battle with keeping up a fire of musketry from her tops. The *Victory* soon became busy with her, the *Téméraire*, and the huge *Santissima Trinidad*, and at a quarter past one Nelson was mortally wounded by a ball from the marines in the tops. Within twenty minutes the *Redoubtable* struck. In the meantime the battle had been raging with almost equal fury on all sides; and everywhere the stubborn courage of the British seamen wore out the resistance of the enemy. Nelson lived just long enough to know that he had gained his last and greatest victory. Twenty of the enemy had struck: seven of their ships escaped from the battle, only to be all captured by Sir Richard Strachan off Rochefort. The next evening a gale came on from the south-west, which destroyed most of the prizes. The English loss amounted to 1,587 men: the loss of the allies was much greater, and included the Spanish admiral, while Villeneuve was taken prisoner. The Spaniards, disgusted with the conduct of the French, at once made peace, and treated our wounded with the utmost attention. With the loss of Villeneuve's fleet vanished all Napoleon's hopes of invading England.

Southey, *Life of Nelson*; James, *Naval Hist.*; Alison, *Hist. of Europe*.

Trailbaston, Commissions of, were first issued by Edward I. in 1292, and were continued down to the middle of Richard II.'s reign. The object was to put down the numerous bands of swashbucklers, or "trailbastons" (*i.e.*, staff or bludgeon carriers) as they were called. Commissions for the purpose of quelling the disturbances caused by these ruffians were sent throughout the country, inquiring, imprisoning, fining, and even hanging summarily.

Train Bands, or trained bands, instituted in the reign of James I., were bodies of urban militia, which combined with the principle of the "fyrd" a large volunteer element. They proved, however, exceedingly turbulent, especially in London, and, having espoused the side of the Parliament during the Great Rebellion, were abolished after the Restoration. [Military System.]

Transvaal, The, was originally settled by Boer emigrants from Cape Colony, whose independence was recognised by the Sand River Convention (1852). In 1876 the Boer Government, whose resources were overstrained by conflicts with both Kaffirs and Zulus, practically collapsed, and the Imperial Government, on the principle that Great Britain was responsible for the well-being of South Africa as a whole, decided to annex the Transvaal. The annexation was carried out by Sir Theophilus Shepstone on April 12, 1877. When the British had quelled the Zulus and Kaffirs, the Boers began to agitate for the restoration of their independence. It was only granted them after they employed the argument of force, and routed our troops in several engagements, the crowning disaster occurring at Majuba Hill (1881). The

independence of the Transvaal, subject to British suzerainty, was recognised by the Convention of Pretoria (1881), and the Convention of London in 1884 provided that the Republic should conclude no treaty with any foreign nation other than the Orange Free State, or with any tribe east or west of it, without the leave of the British Crown.

In 1882 and for some years afterwards the gold discoveries attracted a multitude of foreigners, mostly British subjects, or Americans. At the same time the Government made it more and more difficult for foreigners to obtain the full franchise, though a slight and illusory concession was made to them by the establishment of a subordinate Chamber (the Second Volksraad) with very limited powers, a vote for the election of which was comparatively easy for them to obtain. The Government was thus in the hands of a relatively small minority of the population, it was incompetent to meet modern needs, and it fettered the mining industry by the grant of various monopolies—*e.g.*, in dynamite—and undue preferences to the Delagoa Bay railway route—*e.g.*, by closing the "drifts" or fords on the Vaal River to waggons bringing goods from Cape Colony in Nov., 1895, a measure afterwards suspended under pressure from the Colonial Office.

Towards the end of 1895 the leading foreign residents of the great mining town of Johannesburg resolved to obtain increased political power, by force if necessary, and arranged with Dr. Jameson, the administrator of the Chartered Company, that he should assist them. The arrangement broke down, it is said, on the question whether the revolutionists, when successful, should hoist the British flag or (as the Johannesburgers desired) should merely secure more power in the Transvaal for the Uitlanders. Dr. Jameson, nevertheless, marched (starting Dec. 29) in with 500 men, but was defeated and compelled to surrender (Jan. 1, 1896). The British Government at once disavowed all knowledge of the raid, and Mr. Cecil Rhodes, managing director of the company in South Africa, resigned the premiership of Cape Colony. Mr. Joseph Chamberlain recommended a grant of home rule for the mining district, which was not given; and the German Emperor (Jan. 3) telegraphed to President Kruger congratulating him on having "successfully repelled foreign aggression"—an ignoring of British suzerainty which caused great indignation in England. The Reform leaders (63 in all) were tried and convicted at Pretoria in the spring. Four were sentenced to death, the rest to imprisonment, banishment, and heavy fines; but all the sentences were commuted to fines, the banishment being remitted conditionally on a pledge being given to take no further part in political agitation in the Transvaal. Dr. Jameson and four of his companions, who had been given up to the British Government, were tried under the Foreign Enlistment Act in July, 1896, and sentenced to various terms of imprisonment. The circumstances of the raid were investigated by a Committee of the Cape Parliament (July, 1896), and by a Committee of the British House of Commons. The majority report of the former declared that Mr. Rhodes had promoted the raid, and that the African managers of the Chartered Company were implicated. The latter Committee severely censured Mr. Rhodes, the company's directors, and two Imperial officials, exonerating the Colonial Office of complicity in the raid.

From this date the Transvaal Government grew steadily worse. To give two examples: a Boer policeman who murdered a British subject named Edgar was indicted for culpable homicide, and acquitted; and a judgment of Chief Justice Kotzé was overruled by the Volksraad. Again, President Kruger's own Industrial Commission reported in favour of various reforms in connection with the gold industry; but its recommendations were ignored. At last the Uitlanders determined to lay their grievances before Queen Victoria. A petition was drawn up, and signed by 21,000 British subjects. In response to this, Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, the Colonial Secretary, proposed that Sir Alfred Milner, High Commissioner of South Africa, and President Kruger should hold a meeting to discuss the situation. The conference took place at Bloemfontein, May 31, 1899. Sir Alfred Milner asked for a five years' franchise law. Mr. Kruger offered a seven years' law, coupled with the restriction that all future disputes between the Transvaal and Great Britain should be referred to a court of arbitration, of which the president should be a foreigner. It was obviously impossible to accept such a restriction. The High Commissioner, convinced of Mr. Kruger's impracticable spirit, urged the home Government to insist on a minimum of reforms, including a five years' franchise. Mr. Joseph Chamberlain was in complete accord with this recommendation. An interchange of despatches ensued, and things came to a deadlock.

On Sept. 27 the Boer Government drafted an ultimatum, which was handed to the British representative at Pretoria on Oct. 9, with a demand for an answer within 48 hours. Among its clauses were, that all British reinforcements which had reached Natal since July should withdraw, and that the troops on the high seas should not land in South Africa. As it was out of the question for the Imperial Government to concede these demands, a state of war existed on Wednesday, Oct. 11, and the Boers fired the first shot on the following day. (For an outline of hostilities *see* Boer War.) Lord Roberts proclaimed the annexation of the Transvaal on Sept. 1, 1900. After the terms of peace were signed

in 1902, Lord Milner assumed office as Governor of the Transvaal, and Executive and Legislative Councils were constituted. In 1905 Letters Patent were issued providing for representative government, but in 1906 the Liberal Government announced their intention to set up responsible government, which was granted in December of that year. By the Act of 1909 the Transvaal was made a province of the Union of South Africa. [SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF.]

Bryce, *South Africa; Annual Register*, 1880-1903.

Traquair, JOHN STEWART, EARL OF (*b.* 1599, *d.* 1659), son of John Stewart of Gaverston, was a great favourite of Charles I., who created him an earl in 1633, and the following year made him Lord High Treasurer of Scotland, and in 1639 High Commissioner. In 1641 Traquair, who had made enemies, was found guilty on a charge of treason, but pardoned by Charles, who was convinced of his loyalty. In 1648 he fought at the battle of Preston, where he was taken prisoner, and confined in Warwick Castle for four years by command of the Parliament. His character is thus described: "He was a man of great learning, but of too much craft; he was considered the most capable man for business, and the best speaker, in the kingdom of Scotland."

Travancore was a little principality at the southern extremity of the Malabar coast. The treaty of Mangalore placed it under British protection. In consequence of this Lord Cornwallis began the second Mysore War (q.v.) to avenge on Tippoo the insult offered to the British government by his unprovoked attack (1790) on the lines of Travancore (a line of ramparts protected by a ditch and bound hedge, extending along the northern frontier from the Neilgherry hills to the sea). In 1795 a subsidiary alliance was concluded between the Rajah and the Company, by which he agreed to assist them if necessary with troops to the best of his ability. And in 1805 a second treaty was concluded, by which this duty was commuted for an annual payment. Travancore was extremely badly governed, and retrenchment and reform were absolutely necessary. The last treaty with the English had stipulated this. In 1808 an attempt to enforce this led to an attack on the Residency, from which the Resident barely escaped. English troops were marched up, and order was after some trouble restored. Travancore is still one of the protected native States.

Treason, THE LAW OF. High treason, which means a transcendently dangerous kind of betrayal, is theoretically a murderous blow aimed at the State, but in fact is any mischievous action or design against the person of the sovereign, with whose particular life the general welfare is supposed to be bound. It is called "high" to distinguish it from simple or petty treason, which was an outrageous or unnatural betrayal of confidence, as that of a child who attempts or designs the slaughter of a parent. Feudalism is usually credited with having shifted the mark of treason from the State to the sovereign. Yet the idea of the king's supreme lordship and consequent importance in this connexion is first seen in Alfred's law of treason: "If any one plot against the king's life, of himself or by harbouring of exiles, or of his men, let him be liable in his life and in all that he has." For such "treachery against a lord" Alfred thought no reparation possible. After the Conquest, therefore, while the penalty of rebellion was, for a Norman, only forfeiture and imprisonment, for an Englishman it was death. In 1075 the Norman earl, Ralph Guader, met with no worse doom than loss of lands and perpetual captivity; the Englishman Waltheof perished on the scaffold. The crime did not assume its darker aspect, or draw after it the more awful punishment afterwards reserved for it, till many years later. The Norman and early Plantagenet kings seldom, if ever, had leaders of rebellion executed on legal process; their vengeance was satisfied with the ordinary feudal consequences. The idea of treason, however, was well known. Glanville speaks of it under the name of "lese majesty," thus showing the influence of the Roman law on its development. Edward I. gave expression, perhaps for the first time, to the sterner conception of the offence; the proceedings against David of Wales and William Wallace first exhibited its merciless characteristics. The constructive complexity of David's guilt set the precedent for the most appalling feature in our legal history. He was drawn to the gallows, hanged, had his bowels burnt, and his quarters dispersed over the kingdom, respectively for the treachery to his lord, the murder, the profanation of a holy season, and the repeated formation of designs against his king at various places, into which the judges divided his crime. This case practically ruled all that came after. The hurdle, the gallows, the axe, and the quartering knife, were for ages the instruments of the punishment of treason, varied only by the stake and the faggot if the convicted traitor were a woman. The legal sentiment was now fostered that there was a special heinousness in the offence. It was deemed politic, perhaps, to frighten the king's liegemen into a respect for their oaths and implied fealty. Any scheme that struck at the king, his crown and dignity, or tended to do mischief to his person or royal estate, was asserted by legal writers to be treason, not only in those who attempted it, but also in those who advised it. But the crown had the interest in keeping the offence indefinite that the consequent frequency of forfeitures gave; and the profitable vagueness was

allowed to hang over it for a time. Mortimer for instance, was in 1330 condemned for merely "accroaching" or drawing towards himself the royal power. In 1352, therefore, the puzzled and distressed Lords and Commons begged King Edward III. to declare authoritatively the law on the subject. Edward complied, and the historic Statute of Treasons was the result. Henceforward no man was to be held guilty of treason who had not compassed the death of the king, queen, or their eldest son; violated the queen, the king's eldest daughter, if unmarried, or the wife of his eldest son; levied war against the king in his kingdom, or adhered to his enemies; counterfeited the Great Seal, or brought false money into the land; or slain his chancellor, treasurer, or judges "being in their place doing their offices." And all the lands forfeited for any of these offences were to go to the king, whether holden of him or of others. The weightier clauses of this statute are law still. But it often fell short of the needs of an arbitrary king or an unusually critical condition of affairs; and such additions were made to it by the legislature, and constructions placed upon it by the judges, as the occasion seemed to demand.

In Richard II.'s heyday of power, in Henry VI.'s growing weakness, new treasons were created, but only to be brushed away at the return of better or more settled times. The reign most prolific of artificial treasons was Henry VIII.'s; to deny the royal supremacy, or even decline to admit it, to deprive the king of any of his titles, to keep back from him the knowledge of an immorality committed by the lady he proposed to marry, and several other things of little seeming importance at other times, were exaggerated into treasons. These were all swept away when Edward VI. succeeded; but many of them were re-enacted the year before his death, while, as a feeble antidote to this renewed severity, it was provided that no treason should be established save on the testimony of two witnesses. The restored additions were cast out again in Mary's reign, but the mitigatory provision was left untouched. The safety of Elizabeth called for fresh accessions to the law—among other enactments it was made treason to say that the queen was a heretic, a schismatic, or a usurper—but these were limited to the queen's lifetime. After her death the law of Edward III. continued the sole statutory basis of the crime, and the law of Edward VI. its sole judicial corrective. The nimble wits of lawyers, however, had found in the former, by help of the doctrine of constructive treason, more than one implication of crime. Chief among these was conspiracy to levy war against the king, which though not asserted to be itself treason, was accepted as a convincing proof of treason. To this principle Parliament also three times gave a lease of the existing sovereign's life, in the reigns of Elizabeth, Charles II., and George III. The contemplated deposition of the sovereign, or even the devisal of a plan for putting him under restraint for any purpose whatever, such as Essex designed in 1601, was discovered in Edward III.'s statute. At last, in 1816, the whole subject was comprehensively treated in a statute of that year, which is now the accepted standard of treason. By this measure not only the overt act, but the mere entertainment of a design to slay, wound, coerce, or depose the king, or to deprive him of any part of his dominions, or to levy war against him with any view whatever, or to move an invasion from abroad, and the publication of an intention to do any of these things, were declared to be high treason. The law was thus definitively fixed. No legal process was more shamelessly perverted to tyrannical and unjust ends than that of treason, as a hundred cases, from Burdett's to Sidney's, testify. To remedy the monstrous unfairness of trials on this charge the notable law of 1696 was passed. This insures to the accused the assistance of counsel, the examination of his witnesses on oath, a copy of his indictment five (afterwards ten) days, a list of the jury panel two days, before his trial, and the certainty of having two direct witnesses produced against him; and limits prosecutions to the term of three years, save for an attempt to assassinate the king. The revolting horrors of the punishment have since been removed—the cutting down alive and disembowelling of men, and the burning of women, in 1790; the drawing, quartering, and beheading, in 1870. But they had ceased to be carried out much earlier.

Hallam, *Const. Hist.*, vol. iii.; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; *Revised Statutes.*

[J. R.]

Treason Felony Act, The, or Crown and Government Security Act (11 & 12 Vict., c. 12), was introduced in 1848, partly to meet certain forms of sedition practised by the United Irishman (q. v.), partly to extend the law of treason more fully to Ireland, and partly with a view to the Chartist (q. v.) disturbances. The Act reduced the death penalties produced under 36 George III., c. 7 & c. 57, for certain offences against the person of the sovereign, to transportation for life, extended those Acts to Ireland, and provided that any person compassing or intending the deposition of the sovereign or levying war against the Crown within the British dominions in order to intimidate Crown or Parliament, or inciting to foreign invasion of any British dominion, or expressing such intention by writing or any overt act, should be guilty of felony and liable to transportation for life. The Act was strongly opposed by Smith O'Brien (q.v.) and some

Radical members. It has played an important part in the later history of Irish disturbances.

Treasonable Practices Bill (1795) was introduced into the House of Lords by Lord Grenville in consequence of the excited state of popular opinion, which at length displayed itself in an attempt upon the life of the king (George III.). The chief point in the Bill was that it dispensed with proof of overt acts of treason, and altogether widened the definition of treason, so as to include any writing or speaking which should incite the people to hatred or contempt of the king's majesty, or the established government and constitution of the realm. It thus formed a statutory prohibition on the discussion of Parliamentary reform, and was a most flagrant encroachment upon freedom of opinion. The Bill was supported in a narrow spirit, worthy of its aims; but it also found seven opponents among the Peers. In the House of Commons it met with a vigorous resistance. Fox went so far as to say that if this and the Seditious Meetings Bill "should be put into force with all their rigorous provisions, if his opinion were asked by the people as to their obedience, he should tell them it was no longer a question of moral obligation and duty, but of prudence." He was supported by Sheridan, Grey, and Whitbread, and others of the extreme Liberals; but the ministers openly avowed their determination "to exert a rigour beyond the law as exercised in ordinary times and under ordinary circumstances." They could do what they liked; and in spite of this brilliant opposition in the House, and popular indignation outside, the Bill was passed, to remain in force during the life of the king, and till the end of the next session after his death.

May, *Const. Hist.*, vol. ii. civ. 9.

Treasurer, The Lord High, the office of, was of Norman origin. It does not seem at first to have been considered of great importance, the duties of the king's treasurer consisting in keeping the royal treasure at Winchester, and, as a member of the exchequer at Westminster, in receiving the accounts of the sheriffs. The office was held by several ecclesiastics, among whom were Nigel of Ely and his son, Richard Fitz-Neal. Under the Norman kings it had no separate judicial powers, and it was not until after the extinction of the office of justiciar that the treasurer rapidly became one of the chief functionaries of the crown. From the middle of the reign of Henry III. we find the treasurer, in conjunction with the newly-created chancellor of the exchequer, taking part in the equitable jurisdiction of the exchequer. He was now the third great officer of the crown; and his duties, besides presiding in the upper court of exchequer, consisted in the custody of the king's treasure, and of the records deposited there, and the appointment of the commissioners and other officers employed in collecting the royal revenue. The treasury appears to have been first put in commission in 1635, and the last lord high treasurer was the Earl of Rochester (1685–87). The office of First Lord of the Treasury is now held by the Prime Minister, and he is also not unfrequently Chancellor of the Exchequer as well. The Lord High Treasurer of Scotland was created by James I. on his return from captivity in England. The office was modelled on the parallel institution in England, but it seems to have acquired more relative importance, for in 1617 it was declared the first office of State. Commissioners of the treasury were first appointed in Scotland in 1641, and its separate existence was abolished at the Union. A similar step was taken with regard to Ireland in 1816, where lord treasurers seem to have been in existence as early as the reign of Henry III.

Stubbs, *Select Charters*, *Dialogus de Scaccario*, and *Const. Hist.*, vol. i. ch. ii. and vol. iii. ch. 18; Haydn, *Book of Dignities*.

Tremayne, Andrew (*d.* 1563), one of the conspirators in Sir Henry Dudley's plot (1556), had been suspected of being involved, together with his brother Edward, in Wyatt's rebellion (1554) (q.v.), but nothing was proved against him. In 1560 Tremayne distinguished himself at the siege of Leith; he was killed at Havre at the same time as his twin brother Nicholas. Mr. Froude calls him "the most gallant of the splendid band of youths who had been driven into exile in Mary's time, and had roved the seas as privateers."

Stow, *Annals;* Aikin, *Memoirs of the Court of Elizabeth.*

Trenchard, John (*b.* 1650, *d.* 1695), first sat in the House of Commons in 1678, as member for Taunton. He brought in the first Exclusion Bill. He was imprisoned for his share in the Rye House Conspiracy, and was a vigorous supporter of the unfortunate invasion of Monmouth. He escaped to the Continent, and was expressly excepted from the Bill of Pardon of 1686. He returned with William III., and sat as a member of the Convention. In 1693 he was appointed Secretary of State. "Apparently," says Macaulay, "he was not trusted with any of the greater secrets of State, but was little more than a superintendent of police." He displayed great and perhaps excessive zeal in the suppression of the Jacobites. A general search for members of that political persuasion in Lancashire failed in its effects, owing to the betrayal of the design. Trenchard was thereupon made the subject of bitter pamphlet attacks. The prosecutions of the arrested men were complete failures. These proceedings were severely commented on by the House. Trenchard's health gave way, and he died soon afterwards.

Trenchard, John, son of the foregoing (*b.* 1669, *d.* 1723), is chiefly remarkable as a political writer. In 1698 he published a pamphlet entitled *The History of Standing Armies*, in support of Whig doctrines on that subject. He was one of the commissioners appointed by Parliament to examine into the Irish land grants, and issued a most violent report on the subject. He subsequently published a journal called the *Independent Whig*, and also *Cato's Letters* (1720—23).

Trent, The Case of the, 1861. The British mail steamer *Trent* left Havana (Nov. 7, 1861) for St. Thomas with the mails for England, under charge of a commander in the navy, and with numerous passengers, including Messrs. Slidell and Mason, commissioners for the Confederate States. It was stopped (Nov. 8) at the entrance to the Bahama Channel, and about nine miles from the island of Cuba, by the American steamship of war *San Jacinto*, Captain Wilkes. The Confederate Commissioners and their secretaries were taken from the mail steamer, which was allowed to proceed on her voyage, and were carried to the United States, where they were imprisoned in Fort Warren, near Boston. Great indignation was aroused in England, and Earl Russell, in a despatch on Nov. 30, 1861, instructed Lord Lyons to demand their release and a suitable apology. This note was supported by communications from France, Austria, Prussia, Russia, and Italy, sustaining the views of the British government. Mr. Seward, the American Secretary of State, justified the seizure on the grounds that the commissioners were contraband of war, and that Captain Wilkes was entitled to seize them as enemies or rebels. He denied the immunity of the *Trent* as a packet-boat, and declared that Captain Wilkes had exercised the right of search in a perfectly legal manner. He conceded, however, that Wilkes was guilty of an irregularity in not sending the vessel into an American port to be tried by a prize court, and finally based his acquiescence in the British demand on considerations connected with the complaints previously made by the United States as to the impressment of seamen from their vessels. The question was thus settled. Lord Russell, however, in a despatch of Jan. 11, 1862, explicitly denied that the commissioners could in any sense be described as contraband of war.

The *Times*, 1861-2; *Annual Register*, 1861.

Tresilian, Sir Robert (*d.* 1388), was appointed Chief Justice of England in 1381. His first act was to try the insurgents of Wat Tyler's rebellion, and he performed his duty with such cruelty that no parallel can be found for his conduct till the campaign of Judge Jeffreys. He attached himself to the king and De Vere, and by his advice Richard annulled the Commission of Regency of 1386. When Parliament met in 1387, the barons were determined on his punishment: he was deprived of his office and appealed of treason. He sought refuge in flight, but was captured and hanged at Tyburn.

Trevelyan, Sir George Otto (*b.* 1838), son of Sir Charles Trevelyan, the eminent Indian civilian, and a sister of Lord Macaulay, was educated at Harrow and at Trinity College, Cambridge, and, after travelling in India, entered the House of Commons in 1865. In 1869 he took office as a Lord of the Admiralty, and from 1880 to 1882 was Secretary of the same Department. He then became Chief Secretary for Ireland, and in 1884 was rewarded with a seat in the Cabinet. In 1886, being unable to approve of Mr. Gladstone's Irish policy, he resigned the Secretaryship for Scotland. Afterwards, however, he returned to the main section of the Liberal party, and from 1892 to 1895 was again Secretary for Scotland. In 1897 he retired from political life.

Trevor, Sir John (*b.* 1633, *d.* 1717), was, says Macaulay, "bred half a pettifogger, and half a gambler." He was called to the bar in 1661. He was a creature of Judge Jeffreys', and as such was chosen Speaker in 1685. Shortly afterwards he became Master of the Rolls. After the Revolution he was sworn of the Privy Council. He was employed by Lord Caermarthen to buy the votes of the House of Commons. He again became Speaker in 1690, without opposition. He was subsequently created First Commissioner of the Great Seal. In 1695 he was accused of corruption, having received from the City of London £1,000 for expediting a local bill. It was known that he pocketed £6,000 a year beyond his official salary. In his place he was forced to put the question and declare that the "ayes" had it. Next day he avoided putting the vote for his expulsion by pleading illness. He was, however, expelled the House.

Commons' Journals; Burnet, *Hist. of His Own Time*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*

Triers, The Commission of, was established by Cromwell (March, 1654). Cromwell regulated the Church by means of two ordinances, one of which established local committees to eject unfit ministers, whilst the other established a central committee to examine ministers newly appointed. The latter, or Commission of Triers, consisted of thirty-eight persons, of whom nine were laymen and twenty-nine divines, to whom four divines and one laymen were afterwards added. Their duty was to examine all future presentees to livings and all who had been appointed since April 1, 1653. Their certificate of fitness was to be regarded as qualifying candidates to receive the ministerial stipend, but it was expressly declared that it was not to be regarded as "any solemn or sacred setting apart for the office of the ministry." Baxter, though a Presbyterian,

says, "To give them their due, they did abundance of good to the Church." "They saved many a congregation from ignorant, ungodly, drunken teachers." He goes on to add that they were too partial to Independents and Separatists, "yet so great was the benefit above the hurt which they brought to the Church, that many thousands of souls blessed God for the faithful ministers whom they let in."

Masson, *Life of Milton*.

Trim, THE REMONSTRANCE OF (1643), was a document drawn up by the Irish Catholics, and transmitted to the king through Ormonde. In it they complain of the penal laws and disabilities they have been suffering under since the 2nd Elizabeth, and also of the conduct of the Lord Justices in 1641, and of the threats of the English Parliament; they conclude with an offer of 10,000 men to defend the king's prerogative. The cessation soon followed.

Trimbuckjee Dainglia was an unworthy favourite of the Peishwa Bajee Rao, who had been originally a spy. In 1814 he treacherously murdered Gungadhur Shastree. He was in consequence demanded by and surrendered after some delay to the English government (1815). In 1816 he effected his escape from the fort of Tannah. At the end of the Mahratta and Pindarrie war he was arrested, imprisoned, and died in the fortress of Chunar.

Trimmers, THE, were a party of politicians who formed a third party in Parliament in the reign of Charles II., about 1680, between the Whigs and the Tories as they came to be called. Their leader, Halifax, was a Trimmer on principle, and looked upon the title as one of honour. True to their character, they voted in the Upper House against the Exclusion Bill, although they were known to be opposed to the Duke of York.

Halifax, *Character of a Trimmer*.

Trinidad, the most southerly of the West India Islands, was discovered by Columbus in 1498, and was for many years used by the Spaniards as a victualling station for their ships. In 1595 it was attacked by Sir Walter Raleigh, and in 1676 was ravaged by the French. In 1783 a free grant of land was promised by the King of Spain to every Catholic settler, and the result was a great immigration from other colonies, the bulk of the new-comers being Frenchmen. In 1797 Trinidad was taken by a British force under Sir Ralph Abercrombie and Admiral Harvey, and by the peace of 1802 England was confirmed in the possession of the island. Immediately after the occupation by the British, numbers of settlers arrived from Scotland and Ireland, and ever since that time the island has been making rapid progress in productiveness. In 1834 negro emancipation was accepted without any of the disturbances which proved so ruinous to Jamaica, and the mineral wealth (asphalt) and varied resources of the island have prevented it from suffering from the prevalent West Indian depression. It is a crown colony, the administration being vested in a governor, an executive council, and a legislative council, nominated by the crown.

Edwards, *West Indies*; R. M. Martin, *British Colonies*; Creasy, *Britannic Empire*.

Trinoda Necessitas, *i.e.*, the threefold necessity of repairing bridges (bricg-bot), keeping up fortifications (burh-bot), and performing military service (fyrd), was incumbent on every holder of land in Anglo-Saxon times, even if he were exempt from every other service. The earliest mention of the trinoda necessitas occurs in the beginning of the eighth century. [FEUDALISM.]

Tripartite Chronicle, THE, is the title of a Latin poem by John Gower, in which he describes the chief events of the reign of Richard II. As the name implies, it is divided into three parts. The first, entitled "Opus Humanum," treats of the Wonderful Parliament and the rule of Gloucester and the barons; the second part, "Opus Inferni," relates the revenge taken by Richard on the Appellants; while the third, "Opus in Christo," deals with the deposition of Richard and the substitution of Henry. It is written throughout with a strong bias in favour of the Lancastrians, but contains much interesting information as to the state of England at the end of the fourteenth century.

Triple Alliance, THE (Jan. 23, 1668), was made, chiefly by the exertions of Sir William Temple and the Dutch statesman De Witt, between England, Holland, and Sweden. The three powers bound themselves to assist one another against France, and especially in checking the aggressions of Louis XIV. in the Spanish Netherlands. Finding himself threatened by this powerful coalition, Louis was compelled in the same year to make the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (q.v.) with Spain, by which he, while retaining many of the border fortresses of the Netherlands, gave up Franche-Comté, which he had also conquered, and agreed to retire from the Netherlands, while the Spaniards ceded to him many important frontier towns. The Triple Alliance, however, was of short duration, and was reversed two years afterwards by the Treaty of Dover, concluded between England and France (1670), and directed against Holland.

• Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*, and *Französische Geschichte*; Martin, *Hist. de France*; Carlsson, *Geschichte von Schweden*.

Triple Alliance (INDIA) (July 4, 1790) was concluded between the Company, under Lord Cornwallis' governorship, the Nizam, and the Peishwa. Its stipulations were that the

three powers should attack Tippoo's dominions, both during and after the rains, and prosecute the war with vigour; that the Mahrattas and Nizam should join the English, if required, with 10,000 horse, for which they were to be fully reimbursed; that a British contingent should accompany their troops; that all conquests should be equally divided; and that none should make peace without the rest.

Cornwallis, *Despatches;* Mill, *Hist. of India.*

Trivet, or Triveth, Nicholas (*b.* 1258, *d.* ? 1358), was the son of Sir Thomas Trivet, Chief Justice of the King's Bench. He entered the Dominican order, and on his death-bed attained the position of prior. His *Annales Sex Regum Angliæ* (1136—1307) have passed through several editions, of which the most accessible is that published by the English Historical Society in 1845. They are also to be found in Luc d'Achery, *Spicilegium*, tom. 3. The work is chiefly a compilation from different authorities, but the latter part contains some interesting original matter. Mr. Gairdner says: "In clearness of narrative and distinctness of statement it exhibits a marked advance upon the ordinary chronicles of the time. The language, too, is polished and elegant."

Trokelowe, John of (*d.* ?1343), was a monk of Tynemouth, but in consequence of an act of disobedience was, about 1295, removed in chains to St. Albans, where he was employed to continue the *Chronicle of Rishanger*. His *Annals* extend from 1307 to 1323, and are valuable as contemporary authorities.

Trokelowe's *Annals* have been published in the Rolls Series.

Trollop, Sir Andrew (*d.* 1461), served in the French wars, and on the outbreak of the Wars of the Roses joined the Duke of York. In 1459, after the battle of Blue Heath, the combined forces of York, Salisbury, and Warwick assembled at Ludford, close to Ludlow. Here they were confronted by the king, and a battle was imminent, when Trollop deserted with a considerable body of men to Henry. His defection caused the Yorkists to retreat in disorder. Trollop commanded the van of the Lancastrians at the battle of Towton, where he was slain.

Trot of Turriff, The, was a name given to a defeat of the Covenanters at Turriff by the Gordons (May, 1639).

Troyes, The Peace of (1564), was concluded, after the surrender of Havre, between France and England. By it the queen's mother undertook to pay 120,000 crowns to England, free trade was to be allowed, and the French hostages were to be released. The English agents were Sir Thomas Smith and Sir Nicholas Throgmorton.

Troyes, The Treaty of (May 21, 1420), was concluded between Henry V., Charles VI., King of France, and the Burgundian party. The Dauphin and the Armagnacs were still in arms, and refused to recognise the treaty. The terms agreed upon were that the English king should cease to bear the title of King of France; Henry should have the title of regent and heir of France; Henry promised to maintain the French Parliaments in their privileges, and to preserve the privileges of all individuals, and all the laws and customs of the realm of France. Henry promised to restore to the French king all cities, castles, &c., that had revolted from him, "being on the side called that of the Dauphin and of Armagnac;" Normandy and all parts and cities conquered by King Henry were to be restored to France as soon as Henry succeeded to the throne of France; Henry of England was to succeed on the next vacancy to the throne of France; the two crowns were to be for ever united; each realm was to have its own laws and government, and neither was to be in any way subject to the other; finally, Henry was forthwith to espouse Catherine, daughter of the King of France.

Truro, Thomas Wilde, Lord (*b.* 1782, *d.* 1855), was the son of an attorney; was educated at St. Paul's School; was called to the bar at the Inner Temple (1817); and rose steadily in his profession. In 1820 he was engaged as one of the counsel for Queen Caroline on her trial. He entered the House of Commons for Newark (1831); lost his seat in 1832; but was returned in 1835, 1837, 1839. In 1839 he became Solicitor-General, and in 1841 he was advanced to the Attorney-Generalship, but retired the same year with his party In 1846 he was again Attorney-General, and in 1850 was made Lord Chancellor by Lord John Russell, and created a peer. In 1852 he retired with his party. As Lord Chancellor, he appointed a commission to inquire into the jurisdiction, pleading, and practice of the Court of Chancery. Their report recommended the abolition of the masters' offices, a measure which Lord Truro succeeded in passing, though he had quitted office at the time. Several other important reforms in the procedure of the Chancery court and offices were effected by him.

Tudor, The Family of, was of Welsh origin, Tudor being probably a corruption of Theodore. The first of the Tudors of whom we have individual knowledge was Owen Tudor, a gentleman who fought during the Wars of the Roses on the Lancastrian side, and who married Catherine of Valois, the widow of Henry V. By her he had two sons, Edmond and Jasper, whom Henry VI. created Earls of Richmond and Pembroke. The marriage of the Earl of Richmond with Margaret, daughter of John Beaufort, Earl of Somerset, who was the heiress of the illegitimate branch of the House of Lancaster, founded the for-

tunes of the race. As soon as the house of York became unpopular, Henry, Earl of Richmond, the son of Edmond, was adopted by the party of the Red Rose as the only possible candidate for the throne. When his second attempt to gain the throne was successful, Henry became Henry VII., and was careful to confirm his dubious claims by marrying Elizabeth, the daughter of Edward IV., and to rule by a quasi-Parliamentary title.

The character of Henry VII. is, to a considerable extent, an enigma. He seems to have been regarded by his contemporaries with a mixture of hatred and admiration, the former called forth chiefly by the exactions of the last part of his reign. The central fact of home policy is the systematic repression of the old nobility, already almost exterminated by the Wars of the Roses, and his continuance of the *régime* of personal government inaugurated by Edward IV. Abroad he trusted rather to diplomacy than to arms, and the cold mysterious course of action which was adopted also by his contemporaries Louis XI. of France and Ferdinand the Catholic, of Spain, gained for them the title of "the three Magi." The marriage of his daughter Margaret with James IV. of Scotland was an instance of singular foresight. His other daughter, Mary, after marrying the decrepit Louis XII. of France, was united with her old love Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk. One of her daughters was the mother of Lady Jane Grey; the heiresses of the others married into the great houses of Seymour and Stanley.

Few kings have been more popular at the time of their accession than the handsome and accomplished Henry VIII. His title was undisputed, and the able part which he soon began to play in foreign affairs still further aroused the national enthusiasm. He showed considerable ability in maintaining the balance of power in Europe, and by the aid of Wolsey was able to a great extent to play off Germany against France, to the great advantage of England. The divorce question, with its momentous consequences, was the turning point of the reign. Henry, always swayed by passion and impulse, was hurried, the nation apparently silently approving, into a rupture with the papacy, and sweeping measures of ecclesiastical reform, including the Act of Supremacy, and the destruction of the old system of monasticism. The Church aristocracy fell before him, as the landed aristocracy had fallen before his father, and on their ruins rose a new and subservient nobility. All this time Henry was sincerely Catholic; his hatred of Lutheranism, and his vigorous persecution of it when it appeared in England, were quite consistent with the publication of the ten articles of religion. During the latter part of his reign Henry was disliked by his subjects, and was conscious of that dislike. The courage with which he still confronted the formidable coalition of the emperor and the pope was not properly appreciated. Cromwell proved a more violently autocratic instrument than Wolsey had been; the king was vexed by agrarian revolts, and troubled by the failure of his marriage projects. During the last years of his life he was occupied chiefly in arranging the succession, and in alternately persecuting and protecting the parties of reaction and of reform.

The personality of young Edward, a sickly and precocious hothouse plant, is of comparatively little moment in the history of the house of Tudor. The brief reign divides itself into two periods; the first, during which the kingdom was under the uncertain guidance of the Protector Somerset, being marked by the violent advance of the Reformation and terminating in another agrarian revolt; the second being occupied by unprincipled intrigues for the management of the succession. The courage of Mary and the loyalty of the nation thwarted the schemes of Northumberland, and the Catholics of England, certainly a majority of the gentry, hailed with delight the accession of a sovereign who had suffered persecution and sorrow for the cause. It should not be forgotten that Mary did not begin by shedding blood. She spared Lady Jane Grey as long as she could, but her Tudor pride could brook no opposition, and the popular opposition to her marriage with Philip of Spain only made her the more bent on carrying out the project. By that miserable arrangement she wrecked her life. Her domestic life was utterly blighted. She was embroiled in a disastrous war with France, and finally she was induced by her advisers to enter upon a course of religious persecution, which has since unjustly come to be regarded as the chief, and, perhaps, only, feature of her reign.

It is impossible here to give more than the merest general outline of the character and policy of Elizabeth. From the first her attitude to Catholicism was perfectly consistent. With little real religious conviction, she was opposed to the papacy from purely political motives, and the Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity were passed solely as a reply to the denial by Paul IV. of her right to succeed. From the same spirit she acted severely towards the Nonconformists; the pale of the English Church was to be as wide as possible, but no independence could be allowed outside of it. In spite of her persecutions, Elizabeth was really tolerant. The whole history of her reign turns upon the religious question, and the religious question in turn upon the succession question. Mary of Scotland was put forward by Catholic Europe as the legitimist candidate for the throne, and Philip of Spain, with the Guises at his back, posed as her champion. Elizabeth was, therefore, forced, like her father, even though it was

against her will, to abandon a trimming foreign policy, and to become the chief of the Protestant cause; and yet in the very crisis of the struggle we find her, partly from motives of parsimony, partly from excess of caution, and partly from Tudor reverence for royal authority, acting in disregard of her ministers, and starving the rebellions of the Netherlands and of the Huguenots, no less than her own army and navy. It cannot be denied that in her struggle with the great tide of events which was finally stemmed by the Armada, she was favoured by good fortune to an extraordinary degree. Her marriage coquetries nearly wrecked the vessel of state more than once, and her indecision in dealing with Mary Stuart aggravated a very grave crisis. Yet, with all her faults, Elizabeth is among the very greatest of the sovereigns of England. In her personal grace and culture of character, her patriotism, her despotic spirit, which yet understood so well the temper and the needs of the nation, she exemplifies the highest qualities of the family, to which, on the whole, Englishmen of later times owe a great debt of gratitude.

The historian of the greater part of the Tudor period is Mr. Froude, and though critics may differ as to his conclusions, there can be but one opinion as to the graces of his style. Dr. Lingard on this period requires to be read with caution. Mr. Green is always suggestive. Brewer's *Henry VIII.* is of great importance. Materials for independent study are to be found in Bacon, *Hist. of Henry VII.*; Gairdner, *Memorials of Henry VII.*; *State Papers during the Reign of Henry VIII.*, and *Proceedings of the Privy Council* (Record Commission), and *Calendars of State Papers* (Rolls Series); *Journal of Edward VI.* (Burnet Collectanea); *Chronicle of Queen Jane and Queen Mary* (Camden Society); Noailles, *Ambassades en Angleterre*; Harrington, *Nugæ Antiquæ*; *Burghley State Papers.*

[L. C. S.]

Tudor, Jasper (*d.* 1495), created Duke of Bedford at Henry VII.'s coronation, was the second son of Sir Owen Tudor, and consequently an uncle of the founder of the Tudor dynasty. In the Wars of the Roses he played an active part among the Lancastrian leaders, and it was his defeat at Mortimer's Cross by Edward IV., then known as the Earl of March, that gave Edward the possession of London and the crown of England at the same time. During the Yorkist supremacy Jasper Tudor was an exile. On his nephew's overthrow of Richard III., he was entrusted with the command of the royal forces during the earlier troubles of Henry's reign, and illness alone prevented his taking the leadership during the Cornish rising.

Tudor, Sir Owen (*d.* 1461), claimed descent from Cadwaladyr, the last so-called king of Britain, but his origin is very obscure. He seems to have been the godson of Owen Glyndwr, and he first appears in history as one of the band of Welshmen who, under David Gam, fought at Agincourt. Henry V. made him one of the squires of his body, and he held the same office to his successor. His handsome person gained him the love of Catherine, widow of Henry V., whom he secretly married in 1428. On Catherine's death he was imprisoned in Newgate, whence, however, he escaped twice, and was subsequently received into favour by Henry VI. He fought on the Lancastrian side in the Wars of the Roses, and was taken prisoner in the battle of Mortimer's Cross, carried to Hereford, and beheaded there. By his wife he had two sons, Edmund, Earl of Richmond, father of Henry VII., and Jasper, Earl of Pembroke.

Tulchan Bishops, The, was a name given to the creatures of the Regent Morton, who were appointed to sees in accordance with the enactments of the Leith Convention (Jan., 1572) and the Perth Assembly later in the same year. The commissioners at Leith were the mere dupes and tools of a rapacious court, and a strange, heterogeneous compound of popery, prelacy, and presbytery was authorised, by which the avaricious nobility imagined they had secured their long-cherished design of obtaining for themselves the real possession of the wealth of the Church. It was decided (though the true nature of the transaction was veiled as far as possible) that as much valuable Church property could only be held by bishops, prelacy should continue, and creatures of the court should be appointed, who were to pay for their promotion by making over large portions of their temporalities to their patron, whoever he might be, who had procured their election. The new dignitaries quickly acquired the name of "Tulchan" bishops (from tulchan, a calf's skin, stuffed with straw, which was used in the Highlands to induce cows who had lost their calves to give their milk readily), for "the bishop had the title, but my lord got the milk, or commoditie." "Every lord," says James Melville in his Diary, "got a bishopric, and sought and presented to the kirk such a man as would be content with least, and get them most of tacks, feus, and pensions."

Cunningham, *Hist. of the Church of Scotland*; Hetherington, *Hist. of the Church of Scotland.*

Tunnage and Poundage, a duty which, at first fluctuating, was eventually fixed at 3s. on every tun of wine, and five per cent. on all goods imported. It appears to have been first voted by the Commons in 1308. The original intention was that it should be applied to the protection of the merchant navy; and in Sir John Fortescue's scheme of reform we find that it was regarded as dedicated to that purpose. Nevertheless, the custom of voting the duty to the king for life, which was begun in the reign of Henry V., soon caused it to be looked upon as part of the royal revenue. Accordingly some indignation was not unreasonably excited in the

court when, on the accession of Charles I., the Commons proceeded to vote it for one year only. The House of Lords rejected the bill on account of its innovating tendency, and Charles proceeded to try and levy the tax by royal authority, but the London merchants refused to pay it. A remonstrance was carried against this conduct in 1629, and, though Charles declared that tunnage and poundage was what he would not give away, and prorogued Parliament in order to avoid receiving the remonstrance, he was compelled in the following year to consent to an Act renouncing the power of levying the tax without the consent of Parliament. In 1641 the prerogative of levying customs on merchandise was abolished by an Act which granted tunnage and poundage for two months only. After the Restoration, tunnage and poundage was voted for life to Charles II. and James II., but only for limited periods to William III. In the reign of Anne it was made perpetual, and applied to the diminution of the national debt. It was finally abolished by Pitt's Customs Consolidation Act of 1787.

Tunstal, CUTHBERT (*b.* 1474, *d.* 1559), was made Bishop of London (1522), and afterwards of Durham (1524) by Henry VIII., who, after having employed him on various diplomatic missions, also named him in his will as one of the council of executors during the minority of Edward VI. In 1547 he was excluded from the council for his opposition to the party of the Reformation, and was shortly afterwards sent to the Tower for the same reason, though the ostensible charge against him was complicity in the schemes of Somerset. In 1553 he was released by Mary, and appointed a commissioner to inquire into the condition of the Protestant bishops, though he appears to have been a lenient inquisitor. On the accession of Elizabeth, Tunstal was deprived of his bishopric for refusing to take the oath of supremacy.

Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Sharon Turner, *Hist. of Eng.*; Burnet, *Hist. of the Reformation.*

Turkey, RELATIONS WITH. The relations between England and the earlier Turkish kingdoms will be found under the head of Crusades. The dealings between England and the Ottoman Turks began with the reign of Elizabeth, when not only did commercial relations of some importance spring up, but the queen sought their assistance against the Spaniards. In 1579 three merchants (Harebone, Ellis, and Staple) visited Constantinople, and obtained for English merchants equal privileges to those of other countries. In 1583 Harebone became English ambassador to the Porte, and Elizabeth did not scruple in 1587 to invoke the aid of the Turks against the "idolatrous Spaniard and Pope." To these advances the Turks seem to have made no answer. Their State was already decaying, and Roe, James I.'s envoy, in 1622, tells emphatically how it had become "like an old body, crazed through many vices." During the seventeenth century a renewal of vigour gave the lie to Roe's prophecy of speedy dissolution, and Puritan England, on the whole, looked with favour on the power that checked the Catholic Austrians on the Danube, and so saved Protestant Germany. Louis XIV.'s alliance with Turkey, however, turned things the other way. Yet at the Congress of Carlovitz (1699) the English ambassador did his best to minimise the cessions of Turkish territory, and Sultan Achmet III. expressed his strong sense of gratitude for the efforts made by the English in their behalf. The general alliance between England and Russia during the early part of the eighteenth century involved us in some hostility to the Turks. The government of George III. protected the Russian fleet, which in 1768 sailed to the help of the revolted Greeks, and its acquiescence in the partition of Poland implied approval of the aggressions against Turkey. During the Coalition Ministry Fox acquiesced in the annexation of the Crimea. At last Pitt started the policy of opposition to Russian aggression, and of consequent support to Turkey in its struggle against Catherine and Joseph II. In 1807 Duckworth's disastrous expedition to Constantinople was designed to punish the alliance of Turkey and Napoleon. After the close of the Napoleonic war, England's policy has constantly tended to support Turkey as a necessary bulwark against Russia, but the difficulties created by Turkish misgovernment, and the impossibility of cordially supporting so effete a system, have largely modified the general idea in practice, and Turkey, although helped, has never been really treated as an independent power. The Greek insurrection nowhere excited more sympathy than in England; yet England, after Navarino, drew back, and, while giving Greece her liberty, limited her power, and narrowed her frontiers. Similarly in 1832 it hesitated to help Sultan Mahmoud against Mehemet Ali, and then, after Russia had sent a force against the rebellious Egyptian, joined with that power and France in restraining his advances. In 1839 English support of Turkey, again attacked by Mehemet and Ibrahim, was more thorough and decisive. In 1840 England, Russia, Austria, and Prussia joined with Turkey in a treaty defining the terms of their intervention. An English fleet under Stopford and Napier bombarded Beyrout and Acre, and drove Ibrahim out of Syria. In 1854 the English joined with France in the Crimean War (q.v.) for the defence of Turkey; but the success of the allies could only postpone the decay of their *protégé*. In 1858 England recognised the practical independence of Roumania; yet in 1860 it assisted in maintaining order in Syria [LEBANON QUESTION], and in 1867 in subduing Crete. In 1876–77 the outbreak of insurrections in

the Balkans and the situation created by the Russo-Turkish War brought forward the question of the relation of England to the decaying State. Ultimately the Treaty of Berlin (q.v.) maintained European peace, while recognising that the gradual reconstitution of the Turkish peninsula into autonomous Christian States is the only solution of the question. From that time the alliance of England and Turkey may be regarded as practically ended. [EGYPT.]

Creasy, *Ottoman Turks;* Von Haemmer, *Geschichte der Osmanen.* [T. F. T.]

Turk's Islands and Caicos (or Keys), which form part of the Bahamas, were separated from the government of those islands in 1848. They were in that year formed into a presidency under the government of Jamaica, and affairs were administered by a president appointed by the crown, assisted by a council composed of eight members, four of whom were elected, and four nominated by the crown. In 1873 the Turk's Islands were annexed to Jamaica, and the government was locally vested in a commissioner, assisted by a legislative board

Tutbury, in Staffordshire, twenty miles from Stafford, was granted by William the Conqueror to Henry de Ferrars, who built the castle. In 1322 it was garrisoned against Edward II. by Thomas, Earl of Lancaster, but surrendered. In 1350 John of Gaunt rebuilt the castle for his wife's residence. In 1568–9 Mary, Queen of Scots, was imprisoned there, under the charge of the Earl of Shrewsbury, but after a few months was removed to Wingfield. In 1585 she was again brought back to Tutbury, in charge of Sir Amyas Paulet, and remained there until her removal to Chartley. Tutbury was frequently visited by James I. and Charles I., for the latter of whom it was garrisoned by Lord Loughborough in the Civil War. It was taken and dismantled by the Parliamentary troops under Brereton (1646).

Twenge, SIR ROBERT, a knight of Yorkshire, organised a secret society in the year 1231, the object of which was to prevent the intrusion of foreigners into English benefices. Under his leadership masked men went about the country seizing the foreign ecclesiastics, pillaging their barns, and giving the corn to the poor. These doings were openly connived at by many of the leading men in the kingdom, and when Twenge went to Rome he took with him letters from the chief men in the realm remonstrating against the papal aggression. The pope was obliged to yield, and promised never again to interfere with the rights of patrons, but the promise was not kept long, as soon afterwards we find Grosseteste and others complaining of the number of Italians holding benefices in England.

Tyler, WAT, REBELLION OF (1381). This outbreak, the only spontaneous popular rising on a grand scale that our history presents, was as brief as it was fierce and general; all its incidents lie within three weeks of June, 1381. The Tylers' Rebellion would name it more accurately, five at least of its leaders having been of that surname and occupation, though Wat of Maidstone alone has attained to historic fame. It has several singular and one or two inexplicable features; many and varied causes contributed to it; many and varied interests engaged in it; a seemingly sudden and isolated outburst kindled into flame a dozen of shires with an approach to simultaneousness possible only to concert and organisation; and after blazing furiously and in apparently irresistible might for a week or two, it sank into extinction as suddenly as it had risen. We catch a glimpse of an actual organisation in the celebrated letter of John Ball to the Commons of Kent. The force that produced the movement was made up of many simples, some of them opposite to one another. The exasperation of country artisans and unskilled labourers at the Statute of Labourers and with the too prosperous Flemings that had been imported, of city mechanics disabled in many directions by the gilds, of rustics at the revival of claims on the services that they had deemed obsolete, of the small farmers of Kent with landlords and lawyers, of disbanded soldiers at want of employment, formed a social contribution; discontent stirred by the levelling doctrines of Lollard agents in some places, clerical rage at alleged wrongs in others, formed a religious; the general severity of taxation and the particular offensiveness of the lately imposed poll-tax, hatred of John of Gaunt with some, faith in John of Gaunt with others, formed a political. These and other feelings condensed themselves into a bitter sense of wrong almost universal among the population that lived by the work of their hands. But the taxation and revival of villenage grievances were the strongest. The earliest rushes to arms were made nearly on the same day in Kent and Essex. Starting from Dartford on June 5, the Kentish movement had in a week made the circuit of the county, and drawn together an enormous host from town and country. On June 13 Wat Tyler led this host into London, then entirely defenceless. The instinct of destruction was powerful in these men, and vented itself on everything connected with what they most hated. They wrecked John of Gaunt's palace of the Savoy and the house of the Hospitallers at Clerkenwell, destroyed Temple Bar, killed every lawyer and Fleming they could find, and burnt every legal record they could lay their hands on. Then they occupied Tower Hill. On the same day the men of Essex, who had first risen at Fobbing, and murdered the Chief Justice and jurors, appeared at Mile End, while the men of Hertfordshire took up their position at Highbury. These were chiefly

rustics, indignant at present and prospective treatment. Yet their conduct was comparatively free from violence. They demanded (1) the abolition of villenage, (2) a general pardon, (3) liberty to buy and sell untolled in all fairs and markets, and (4) the fixing of the rent of their lands at fourpence an acre. Next day Richard left the Tower, met them at Mile End, listened to the tale of their grievances, promised them all they asked, and persuaded them to go home. During his absence the Kentish men burst into the Tower, flooded its rooms, insulted the king's mother, dragged out Simon of Sudbury, Primate and Chancellor, Sir Robert Hales, and Legge, the farmer of the poll-tax, and had their heads struck off on Tower Hill. The ensuing night Richard passed at the Wardrobe; and next morning (June 15) he encountered the rebels in Smithfield. There, while parleying with the king and wrangling with Sir Robert Newton, Tyler was suddenly smitten down by Walworth, the mayor, and slain by the king's followers. Richard's coolness and tact disarmed the rebels of the fury that rose within them at this deed; he put himself at their head, led them to Islington, and by granting the required liberating charter on the spot, induced them to march away home. Meantime most of the other southern and midland counties were in arms, the nobility and clergy retiring into their fortified houses and leaving the open country to the mercy of the rebels; and murderous deeds were done in many places. But the insurgents of Norfolk, Cambridge, and Huntingdon met a redoubtable antagonist in Henry Spencer, Bishop of Norwich, who sallied forth, and striking fiercely at their roving bands, broke them in pieces one by one, capturing, trying, and sending to the gallows their most active leaders, notably the formidable John Lytstere, whom men called King of the Commons. Before these decisive measures and the news of the doings in London, the insurrection quickly subsided. Then the work of vengeance began. The charters were revoked—indeed, the king had exceeded his prerogative in granting them—and the courts of law passed the autumn in handing over wretches to the hangman. Though the worst excesses of the revolt had been perpetrated by the political insurgents, these were gratified with a change of administration, while Parliament refused the really aggrieved and well-behaved rustics the redress they had sought. But their blood had not been shed in vain; the landlord class, made wiser by the terrible lesson, desisted from further prosecution of their claims, and allowed free play to the liberating tendency of the age.

Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.*; Rogers, *Hist. of Prices*; Pauli, *Geschichte von England*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*

[J. R.]

Tyndall, William (*b.* 1484, *d.* 1536), the translator of the Bible, was a student both at Oxford and Cambridge, and at the latter University probably came under the influence of Erasmus. While tutor in the family of Sir John Walsh, in Gloucestershire, he translated the *Enchiridion* of Erasmus, and for that, and his known anti-clerical views, fell under the displeasure of the bishop. In 1523 he went to London and tried to obtain assistance for his projected translation of the Bible. Failing to do so, however, he sailed for Hamburg, and there printed his first two gospels. During the rest of his life he kept himself for the most part in retirement, in company with his friend Fryth, his headquarters being at Antwerp, where he was befriended by English merchants. In 1529 the printing of Lutheran books was prohibited by a treaty between Henry VIII. and the Governors of the Netherlands. At length he was seized, at the instigation of Henry, when he went beyond the liberties of Antwerp, and was burnt by the order of the Emperor. The first part of the quarto edition of his translation of the New Testament reached England in 1525, the Pentateuch, in which he was assisted by Miles Coverdale, in 1530, and four editions of his New Testament were printed at Antwerp in 1534. About forty editions were afterwards published.

Foxe, *Acts and Monuments*; Fry, *Bibliographical Description of the Editions of the New Testament.*

Tyrconnel, Richard Talbot, Earl of (*d.* 1691), was one of the most dissolute and abandoned of the persons attached to Charles II.'s court. In 1660 he took the lead in the infamous plot to defame the character of Anne Hyde. In 1677, after being engaged in a long course of devious intrigues, he was arrested as a Catholic conspirator, and banished. In 1685, however, he was restored to favour, and created Earl of Tyrconnel, and the following year sent to Ireland as Commander-in-Chief. He now became the champion of the Irish Catholics, and went to England, and tried to persuade James to repeal the Act of Settlement. He returned to Ireland in Feb., 1687, as Lord Deputy. The magistracy, the judicial bench, and the corporations were at once filled with Catholics, and the troops encouraged in all excesses against Protestants. When the news of James' flight reached Tyrconnel in 1689, he raised over 100,000 men, and in February Londonderry and Enniskillen alone held out against him. At the Boyne he commanded the Irish infantry. In 1690 he was for abandoning Limerick, and left it to its fate as far as he himself was concerned, and went to France. In the spring of 1691 he returned to Ireland, and was received with great respect, though the Irish had asked for a more energetic leader, and though it was known that he hated Sarsfield and St. Ruth. The fall of Athlone was attributed to his favouritism of Maxwell, and he had to leave the camp and go to Limerick. After Aghrim

he was in better favour, but died in August, 1691.

Froude, *Eng. in Ireland*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*; Story, *Continuation.*

Tyrell, Sir James (*d.* 1502), was popularly supposed to have murdered the young princes Edward V. and Richard, Duke of York, in the Tower. The charge, however, is insufficiently supported by proof, and was not brought forward until after Tyrell's execution as a confederate of the Earl of Suffolk.

Tyrrel, or Tirel, Sir Walter, is generally credited with having accidentally slain William Rufus in the New Forest. Tirel himself denied the charge, but the facts that his name appears as the murderer in almost all the authorities for this period, and that he immediately fled across sea, seem to point to him as the actual homicide.

Tytler, Patrick Fraser (*b.* 1791, *d.* 1849), was the author of many historical works, the most valuable of them being his *History of Scotland*, which covers the period between the accession of Alexander III. and the union of the crowns.

U

Uchtred of Galloway (*d. circa* 1178), the son of Fergus, joined his brother Gilbert in revolt against William the Lion (1174). A few months later he was murdered by his nephew Malcolm, at the instigation of Gilbert.

Udal, John (*d.* 1592), a Puritan minister, was tried for the publication of *A Demonstration of Discipline*, as "a libel on the person of the queen, because it inveighed against the government of the Church established by her authority." Udal was condemned to death, but was spared at the intercession of Sir Walter Raleigh. He died in prison after his pardon had actually been made out.

Neal, *Hist. of the Puritans*; Burnet, *Hist. of the Reformation.*

Uffa, King of East Anglia, is said to have been the son of Wehla, the founder of the kingdom. From him the kings of the East Angles were considered to derive their descent, and for this reason were called Uffingas.

Bede, *Hist. Eccles.*

Uhtred, the son of Earl Waltheof, defeated the Scotch towards the commencement of the eleventh century, and thus saved the City of Durham (1006). For this he was rewarded with both the earldom of Deira and Bernicia. In 1013 he submitted to King Swegen, but in the course of the same year joined Edmund, only, however, to submit once more to Canute when that king gained the upper hand. Uhtred was, however, now murdered at the instigation of his old enemy Thurbrand (1016).

Ulf, Bishop of Dorchester, succeeded Eadnoth in the year 1049, much to the disgust of the Englishmen, who considered him utterly unfit for the office, and loathed him as a Norman. When Godwin returned in 1052, he fled, sword in hand, from London, and crossed over to the Continent, and was deprived of his see. He is spoken of as the bishop "who did nought bishop-like."

Ulf, Earl (*d. circa* 1025), is generally credited with having been instrumental in securing the rise of Godwin, who married his sister Gytta. His wife was Estrith, Canute's sister, but notwithstanding this relationship, he was put to death by this king somewhere about the year 1025.

Ulfcytel, ealdorman of the East Angles, led the men of his province against Swegen in 1004. The same year he and his Witan made peace with the invaders, but only so as to gain time. Before long he fought a drawn battle with the strangers. In 1010 he was defeated at Ringmere, mainly owing to the treachery of Thurcytel. Six years later he was slain at the battle of Assandun (1016).

Ulster, The Kingdom and Province of, appears to have been first colonised, at an unknown period, by Picts of Celtic origin. The great race movements which culminated in the formation of the over-kingship of Meath by Tuathal [Meath], affected the south rather than the north of Ireland; but about 335 A.D. we find some of his descendants invading Ulster from Meath with the countenance of the *ard-ri* (over-king), and winning for themselves the land of Uriel. They were followed, during the reign of Niall "of the nine hostages" (379—405), by other cadets of the reigning family, who became princes of Tyrconnel and Tyrone. With the arrival of St. Patrick (441), Ulster, which had lagged somewhat behind the rest of Ireland, received an extraordinary impetus, and became a centre whence large numbers of missionaries, chief of whom was St. Columba, issued forth to Britain and northern Europe. Ulster offered a rather more vigorous resistance to the invading Fingalls and Danes than did the rest of Ireland, and we find Murtogh O'Neill, about 950, making a triumphant circuit of Ireland. During the anarchy which preceded the Anglo-Norman invasion, the kings of Ulster were engaged in a long and arduous struggle with their Munster rivals, and Murtogh O'Loughlin, of the house of O'Neill, twice succeeded for a brief period in making himself over-king of Ireland (in 1148 and 1156). Ulster suffered little from the first invasion, and though Henry granted the province to De Courcy, he only succeeded in grasping a strip of land near Downpatrick. John, however, resumed the grant, and gave it to a younger member of the De Lacy family, through whose daughter and heiress it passed into the De Burgh family. After the murder of William, the third Earl of Ulster, in 1333, his heiress married Lionel, Duke of Clarence, and the

earldom thus passed through females to the house of Mortimer, and to Richard, Earl of Cambridge, the grandfather of Edward IV., with whom it became vested in the crown. In the thirteenth century Ulster was practically independent. The English possessions were confined to the outskirts of Down, Antrim, and Fermanagh, and a town or two in Donegal. The invasion of the Bruces in 1315 was followed by the loss of even these paltry districts, and the O'Neills did what they pleased in Ulster before the accession of the Tudors. Under Henry VII. Turlough O'Donnell and Conn O'Neill were disposed to be friendly to the crown; the descendants of the latter chieftain became Earls of Tyrconnel, while the former was made Earl of Tyrone. When the first attempt to introduce the reformed doctrines was made, the primacy was transferred from Dublin to Armagh, where the O'Neills could protect it. The power of that race, however, was soon to be broken. The earldom of Tyrone was conferred by the government on Conn's bastard son Matthew, to the exclusion of his legitimate son Shane. The latter was, however, chosen chief by the tribe, and having murdered his brother, maintained his rights against the Lord-Lieutenant Sussex, partly by arms and partly by intrigue. For a while he was allowed to administer Ulster as "captain of Tyrone," and used the opportunity to oppress the O'Donnells and the M'Donnells, Scottish settlers in Antrim. These tribes promptly espoused the side of the new lord deputy, Sir Henry Sydney (1586), and Shane, out-manœuvred, was defeated and put to death by the M'Donnells. The earldom was granted to Matthew's son Hugh in 1587, and he was soon afterwards placed in possession of the territory. An able man, he formed a coalition, which relied on Spanish aid, of all the northern chiefs, together with the pretender to the honours of Kildare, against the English, and from 1595 to 1603 he waged a life and death struggle with the crown, which terminated in his submission on honourable terms. The province was, however, utterly ruined, and in the following reign he and his kinsman, the Earl of Tyrconnel, fled from Ireland in fear of the designs of the government. Six counties were thereupon declared to be forfeited to the crown, the minor chiefs were driven out on one pretence or another, and James set to work on the plantation of Ulster (q.v.), which was made with scientific precision, and was in consequence a success. Wentworth oppressed Ulster hardly less than the rest of Ireland, and he was especially severe on the Scottish Presbyterians. With the outbreak of the rebellion of 1641, Catholic Ulster at once sprang to arms under the brutal Sir Phelim O'Neill, who was afterwards superseded by Owen Roe O'Neill, a trained soldier. The latter in 1645 gained a considerable victory over Munroe, but the Irish parties began quarrelling among themselves, and Cromwell's work was easy. After the massacre of Drogheda, the chief towns of Ulster surrendered one after another, and the rebellion in that district was rapidly stamped out by Coote, the Protector's subordinate. By the Cromwellian settlement, the remaining Catholic gentry were transplanted into Connaught, or shipped to Barbadoes; the Presbyterians also of Down and Antrim, who had shown Royalist sympathies, were compelled to migrate to Munster. Of the lands thus vacated Antrim, Down, and Armagh were partitioned between adventurers and soldiers, and the rest of Ulster was colonised by the soldiers, who were allowed to remain practically undisturbed after the Restoration, though the Presbyterians suffered considerable persecution under the last of the Stuarts. Hence it can hardly be wondered that after the Revolution the Protestants of Ireland should have chosen Ulster as the spot on which to make a stand, and that Londonderry and Enniskillen should have held out against James. From that time forward Ulster remained distinct in character from the rest of Ireland. It was more prosperous, a valuable linen industry having been founded there by Huguenot refugees under William III., which a narrow mercantile policy was not able wholly to destroy, and which revived when in 1779 the Volunteers won free trade for Ireland. It was also emphatically Protestant, in spite of the persecution of the Presbyterians, who fled in large numbers across the Atlantic. Lastly it was emphatically loyal, though it was frequently disturbed by turbulent associations such as the Whiteboys, Peep-o'-day Boys, Orangemen, and the like, and though the United Irishmen of 1798, and the Fenians of a later date, drew recruits from Belfast and Londonderry almost as freely as from Cork or from Limerick. Since the Union the condition of Ulster has been on the whole peaceful and prosperous; but the Repeal agitation, and of late years the Home Rule movement (in which the Ulster Protestants have been on the side of England and the English connection), have perpetuated the distinction between it and the rest of Ireland.

For authorities see articles on Connaught, Leinster, and Munster. Among those especially concerning Ulster may be mentioned Petty, *Hist. of the Down Survey*; Prendergast, *Cromwellian Settlement* and *Tory War of Ulster*; Shirley, *Hist. of Monaghan*; and Reid, *Hist. of the Presbyterian Church in Ireland*.

[L. C. S.]

Ulster, The Plantation of. The troubles of the early years of the seventeenth century, the flight of Tyrconnel and Tyrone, and other rebellions, had resulted in the forfeiture of a very large part of Ulster to the crown. In 1608 a commission was appointed to consider what should be done with these large estates, and proposed to colonise the whole district with "retired civil and military servants," and

with colonists from England and Scotland. Sir Arthur Chichester would have left the Irish in possession of their own territories, and only settled the new-comers here and there by agreement with them; but the commissioners recommended that large tracts should be completely handed over to the colonists, and taken away from the old inhabitants. In 1609 the scheme was ready. The escheated lands were divided into portions consisting of 1,000, 1,500, and 2,000 acres, and each large proprietor was bound to build a castle on his estate, and was forbidden to alienate his lands to Irishmen. Six counties were to be treated in this way —Tyrone, Coleraine, Donegal, Fermanagh, Cavan, and Armagh—and the natives were as a rule to be confined to the parts assigned to landholders of their own race, though in some cases they were allowed to remain on the grounds of the new-comers. Chichester, who was entrusted with the carrying out of these schemes, found himself in face of terrible difficulties, and could not secure that the natives should be treated with fairness and consideration. In 1610 he visited Ulster for the purpose of removing the Irish, and had to leave double garrisons behind him on his departure. In 1611 the work progressed better. The City of London had founded the colony of Derry, and everywhere things began to look more prosperous. It was even found possible to reduce the number of the troops. According to the original scheme, the division of the forfeited lands was to be as follows:—150,000 acres were to go to the English and Scotch Undertakers—who could have no Irish tenants; 45,500 acres to the servitors of the crown in Ireland, with permission to have either Irish or English tenants; while 70,000 acres were to be left in the hands of the natives.

S. R. Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng., 1603—1642.*

Ulster Massacre, The. The Irish rebellion of 1641 began with a sudden attack on the English settlers in Ulster, and their violent expulsion from their holdings. According to the statement of Sir John Temple, 300,000 persons were destroyed between 1641 and the cessation of arms in 1643, of whom 150,000 perished in the first two months. Clarendon states that 40,000 or 50,000 of the English Protestants were "murdered before they suspected themselves to be in any danger or could provide for their defence." Other contemporary authorities give equally high figures. Mr. Lecky affirms that the figure of 300,000 exceeds by nearly a third the estimated number of Protestants in the whole island, and was computed to be more than ten times the number of Protestants that were living outside walled towns in which no massacre took place. Mr. Gardiner, while denying that there was any general massacre, or that the English were put to the sword in a body, considers that about 4,000 persons were put to death in cold blood, and about twice that number perished in consequence of the privation caused by their expulsion.

S. R. Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng.*, vol. x.; Lecky, *England in the Eighteenth Century*, vol. ii.; Prendergast, *Cromwellian Settlement in Ireland; Eighth Report of the Royal Commission on Historical Manuscripts.* Hickson, *Ireland in the Seventeenth Century* (1884).

Umbeyla Campaign, The. A fanatic conspiracy broke out in 1863 among the Sittana and other Affghan hill tribes. General Neville Chamberlain was unsuccessful against them, and was badly wounded in a battle near Umbeyla. Sir Hugh Rose then advanced against them, and General Garnock successfully assaulted Umbeyla and captured Mulka. On Christmas Day, 1863, the force retired, and the war was at an end.

Umritsir, The Treaty of (April 25, 1809), was concluded between the East India Company and Runjeet Singh. Its provisions were that the British government should have no concern with the territories and subjects of the Rajah north of the Sutlej; and that the Rajah should not commit any encroachments, or suffer any to be committed, on the possessions or rights of the chiefs under British protection south of it.

Underhill, Edward (*d. circa* 1549), known as the "Hot Gospeller," was a zealous Puritan, and one of the leaders of the insurgents in the western rebellion of 1549. He was imprisoned in Newgate by Queen Mary.

Undertakers, The, sometimes called Adventurers, were English gentlemen, chiefly from Devonshire, who undertook to keep possession of the lands forfeited to the crown in Ireland, or of lands which, though nominally the property of Englishmen, had been allowed to fall into Irish hands. The first attempt was made by a natural son of Sir Thomas Smith, in Ulster, about the year 1569; again by the Earl of Essex in 1575; but the result in both cases was failure. A similar attempt made by Sir Peter Carew and St. Leger in Munster, resulted in the outbreak of the great Geraldine rebellion. After its suppression the attempt was renewed; but this time the government insisted on two conditions, which were to be observed by the Adventurers; of which the principal were, that an English or Scottish family was to be settled on every 240 acres, and that no Irish tenants were to be admitted. But the "Undertakers," among whom were Sir W. Raleigh and Edmund Spenser, observed neither condition. Hence when O'Neill's revolt broke out (1596), they had to fly. In the beginning of James I.'s reign, however, they came back again in greater numbers.

Undertakers of 1614. When, in 1614, James I., crippled by a debt, which now amounted to £680,000, had determined to

call a fresh Parliament. Sir Henry Neville and certain others offered to undertake that the House of Commons then to be elected would grant the king the large supplies of which he stood so greatly in need. Others engaged to secure the return of members whose views were strongly in favour of the royal prerogatives. The people by whose means the votes of the House were to be won over to meet the royal wishes were called by the name of Undertakers, but appear to have been men of little influence. James's best counsellors—Bacon, for example—were from the first distrustful of the scheme, and the king himself, in his opening speech, disowned his connection with the Undertakers. Again, seven years later, he refers to them as "a strange kind of beasts, called Undertakers—a name which in my nature I abhor."

S. R. Gardiner, *Hist. of Eng., 1603—1642.*

Uniformity, The First Act of, was passed Jan. 15, 1549, in spite of the opposition of some of the bishops. It ordered the use of the *Book of Common Prayer* by all ministers on penalty of forfeiture of stipend, and six months' imprisonment, with heavier punishment for second and third offences. Learned persons were, however, permitted to use Latin, Greek, or even Hebrew for their own private advantage; while university chapels might hold all services (except the Communion) in the same tongue "for the further encouraging of learning." It was this Act that led in a great measure to the rebellion in the West of England in this year.

Uniformity, The Second Act of (1559), "prohibited," says Mr. Hallam, "under pain of forfeiting goods and chattels for the first offence, of a year's imprisonment for the second, and of imprisonment during life for the third, the use by a minister, whether beneficed or not, of any but the established liturgy; and imposed a fine of one shilling on all who should absent themselves from Church on Sundays and holydays." It also confirmed the revised *Book of Common Prayer*, established by Edward VI., 1552, and inflicted heavy penalties on all who should make a mock of the new service, interrupt the minister, or have any other form used in Church.

Uniformity, The Third Act of, was passed in 1662. This Act, after declaring that a universal agreement in the matter of public worship was conducive to the peace of the nation, bids all ministers in churches within the realm of England and Wales, use the *Book of Common Prayer*, and read the morning and evening prayers therein. All parsons, &c., holding any benefice, were publicly to read and declare their assent to the same book by St. Bartholomew's Day (1662), and if they refused were to be deprived of their livings. For the future all people presented to any benefice were to make a similar declaration. Every incumbent was to read the services publicly at least once a month, under pain of a fine of £5. Every dean, university reader, parson, or schoolmaster or private tutor, was to make declaration as to the unlawfulness of bearing arms against the king on any pretence whatever, and to deny the binding force of the Solemn League and Covenant. Schoolmasters and tutors were not to teach before obtaining a licence from the bishop or archbishop in whose diocese they were. No one who had not been episcopally ordained was to hold a benefice after St. Bartholomew's Day, 1662. Heads of colleges and lecturers were to subscribe to the Thirty-nine Articles, and declare their assent to the *Book of Common Prayer*. In consequence of this Act more than 2,000 ministers resigned their preferments.

Union. [Poor Laws.]

Union of England and Ireland (1800). After the suppression of the Rebellion of 1798, the Union had come to be recognised, not only in England, but also by many of the Irish, as a necessary measure, if only in order to save Ireland from itself. But the interests of the country did not outweigh the interests of individuals, and these latter were determined not to allow their own interests to be overlooked in the general well-being of the country. It at once became clear that the opposition of interested individuals would be fatal to the scheme, unless they were bought off. The English government accordingly set about the gigantic scheme of purchasing the Irish boroughs. Seats were paid for at the rate of £750 each, nor did the total sum paid as compensation for consent to the scheme amount to less than one million and a quarter. "Peers were further compensated for the loss of their privilege in the national council by profuse promises of English peerages, or promotion in the peerage of Ireland. Commoners were conciliated by new honours, and by the largesses of the British government. Places were given or promised; pensions multiplied; secret service money exhausted." At length, by this wholesale system of political jobbing, the consent of the Irish Parliament was obtained, in spite of a few patriots, who still protested against "the sale of the liberties and free constitution of Ireland." The settlement of the terms of the Union did not occupy a long time. "Ireland was to be represented in Parliament by four spiritual lords sitting in rotation of sessions, by twenty-eight temporal peers elected for life by the Irish peerage, and by a hundred members of the House of Commons." The pledge to redress Catholic grievances, which had silenced the opposition of that portion of the community, had to wait thirty years for fulfilment, owing chiefly to the scruples of George III. But the restrictions on Irish commerce were removed, and her

laws were administered with more justice and impartiality.

May, *Const. Hist.*; Stanhope, *Life of Pitt*; Froude, *English in Ireland*.

Union of England and Scotland. For a century after the union of the crowns the two countries continued entirely separate kingdoms, with separate Parliaments. James I. and Bacon's attempt at legislative unity [UNITED KINGDOM] proved unsuccessful. Under Cromwell the two nations had been for a time united under one legislature, but that union was severed at the Restoration, and Scotland replaced on the same independent footing as before. But after the Revolution it was seen that this state of things could not continue, and that as the two countries were now one in interest and in speech, they must also become one in law. The wisdom of William showed him the necessity of a complete amalgamation of his two kingdoms, but his death cut short his plans for carrying it out. Religious and commercial jealousies were still further impediments. The religious difficulty was an internal obstacle in Scotland itself. The hatred between the contending sects of Episcopacy and Presbyterianism had been fostered by the persecutions of the Restoration, and now each sect wished to be in the ascendant, and neither could brook the toleration of the other. The commercial difficulty lay between the two countries, and showed that the old feeling of hostility between them was not extinguished, and might on slight provocation again burst into flame. The English grudged the Scotch the advantages of an equal share of the trade with the colonies, and the Scotch refused to bear their part of the national debt. The Scotch Act of Security of 1703 showed only too plainly the unsatisfactory state of public feeling. From this Act the name of the Princess Sophia, the acknowledged heiress of the English throne, was omitted, and the proviso was made that no sovereign of England should be acknowledged in Scotland without giving full security for the preservation of the religious and trading liberties of that country. Jealousy of their country's independence led the Whigs to make common cause with the Jacobites, and in case of the queen's death there was great danger of both uniting in an effort for the restoration of the Stuarts. It was clear that a union was the only possible means of allaying the apprehension of a civil war. That the union was accomplished so successfully was due to the management of Somers. The Scotch proposal that the union should be federal was set aside, and it was resolved that as the two nations had virtually become one people, united by community of interests, so they should now become one in point of law, and as they already had one and the same sovereign, so they should have one and the same legislature. Commissioners from both kingdoms were empowered to draw up the Articles of Union, which were twenty-five in number. The chief provisions of these articles were that on May 1, 1707, England and Scotland should be united in one kingdom, bearing the name of Great Britain; that the succession to the crown of Scotland should be in all points the same as had been settled for England; that the United Kingdom should be represented by one Parliament; that thenceforward there should be community of rights and privileges between the two kingdoms, except where otherwise agreed upon by the Parliament; that all standards of coin, weights, and measures in Scotland should be assimilated to those of England; that the laws of trade, customs, and excise should be the same in both countries; that all other laws of Scotland should remain unchanged, but with the provision that they might be altered in time to come at the discretion of the united Parliament. To these articles was added an Act of Security for the maintenance of the Scottish Church and the four universities. This Act required each sovereign on his or her accession to take an oath to protect the Presbyterian Church as the established Church of Scotland. The whole judicial machinery for the administration of the Scottish law system remained untouched, but henceforward there would be a possibility of appeal from the decisions of the Court of Sessions to the House of Lords. In the Parliament of Great Britain Scotland was to be represented by forty-five members sent up by the Commons, and sixteen peers elected by their fellows as representatives of the peerage of Scotland. The Articles of Union received the royal assent, and the first Parliament of Great Britain met Oct. 23, 1707.

Burton, *Hist. of Scotland*, and *Queen Anne*.

United Free Church of Scotland. [FREE CHURCH OF SCOTLAND.]

Union of South Africa. [SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF.]

United Irishmen, THE. The plan on which this society was afterwards constituted was sketched by Russel and Wolfe Tone. Its object was to be the establishment of the "rights of man," and correspondence with the Jacobin Club in Paris, and the English Revolution Society. Reform and Catholic Emancipation were to be among its immediate objects. On July 14, 1790, it was organised, but its first actual meeting took place at the Eagle in Dublin on Nov. 9. Hamilton Rowan and Wolfe Tone were the leaders; Napper Tandy was secretary. After the French victories in 1792, they began openly to talk of rebellion, and raised a national guard. The meeting of the Catholic Committee was thought to be the signal of

war, but Fitz-Gibbon declaring the national guard illegal, only three men assembled in defiance of his proclamation. In the north the society made much show in green uniforms, but were disarmed in 1793. An attempt at a representative assembly was foiled by the Convention Bill. In 1794 they again began secretly to prepare for revolt. Their organisation, now secret, consisted of county committees, baronial committees, and elementary bodies, with an executive directory of five members at their head. The heads of these bodies were changed fortnightly, and they only dealt with and knew of their immediate superiors. They had about a million members, but the very perfection of their organisation was its great fault, as the seizure of a few leaders would paralyse the whole body. One of their chief schemes was to debauch the fidelity of the Dublin garrison, and though they were unsuccessful in this, the militia were almost entirely theirs. In 1796 Hoche, whom Lord Edward Fitzgerald and O'Connor went to see, promised them French help, and they boasted at that time that they could muster 200,000 men. The seizure of Keogh in Dublin, and of others in Belfast, however, paralysed them, and when the French were at Bantry the country remained quiet. In 1797 they had reorganised themselves, but General Lake, by disarming Ulster, again disabled them. This last step was taken in consequence of the report of a secret committee of the House of Commons; and at the same time a free pardon was promised to all the United Irishmen who surrendered before June 24. The Dublin men refused to rise at once, and in consequence the men of Ulster submitted. In 1798 the Catholics, with the concurrence of the Dublin committee, prepared to rise, but again the arrest of their leaders disconcerted their plans.

Froude, *Eng. in Ireland*; *Life of Grattan*; Massey, *Hist. of Eng.*

United Kingdom. The adoption by James I. of the title "King of Great Britain" instead of "of England and Scotland," was part of his wider plan of bringing about complete union between the two kingdoms. As early as April, 1604, the English Parliament was asked to consent to the change of style. But fears were expressed lest the laws and liberties of England might not hold good in the new realm of Britain, and the Commons urged that some agreement as to the terms of the union should precede the assumption of the title. James yielded to the advice of Cecil, and deferred the change. Bacon, in *Considerations Touching the Union*, which he laid before the king in the autumn, suggested that it would be better to proceed by proclamation: "the two difficulties are point of honour and love to the former names, and the doubt lest the alteration may induce and involve an alteration in the laws and policies of the kingdom. Both which, if your majesty shall assume the style by proclamation and not by Parliament, are satisfied; for then the usual names must needs remain in writs and records, the forms whereof cannot be altered but by Act of Parliament, and so the point of honour satisfied. And, again, your proclamation altereth no law, and so the scruple of a tacit or implied alteration of laws likewise satisfied." Accordingly on Oct. 20 James issued a proclamation: "As an imperial monarchy of these two great kingdoms doth comprehend the whole island, so it shall keep in all ensuing ages the united denomination of the invincible monarchy of Great Britain, and, therefore, by the force of our royal prerogative we assume to ourselves the style and title of King of Great Britain, France, and Ireland . . . to be used in all proclamations, missives, treaties, leagues, dedications, &c.;" and the inscription "J. D. G. Mag. Brit. F. et H. R." was placed on the coinage. James was, however, baulked in his attempt to bring about union, and the title only received Parliamentary sanction at the union with Scotland in 1707. By the Act of Union (with Ireland), 39 & 40 Geo. III., c. 67 (July, 1800), the kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland were constituted the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, which has been the official designation since.

For the measures of James, see Gardiner's *Hist. of Eng.*, i. 177; Spedding, *Letters and Life of Bacon*, iii. 255. [W. J. A.]

United States, Relations with. [American War; Geneva Convention; Oregon; San Juan; Trent Case; Washington, Treaty of.]

Universities. The word *universitas* is in Roman Law the synonym of *collegium*. In the Middle Ages it was originally used of any body of men when spoken of in their collective capacity; but it gradually became appropriated to those guilds or corporations *either* of masters *or* of scholars, the earliest of which originated in that great revival of intellectual activity throughout Europe which began at the end of the eleventh or the beginning of the twelfth century. The idea of a university may be said to have originated at Bologna, where a university of students was formed in the course of the twelfth century. The schools of Paris date their pre-eminent position from the teaching of Abelard in the first half of the twelfth century; but there is no trace of the formation of an organised society or university of masters till towards the close of the twelfth century.

Oxford was the earliest of the universities organised after the model of Paris, though in the division of the faculty of arts into *Australes* (South-countrymen) and *Boreales* (North-countrymen), each under its "Proctor" (who at the daughter-university of Cambridge long retained the name of "Rector"),

there seems a trace of an earlier organisation on the model of the two universities, each with its own rector, of *Ultramontani* and *Citramontani* at Bologna. The legend which attributes the foundation of the University of Oxford, and even of University College, to Alfred the Great, is supported only by documents now known to be forged or interpolated. There is no trace of any schools of the smallest reputation at Oxford till about the year 1232, when the Paris doctor of theology, Robert Pulleyn, is said to have taught there. In about 1250 the Italian jurist Vacarius introduced the study of Roman Law. At the beginning of the following century we find the university fully organised on the model of Paris, with some important differences. At Paris the masters had to obtain their licence to teach, or degree, from the Chancellor of the Cathedral or of St. Geneviève. At Oxford the chancellor was chosen by the masters, but derived his authority from the bishop of the distant see of Lincoln. He, in fact, united the functions of the chancellor and the rector at Paris, and eventually became more powerful than either. He was from the first an ecclesiastical judge in cases affecting scholars. After the great "Town" and "Gown" battle of 1209, in which three scholars were hanged by the townsmen, the university gained its first royal charter of privilege, and its chancellor obtained a civil and criminal, as well as an ecclesiastical, jurisdiction. Each of those sanguinary street-fights, with bow and arrow, or sword and dagger, between clerks and townsfolk, which make up the history of mediæval Oxford, ended in the humiliation of the town and some accession to the privileges of the university. The chancellor eventually acquired (subject to an appeal to the university) cognisance of all cases in which a scholar was one party, except in cases of homicide or maim.

The students (who usually began their arts course at thirteen or fifteen) at first lived sometimes in lodgings with townsmen, but usually in "halls" or "inns," which were boarding-houses kept by a master. In 1249, William of Durham left a legacy to provide pensions for four Masters of Arts studying theology, a foundation which developed into "University College." Some time between 1263 and 1268, Balliol College was founded for poor students in arts, by John Balliol and Dervorgilla, his wife. It was, however, the far larger foundation, in 1264, of Walter de Merton, Bishop of Rochester, which really originated the English college system. The foundation of Exeter followed in 1314, Oriel (by Edward II.) in 1326, Queen's (named after Queen Philippa by Robert Eglesfield her chaplain) in 1340. William of Wykeham's splendid foundation (1386), still known as New College, introduces a new era in college-building. After the foundation of Lincoln in 1427 came All Souls' (1437), and Magdalen in 1458, founded, the former by Archbishop Chichele, the latter by William of Waynflete, both Wykehamists, and imitators of Wykeham. Brasenose was founded in 1509, Corpus Christi—designed to foster the "New Learning"—by Bishop Fox, in 1516. Christ Church was begun under the name of Cardinal College by Wolsey, and completed by Henry VIII. in 1546. Trinity (1554), which occupies the site of an earlier college for Durham monks, and St. John's (1555) are the offspring of the Marian reaction: Jesus (1571), Wadham (1609), and Pembroke (1624) of the Reformation. Worcester, on the site of the hall once occupied by Gloucester monks, dates from 1714. Keble, founded in 1870, is the monument of the "Oxford movement." The ancient Magdalen Hall was endowed and incorporated as Hertford College in 1874.

The colleges had originally been intended only as a means of support for poor scholars; but their superior discipline led to the practice of sending wealthier boys as "commoners," or paying boarders, to them. The Reformation for a time nearly emptied the university; most of the halls disappeared, and the code of statutes imposed upon the university during the chancellorship of Laud, completed its transformation into an aggregate of colleges, by giving the "Hebdomadal Council" of heads of houses the sole initiative in university legislation.

From the time of the Restoration learning declined, and in the eighteenth century Oxford gradually sank into a state of intellectual torpor. The first sign of reviving life is the distinction between what were afterwards called "Pass" and "Honour" examinations in 1802, followed by foundation of "Honour Schools," in classics and mathematics in 1807. And the "Oxford movement" gave a great impulse to the intellectual, as well as the ecclesiastical, activity of the university. The era of University Reform begins with the appointment of a Royal Commission of Inquiry in 1850. The Act of 1854 abolished the subscription to the Articles hitherto required at matriculation and on admission to the B.A. degree, and appointed an executive commission which abolished the local restrictions of scholarships and fellowships. The abolition of tests for the higher degrees was delayed till 1871. The commission of 1877 founded or augmented professorships at the expense of the colleges, limited the tenure of "idle" fellowships, and almost completely removed clerical restrictions. Women were admitted to honours examinations in 1884.

The stories which attribute the foundation of CAMBRIDGE to Cantaber, a mythical Spanish prince, or to Sigebert, King of the East Angles in the seventh century, are among the stupidest of historical fabrications. The first authentic notice of Cambridge as a seat of

learning is in 1209, when some of the students who left Oxford, in consequence of the disturbances of that year, established themselves at Cambridge. In 1229 came an immigration of students who had left Paris on account of the great quarrel of that university with the Friars. To this year belongs the first legal recognition of the university and its chancellor. It now appears to be organised after the model of Oxford, and its history is marked by the same struggle for independence against the bishop, and the same sanguinary street-fights between "Town" and "Gown," or "North" and "South," and the chancellor gradually acquired nearly the same jurisdiction, though exemption of the university from the jurisdiction of the bishop and of the metropolitan was not fully established till 1434. The statutes by which the university has been nominally governed down to the nineteenth century were imposed upon it by royal authority in 1570, chiefly through the influence of Whitgift, then Master of Trinity. They virtually destroyed the democratic government of the masters by the powers which they conferred upon the heads of colleges.

In mediæval times Cambridge had never enjoyed the European celebrity of Oxford; but the English Reformation was a Cambridge movement. From that time, but still more conspicuously after the Restoration, to the nineteenth century, the superiority in intellectual activity was, as Macaulay boasts, "on the side of the less ancient and less splendid university." It was, in the main, the impulse given to mathematical study by Sir Isaac Newton, long resident in the university as Fellow of Trinity and Professor of Mathematics, which saved Cambridge from the stagnation of eighteenth-century Oxford. The lists of the Mathematical "Tripos" date from 1747. The Classical Tripos was founded in 1824. Women were first regularly admitted to Tripos examinations in 1881.

The first college at Cambridge, Peterhouse, was founded by Hugh Balsham, Bishop of Ely, in the year 1284, upon the model of Merton College, Oxford, the rule of Merton being constantly appealed to in the statutes. Michaelhouse (now extinct) was founded in 1324, Clare in 1326, the King's Hall by Edward III. in 1327, Pembroke in 1347, Gonville (called Gonville and Caius since its refoundation by Dr. Caius in 1558) in 1348, Trinity Hall in 1350, Corpus Christi by the Cambridge guilds of Corpus Christi and of St. Mary in 1352. King's was founded in 1441 by Henry VI., out of the revenues of the suppressed "alien Priories." Queens' owes its origin (1448) to his consort, Margaret of Anjou, being re-founded in 1465 by Elizabeth Widville, consort of Edward IV. St. Catherine's was founded in 1473; Jesus in 1496; Christ's (incorporating an earlier college for training schoolmasters called God's House) in 1505; St. John's, on the site of the suppressed Hospital of St. John, in 1511; Magdalene in 1519. Trinity College (from its foundation the leading college in the University) was erected by Henry VIII., in 1546, on the site of the suppressed Michaelhouse and King's Hall. Emmanuel was founded by a Puritan in 1584; Sidney Sussex dates from 1598, Downing from 1800. The legislation of 1850, 1856, 1871, and 1877, in regard to Cambridge, has been similar to that relating to Oxford.

The first Scottish university was founded at ST. ANDREWS, in 1411, by Archbishop Henry Wardlaw. It owed its existence in a measure to the schism in the papacy, in which Scotland adhered to the French Popes of Avignon, and England to the Roman line. Although exempted from the obligation of acknowledging Clement VII., the schism added to the unpopularity and consequent ill-treatment to which Scottish students had always been more or less exposed at Oxford. At St. Andrews the bishop and his successors were appointed chancellors. The head of the university, however, was (as in all the Continental universities), the Lord Rector, who was and still is elected by the students. St. Salvator's College was founded by Bishop Kennedy, in 1456, that of St. Leonard by the boy-Archbishop Stewart and Prior Hepburn, in 1512. These two colleges are now amalgamated. The foundation of St. Mary's or "New College," was begun by Archbishop James Beaton in 1537, and completed by his two immediate successors.

The University of GLASGOW was founded in 1450 by Bishop Turnbull. The bishops were constituted chancellors. As at Paris the university was divided into four "nations," whose "Proctors" elected the Rector. In the sixteenth century the university fell into complete decay. Its revival dates from the appointment of the accomplished humanist, Andrew Melville, to the principalship of the "College of Glasgow," within the university, endowed out of Church estates placed at the disposal of the Town Council by Queen Mary. Henceforth the university and college became practically identical. The principalship of Melville marks the close of the mediæval or Aristotelian period in Scottish education. By him the study of Greek and the Logic of Ramus were first introduced into the universities. Classical scholarship, and especially Greek, have, however, never flourished in the Scottish universities. The prominence still accorded to Moral Philosophy and Logic in their curriculum, remains a witness to their mediæval origin.

The University of ABERDEEN was founded in 1494 by Bishop Elphinston. The foundation of Aberdeen was designed to be a means of civilising the Highlands and educating its clergy. A small college, subsequently called King's College, was provided for by the founder

Marischal College was founded in 1593. Its assumed power of conferring degrees was recognised by Parliament in 1621.

What is now the University of EDINBURGH has grown out of the College of Edinburgh, founded in 1582 by the Town Council on the model of Calvin's "Academy" at Geneva. The power of conferring degrees seems to have been from the first assumed by the college (unless it was conferred by some lost charter), and was recognised by Act of the Scottish Parliament in 1621. The College eventually came to be called a "University." It remained under the government of the Town Council till the nineteenth century, but is now organised like the other Scottish universities, the administration resting chiefly with the professors.

The idea of founding a university at DURHAM dates from the days of Oliver Cromwell, who actually established a college there. The present university was founded by the Dean and Chapter of Durham in 1831, incorporated by royal charter, and liberally endowed with a portion of the capitular estates. There are two colleges at Durham, University College and Hatfield Hall; and the Colleges of Medicine and Physical Science at Newcastle-on-Tyne are fully incorporated with the university.

The University of LONDON was founded by Royal Charters and Act of Parliament in 1826. In 1898 provision was made for the reconstitution of this University as a teaching body.

VICTORIA University, consisting of Owens College, Manchester, and other colleges in the North of England, received a royal charter in 1880.

Other English Universities are:—Birmingham (1900), Liverpool (1903), Leeds (1904), Sheffield (1905), and Bristol (1909).

The University of WALES, comprising the University College of Wales (Aberystwith), of North Wales (Bangor), and of South Wales and Monmouthshire (Cardiff), received a charter in 1893.

The Irish Universities Act, 1908, provided for the foundation of two new universities in Ireland, having their seats at Dublin and Belfast, and for the dissolution of the Royal University.

The University Extension movement began with Cambridge in 1872, and has been promoted by other universities throughout the English-speaking world.

Huber, *English Universities*; Ingram, *Memorials of Oxford*; Anstey, *Munimenta Academica*; *Statutes of the Colleges of Oxford*, 1884; *Reports of the Royal Commissions of 1850 and 1877*; Rashdall, *Universities*; J. B. Mullinger, *History of Cambridge*; *Documents relating to the History of Cambridge*; Dean Peacock, *Observations on the Statutes of Cambridge, &c.*; Lyons, *Hist. of St. Andrews*; Sir A. Grant, *Story of the University of Edinburgh*.

University Bill, THE IRISH. The essence of this measure as introduced by Mr. Gladstone in 1873 was, that the exclusive connection between Trinity College, Dublin, and the University of Dublin, was to cease, and that that college, as well as Sir Robert Peel's Queen's Colleges, excepting that at Galway — which was to be dissolved — and also several Roman Catholic seminaries, were to be placed in the same position regarding the university as an Oxford or Cambridge college. Theology, moral philosophy, and modern history were excluded from the regular University course, and there were certain limitations on professorial freedom of speech. The bill was soon opposed on all sides, and the second reading was lost by 287 to 284.

Ushant, THE BATTLE OF, was fought on July 27, 1778, between the English and French fleets. The former, under the command of Keppel, consisted of thirty vessels; the latter of thirty-two. After a fight which lasted three hours, each fleet returned to its own harbour, without having captured or destroyed one of its opponent's ships. There was a general outcry against so dishonourable an engagement, and Keppel (q.v.) attempted to throw the blame of his ill-success upon his subordinate, Palliser, who recriminated upon his chief. A court-martial was held, which, however, resulted in the acquittal of Keppel. As Keppel represented the Whig Opposition and Palliser the court party, the dispute received a political significance.

Ussher, JAMES, Archbishop of Armagh (*b.* 1581, *d.* 1656), was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, and was ordained in 1601. In 1615 he was employed in drawing up articles for the Irish Church; and five years later was appointed Bishop of Meath, from which post he was promoted in 1624 to be Archbishop of Armagh. When the Irish Rebellion broke out he escaped to England, and received the bishopric of Carlisle. His chief historical work is entitled *Britannicarum Ecclesiarum Antiquitates*.

Usury. [INTEREST.]

Utrecht, THE PEACE OF, was signed March 31, 1713. Several times during the War of the Spanish Succession negotiations had been set on foot between England and France. In 1706, after the battle of Ramillies, Louis suggested a new partition treaty, "by which he would consent to acknowledge Queen Anne in England, to give the Dutch the barrier they demanded, to grant great commercial advantages to the maritime powers, and to surrender Spain and the Indies to the Archduke Charles, if only he could preserve for his grandson, Philip, a kingdom in Italy consisting of Milan, Naples, and Sicily." But the Emperor saw that the Dutch barrier would be taken from the Spanish dominions in the Netherlands, and therefore from his son; and Marlborough was anxious to continue the war for his own sake.

The Dutch were therefore induced to reject the demands. In 1709, after the battle of Oudenarde, the French king again tried to treat. The allies now demanded the resignation of the whole of the Spanish succession, together with the restoration of Newfoundland to England. Louis represented that his grandson would refuse to be altogether crownless. Thereupon the allies demanded that if Philip would not resign Spain within two months, Louis was to pledge himself to join the allies in expelling him thence. Next year the negotiations of the previous year were resumed at Gertruydenburg. In the interval the French had fought and lost the battle of Malplaquet. The demands of the previous year were renewed, but at length the English and Dutch waived the point of the assistance of Louis in ejecting his grandson. But the opposition of Savoy and Austria rendered general negotiations impossible. In Jan., 1711, for the first time, proposals were made from the side of the allies. In Jan., 1712, the congress of Utrecht opened. By April, 1713, all the treaties were signed except that between France and the Empire and Emperor. In the course of 1714 they also were concluded at Rastadt and Baden. The terms of the principal treaties were: (1) Between England and France. The Protestant succession, through the house of Hanover, was secured; the Pretender was to be compelled to quit France; a permanent severance of the crowns of France and Spain was solemnly promised; Newfoundland, Acadia, and the Hudson's Bay Territory were ceded to England. (2) The Dutch secured a strong fortress barrier; the Spanish Netherlands were handed over to them, and Lille was given back to France. (3) The Duke of Savoy secured Sicily and the title of king. (4) The treaty between Spain and England, signed in July, granted to England the possession of Gibraltar and Minorca [Barrier Treaty]; by the Assiento, a contract signed at Madrid, the grant of slave trade was withdrawn from France and given to England.

Dumont, *Recueil de Traités*; Lecky, *Hist. of the Eighteenth Century.*

Uxbridge, The Treaty of (Jan. and Feb., 1645), is the name given to the futile attempts at an understanding made between the commissioners of the king and the Parliament at the beginning of 1645. But it was soon evident that the demands of the Parliamentarian party were too exorbitant to be granted, for they demanded not only the abolition of episcopacy, but also the establishment of the Directory instead of the Book of Common Prayer. To these requirements they added the command of the army and navy, and the renewal of hostilities in Ireland. The king was by no means prepared to go such lengths, and after some three weeks had been wasted, it was once more seen that the final appeal would have to be made to the sword.

V

Vacornagi, The, were an ancient British tribe who possessed the country forming the modern shires of Banff, Elgin, and Nairn, with the east part of Inverness and Braemar in Aberdeenshire. They are mentioned by Ptolemy as lying between the Dumnonii and the Moray Firth, and, according to Professor Rhŷs, extended "from the Ness to the upper course of the Dee, and from the Moray Firth into the heart of Perthshire."

Rhŷs, *Celtic Britain.*

Vagabonds, The Act against (1704), empowered all justices of the peace to arrest such able-bodied men as should be found wandering about without any lawful calling or visible means of subsistence, and hand them over as recruits to her Majesty's officers. It was strongly approved of by Marlborough, who hoped thereby to recruit his army, but was bitterly opposed by Nottingham. It was opposed in the House of Commons, chiefly, however, because of the objection felt by the Tories towards a standing army. In the Upper House the bill was made the occasion for attacking the mean conduct of Sir Nathan Wright.

Vagrancy Acts. Enactments against vagrancy began with the Statutes of Labourers (the first in 1349), which aimed at securing cheap labour, and treated the labourers who wandered in search of better terms as criminals. By the Act of 1388—the origin of the English poor law—the labourer was forbidden to leave the hundred where he served without a passport from his hundred declaring the cause of his journey. In 1414 justices of the peace were empowered to recover fugitive labourers by writ in whatever part of the country they might be, and were given summary jurisdiction over all offences committed by them. Tudor legislation on the subject is "written in blood," and marks the terror felt in the break-up of mediæval society at the bands of vagrants wandering over the country. The Act of 1530 empowered justices and borough magistrates to cause able-bodied vagrants "to be tied to the end of a cart naked, and be beaten with whips throughout the town till their bodies were bloody." Five years later it was added that they were to be set to labour; "ruttelers," *i.e.*, vagabonds calling themselves serving men, were to have their ears mutilated, and for the second offence to be hanged. By the Act of 1547 the vagrant was to be branded, and given as a slave for two years to anyone who asked for him, and if no one would take him he was to be sent back to his birthplace, and set to work on the highways, if necessary in chains. But this was felt to be too severe, and in 1549 the statute was repealed, and the previous Acts again came into force. The Act of 1597

ordering vagrants to be whipped, sent to their place of settlement, and there placed in the house of correction, and that of 1604, adding the branding of incorrigible rogues, remained in force till 1713. The present law is based on the Act of 1744 and 1824, by which the definitions of rogue and vagabond have been widely extended, and attempts made to distinguish between various classes of offences. It is scarcely necessary to add that imprisonment for short periods has taken the place of whipping and branding. "It may now be almost stated as a general proposition that any person of bad character who prowls about, apparently for an unlawful purpose, is liable to be treated as a rogue and a vagabond."

Stephen, *Hist. Crim. Law*, iii., ch. 32.

[W. J. A.]

Valence, AYLMER DE (*d.* 1260), son of Hugh de Lusignan and Isabella, was in 1250 elected Bishop of Winchester. His unpopularity was very great, both with the barons and the clergy, and he was driven out of England in 1258. His quarrel with Boniface of Savoy in 1252 is one of the most noteworthy incidents in his life. It was said that at a parting banquet, just before leaving England, in 1258, he attempted to poison some of his chief opponents, but this assertion rests on no very authentic basis.

Valence, AYLMER DE, EARL OF PEMBROKE (*d.* 1324), was the son of William de Valence (q.v.). He was placed by Edward I. in command of the army against Robert Bruce, and succeeded in surprising him at Methven, but in 1307 he was defeated by the Scots at Loudon Hill. Shortly after the death of Edward I. he resigned his command in Scotland, and became one of the royal ministers. He was one of the Ordainers (1310), and was present at the battle of Bannockburn (1314). He strongly opposed Gaveston, and took him prisoner at Scarborough, but it was without his knowledge that the favourite was seized by Warwick, and beheaded without trial. This violent conduct on the part of Warwick and Lancaster alienated Pembroke, who then endeavoured to form a middle party between Lancaster and the king, and from May, 1318, to 1321 may be regarded as prime minister. He opposed Lancaster in 1322, and was one of the judges before whom Lancaster was tried. In 1324 Pembroke was sent over to France by the king, where he died—murdered, it was said, by the orders of Queen Isabella.

Valence, WILLIAM DE (*d.* 1296), was the son of Hugh de Lusignan and Isabella, widow of King John, and consequently half-brother to Henry III., from whom he received the earldom of Pembroke. He made himself extremely unpopular in England, and in 1258 was expelled from the country. He subsequently returned, fought for the king, and after the battle of Lewes had to flee, while his lands were confiscated. The defeat of the barons restored him his possessions, and he subsequently received large grants of land from the crown.

Valentia, or VALENTIANA, was probably the Roman name of the district between the Walls of Severus and Antoninus, comprising the Lowlands of Scotland, Northumberland, and Cumberland. In 369 the country between the two walls was won back from the Celtic tribes by Theodosius, and given its new name, Valentia, in honour of the Emperor Valens. Mr. Skene, however, is inclined to throw considerable doubt upon the usual theory that Valentia lay between the two walls, and suggests that it may in reality have been Wales.

Val-es-Dunes, THE BATTLE OF (1047), was fought between Duke William of Normandy, aided by King Henry I. of France, and the rebellious Norman barons. William's victory was complete, and firmly established his power. Val-es-Dunes, the scene of the battle, is a broad plain not far from Caen.

Valetta, LA, the capital of Malta (q.v.), was besieged from Sept., 1798, to Sept., 1800, by a force of Maltese and English, who were anxious to drive the French out of the island. After being reduced to the verge of starvation the French garrison, commanded by General Vaubois, were compelled to surrender to General Pigot.

Vancouver's Island, on the west coast of North America, separated from the mainland by Queen Charlotte Sound, Johnstone Strait, and the Strait of Georgia, was in 1849 granted to the Hudson's Bay Company. In 1859 it became a crown colony, and in 1866 was incorporated with British Columbia (q.v.), whilst five years later the whole province became part of the Dominion of Canada (q.v.). The capital of the island is Victoria, which has a population of about 17,000; and the chief sources of its wealth are gold and coal, and fisheries. The Canadian Pacific Railway, which ends at Vancouver city, on the mainland, has sensibly increased its importance and favoured its development.

Van Diemen's Land. [AUSTRALIA.]

Vane, SIR HENRY, THE ELDER (*b.* 1589, *d.* 1655), was employed on diplomatic business by Charles I., and subsequently became treasurer of the royal household. In 1639 he was appointed Secretary of State, through the queen's influence. He was a bitter opponent of Strafford, and one of the chief instruments in his conviction. He held his secretaryship till Nov., 1641, though he decidedly inclined towards the Opposition in Parliament, but retired into private life after being deprived of his offices. Clarendon says that he was the last of the king's counsellors who stayed with Parliament, and that

"though he concurred in all the malicious designs against the king, and against the Church, he grew into the hatred and contempt of those who had made most use of him, and died in universal reproach."

Vane, Sir Henry (*b.* 1612, *d.* 1662), the son of Sir Henry Vane, Comptroller of the King's Household, was educated at Westminster School and Magdalen Hall, Oxford. In 1635 he emigrated to Massachusetts, of which colony he was elected governor, but after a year's tenure of the office his advocacy of unlimited religious liberty lost him his post, and he returned to England in 1637. In the Long Parliament he became one of the leaders of the Root and Branch party, and his evidence played an important part in Strafford's trial. In July, 1643, Vane was appointed one of the commissioners to negotiate the alliance with Scotland, and it was by his skill that the clause "according to the Word of God," was inserted in the Solemn League and Covenant. In the Parliament Vane was recognised throughout as one of the ablest leaders of the Independents, and sided with that party and with the army against the Presbyterians in 1647. Vane disapproved of the violation of the Parliament by Pride's Purge, and took no part in the king's trial. He was chosen as a member of the Council of State of the Republic, but refused the proposed oath approving of the punishment of the king. As head of the commission governing the navy, and chairman of the committee for drawing up the scheme for the constitution of a new Parliament, he played a very important part during this period; but his persistency in pressing forward the passing of his measure, and refusing Cromwell's plan, led the general to expel the Rump (1653). In 1656 he wrote a tract entitled *A Healing Question Propounded*, proposing the calling of a general convention to establish a free constitution, for which he was summoned before the Protector's council, and imprisoned at Carisbrooke for three months. In Richard Cromwell's Parliament, Vane represented Whitchurch, and headed the opposition to the new government. When the restored Rump quarrelled with the army, Vane took part with the army, and acted in the Council of State established by it. On the second restoration of the Rump, Vane was punished by being expelled from Parliament (Jan., 1660), and relegated to his estates in Durham. On the return of the king he was arrested (July, 1660), and wholly excepted from the amnesty, though it was agreed that the two Houses should petition Charles to spare his life. After two years' imprisonment he was tried (June, 1662), and sentenced to death, the king thinking, as he wrote to Clarendon, that he was too dangerous a man to live if he could honestly be put out of the way. He was executed on June 14, 1662.

Forster, *British Statesmen*, vol. iv.; Clarendon, *Hist. of the Rebellion*. [C. H. F.]

Vansittart, Henry, was a Madras civilian selected to succeed Clive in the government of Bengal (1760). He determined to depose Meer Jaffier and place Meer Cossim as ruler in his stead. In this plan, however, he was opposed by several members of his council. His attempts to force revenue reforms on Meer Cossim ended in the massacre of Patna (q.v.), and the restoration of Meer Jaffier. Notwithstanding the ill-success which attended his measures generally, Mr. Vansittart seems to have been a man of very good intentions. He attempted to check the illegitimate trading which the Company's servants carried on for their own benefit. In 1765 he returned to Europe, and in 1769 was appointed one of a company of three "Supervisors" sent out to India by the Company for the purpose of investigation and reform. On their voyage to Hindostan the frigate in which these gentlemen were embarked, disappeared in an unaccountable way, nothing having ever been heard of its unfortunate passengers from that day.

Varaville, The Battle of (1058), was fought by William of Normandy against the combined forces of France and Anjou. The latter were completely routed, and shortly afterwards peace was made. Varaville is on the Dive, not far from Falaise.

Vassalage is a word signifying the condition of feudal dependence. The term *vassus* (from a Celtic word originally meaning "a growing youth") appears first in Merovingian chronicles and charters in the sense of an unfree person, while in the Carolingian period it is used for a freeman who has commended himself to some more powerful person or corporation. Commendation was symbolised by the act of homage, which was accompanied by an oath of fealty. But at first the relation was a purely personal one, and implied no change in the ownership of the land. It was only when the beneficiary tie, that relation which arose from the grant of a benefice with the obligation of service, was united to commendation that the status known in the later Middle Ages as vassalage was perfected.

Frank feudalism arose then principally from the union of the beneficial system and commendation. Though commendation frequently occurs in England, its part in the creation of the English nobility by service, and of the semi-feudal condition of things immediately before the Conquest, is of comparatively small importance as compared with that of the *comitatus* and that of the English judicial system. The word *vassus*, or *vassalus*, is of very rare occurrence before the Conquest; though as early as Alfred the term is applied by Asser to the thanes of Somerset. The Conquest itself universalised a feudal tenure of land of the Continental type, and with the thing came the name. [Feudalism.]

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, i. § 65, 93, where an account of Continental vassalage is given; Waitz,

Deutsche-Verfassungs Geschichte; and Sohm, *Altdeutsche Reichs-Verfassungs*. [W. J. A.]

Vavassour (Fr. *Vavaseur*) was a small landowner. The word has been variously explained as signifying a person next in dignity to a baron, or merely a middle-class proprietor. Probably a vavassour is correctly defined as "a sub-vassal holding a small fief." The word is used in the prologue to the *Canterbury Tales* in reference to the Franklin.

Vellore Mutiny, The (July, 1806). Vellore, a fortress eighty-eight miles west of Madras, had been selected as the residence of the family of Tippoo (q.v.). Here they were treated with great liberality by the English government; but made use of their opportunities to foment a deep spirit of disaffection in the native army—a design in which they were greatly aided by various innovations introduced by the adjutant-general into the military code. An insurrection broke out early in July, 1806, by the seizure of the powder magazine and the assault of the European barracks. About 170 of the English troops were wounded or killed, and thirteen officers of the garrison were slain. The surviving English troops, however, managed to hold their position till the arrival of Colonel Gillespie with succour from Arcot. An investigation succeeded in fixing the greater guilt of the revolt on the Tippoo family, who were accordingly removed to Calcutta.

Venner, Thomas (*d.* 1661), a wine-cooper by trade, was the leader of a band of Fifth-Monarchy men, who appeared in arms in London in Jan., 1661, demanding the establishment of the monarchy of Christ. The rising was suppressed, and Venner and sixteen others were executed.

Venezuela, Relations with. The relations of Great Britain with Venezuela have turned mainly on a long-standing dispute as to the boundary between the Republic and the colony of British Guiana. The Venezuelans derive their territorial claims from Spain, the British from the Dutch, who ceded the colony to them in 1814. As a result of President Cleveland's message to Congress at the end of 1895 demanding that the dispute should be submitted to arbitration, the question for a time assumed a highly critical aspect as between Great Britain and the United States, and a Boundary Commission was appointed by the latter Power to investigate the question. In 1897 the dispute was referred to arbitration, and in 1899 it was settled by the award of the Arbitration Tribunal. During the revolution in 1901, outrages were committed on British and other European persons and property. In 1902 Great Britain, with other Powers, sent claims against Venezuela, and after an ultimatum British and German fleets blockaded Venezuelan coasts. The matter was referred to the Hague Tribunal, which decided in 1904 that the Powers were entitled to preferential treatment.

Vere, Sir Francis (*b.* 1560, *d.* 1609), accompanied Sir Philip Sidney (q.v.) to the Netherlands, and in 1587 was present at the defence of Sluys and Bergen-op-Zoom, where he greatly distinguished himself. In 1596 he took part in the expedition to Cadiz and in the following year accompanied Essex in his unfortunate expedition to the Azores. Towards the end of 1597 he returned to the Low Countries as Governor of Brill. In 1604 he returned to London, where he died.

Vere, Sir Horace (*b.* 1565, *d.* 1635), served with his brother, Francis, in the Low Countries, and was present at the capture of Sluys. He succeeded his brother in the command of Brill till that town was restored to the States of Holland in 1616. On the breaking out of the Thirty Years' War he was set at the head of the force destined by James I. for the preservation of the Palatinate, but on this occasion was forced to surrender to Tilly at Mannheim. He was created Lord Vere of Tilbury by Charles I. on his accession to the crown, and was made Master of the Ordnance in 1629.

Vere, Robert de, 9th Earl of Oxford, 1st Marquis of Dublin, and Duke of Ireland (*d.* 1392), was one of Richard II.'s chief favourites and advisers. He married Philippa, daughter of Ingelram de Coucy, and granddaughter of Edward III., but subsequently, having obtained a divorce from her, he married a German lady, who had come over with Anne of Bohemia (1387). De Vere quickly acquired a great ascendency over the young king, by whom in 1385 he was created Marquis of Dublin, receiving as an appanage the whole territory and lordship of Ireland. In the next year he received the title of Duke of Ireland, and became practically the ruler of England. His chief opponent was the Duke of Gloucester, who was actuated more by selfishness than any desire for good government, and compelled the king to assent to the appointment of a commission of regency. After a feeble attempt at resistance, the king had to give way, and the chief favourites were appealed of treason. Among these was De Vere, who raised a small body of troops, and marched against Gloucester, but he was met at Radcot Bridge (1387) by the Earl of Derby, and, finding himself outnumbered, fled to Ireland. He was proclaimed a traitor by Parliament, but succeeded in making good his escape to the Continent. [Richard II.]

Vereeniging, Peace Convention at. [Boer War.]

Verneuil, The Battle of (Aug. 16, 1424), was fought by the English, under the Duke of Bedford, against the combined French and

Scotch force, commanded by Buchan, Constable of France. The want of discipline in the French army, and the misconduct of the Lombard mercenaries, contributed in no small degree to the victory of the English. The French were completely routed, and out of a force of 18,000 left between 4,000 and 5,000 on the field. Amongst those who fell were the Constable, and the Earl of Douglas, while the Duke of Alençon and other generals were taken prisoners. This victory practically ensured the supremacy of the English in the north of France. Verneuil is one of the frontier towns of Maine, and is not far from Evreux.

Vernicomes (or VENICONES), THE, were an ancient British tribe who inhabited part of Perthshire, the whole of Angus, and a large part of Kincardineshire. According to Professor Rhŷs they occupied Mearn, Angus, and the east of Fife, having for their chief town an unidentified place, Orrea. The same authority regards this tribe, who are mentioned by Ptolemy, as being one with the later Mæatæ, and considers them to have been on the whole neither Goidelic nor Brythonic, *i.e.*, not Celtic at all by race, but members of the aboriginal Picts.

Rhŷs, *Celtic Britain.*

Vernon, EDWARD, ADMIRAL (*b.* 1684, *d.* 1757), was the son of James Vernon (q.v.). Entering the navy, he served in the Vigo expedition, and was captain at twenty-one, and rear-admiral at twenty-four. He was member of Parliament for Penrhyn and Portsmouth from 1727 to 1741, and in this position was a strong opponent of Walpole. In 1739 he was despatched to the Antilles with a fleet to destroy the Spanish establishments there, but failed in his attempt to seize Porto-Bello from an insufficiency of force. In 1741 he was associated with Wentworth in the disastrous expedition against Carthagena. But even this failure did not destroy his popularity at home, where he was elected for three boroughs at once, and continued to take part in politics for some years afterwards.

Stanhope, *Hist. of England.*

Vernon, JAMES (*fl.* 1708), was a Whig statesman in the reign of William III. In Dec., 1697, on the sudden resignation of Sir William Trumball, he was elevated from the post of Under-Secretary to that of Secretary of State, through the influence of Shrewsbury (q.v.). Soon afterwards, in conjunction with Montague, he was elected for Westminster. He attempted in vain to moderate the violence of the House of Commons on the Resumption Bill, proposing that William should be allowed to retain a third of the Irish grants. When the Partition Treaties were discussed he carried a resolution that the House would support the king, and even proposed that William should be authorised to conclude alliances. On the accession of Anne he was dismissed from office. He was, says Ranke, "a pliant Whig, of whom it was said that he knew how to avoid making enemies of those he was obliged to injure; one sees from his letters that, on the other hand, he was ever cautious, even in his warmest confidences —a caution needful in one's lifetime, no doubt, but useless to posterity. One would gladly have seen plainer language in his Correspondence." Vernon's *Correspondence* from 1696 to 1708 was edited by G. P. R. James, in three volumes, and is of considerable importance for the history of the years it covers.

Ranke, *Hist. of Eng.*; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*

Verona, CONGRESS OF (1822). This congress, which met in the year 1822, consisted of the representatives of the five great powers of Europe, viz., England, represented by the Duke of Wellington and Lord Strangford; France, represented by MM. de Montmorency and Chateaubriand; Russia, by the Emperor Alexander in person and Count Nesselrode; Austria, by Prince Metternich; and Prussia, by Prince Hardenberg. The chief topics for discussion were: (1) The insurrection in Greece and the relations between Russia and Turkey; (2) the evacuation of Piedmont and Naples by the Austrian troops; (3) the slave trade, which, however, could not be done away with because of the French interests involved in that traffic; (4) the question of the independence of the revolted South American States and the piracy of the neighbouring seas; (5) the question as to active interference in Spain. On this last subject England was isolated, all the other powers declaring that they would follow the example of France in their diplomatic relations with Spain.

Versailles, THE TREATY OF (September, 1783), closed the war between England and France, Spain, and the United States. The principal terms of the Treaty of Versailles were: The full recognition of the independence of the United States on the part of England, with the recognition of the limits of that republic, which also kept the right of fishing in the Newfoundland waters. England returned to France St. Pierre and Miquelon; in the West Indies, St. Lucia and Tobago; in the East, Pondicherry, Chandernagore, together with right of free commerce. France gave up the island of New Grenada, St. Vincent, Dominica, St. Kitts, Nevis, Montserrat, and others. In Africa England renounced Senegal and its dependencies, and restored Goree, but was guaranteed the possession of Fort St. James and the river Gambia, with a right to share in the gum trade from the mouth of the river St. Jean to Portendick. Permission was also given to fortify Dunkirk. As regards Spain, Minorca and the Floridas were given up by the English, who were, however, to be allowed to cut log-wood within certain limits, and who were to have Providence

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Photo Emery Walker.

QUEEN VICTORIA.

From the portrait by Sir George Hayter, in the National Portrait Gallery.

and the Bahamas restored to them. Holland yielded Negapatam, and promised not to harass English navigation in the Eastern Seas.

Koch and Schoell, *Hist. des Traités de Paix;* Martin, *Hist. de France.*

Vespasian was sent into Britain as "legatus legionum" in the year 43 A.D. In this capacity, according to Suetonius, he fought thirty battles with the natives, took twenty of their towns, and subdued the Isle of Wight. After attaining the Empire (70 A.D.) he continued to take some interest in Britain, to which island he sent more than one army for the purpose of conquest.

Vexin, THE. This province, which lay on the borderland of France and Normandy had, according to the Norman writers, been ceded by King Henry I. of France to Duke Robert of Normandy as the price of his assistance in that sovereign's restoration. During the years of William's childhood it had been resumed by France, and the conquest of Maine and England had occupied this duke's time too fully to give him leisure to reclaim the smaller province till towards the close of his reign. At last, irritated by the French king's jests, and the ravages committed on Norman ground by the French commanders in Mantes, he entered the Vexin in 1087. Mantes was razed to the ground, and it was among the burning embers of this town that William met with the accident which put an end to his life.

Vicar-General was the title given to Thomas Cromwell in his capacity of exercising "all the spiritual authority belonging to the king as head of the Church, for the due administration of justice in all cases touching the ecclesiastical jurisdiction, and the godly reformation and redress of all errors, heresies, and abuses in the same Church," in 1535. In 1539 Cromwell was, by Act of Parliament, empowered to sit in this capacity "on the right syde of the Parliament, and upon the same fourme that the Archbishop of Canterburie sytteth on, and above the same Archbishop and his successors." It was in his capacity of Vicar-General that Cromwell issued the commission for inquiry into the religious houses throughout the kingdom.

Victoria, Alexandrina, QUEEN (*b.* 1819, *s.* 1837, *d.* 1901), was the only child of the late Duke of Kent (son of George III.) and the Princess Louisa Victoria of Saxe-Coburg (relict of the hereditary Prince of Leiningen). The Duke of Kent died 1820, and the general education of the Princess was directed, under her mother's care, by the Duchess of Northumberland, wife of the third duke. She succeeded to the throne in 1837; was married, 1840, to his late Highness Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg Gotha, who died Dec. 14, 1861. Her Jubilees were celebrated in 1887 and 1897. [*See* CRIMEAN WAR; INDIAN MUTINY; CORN LAWS; IRELAND; PALMERSTON; PEEL; GLADSTONE; BEACONSFIELD, &c.]

Vienna, THE CONGRESS OF (1814—15), met to settle the affairs of Europe after the defeat of Napoleon and the entry of the allies into Paris. The Congress was attended by plenipotentiaries of all the great powers and most of the smaller ones of Europe. England was represented by Lord Castlereagh. The proceedings of the congress were much interfered with, first by the continual gaieties indulged in by the princes and ambassadors in Vienna; and, secondly, by the divergence of views that became manifest among the representatives of the great powers. A dispute, indeed, had arisen before the formal opening of the congress. An attempt had been made by Austria, Prussia, Russia, and England, to get the entire management of the conference into their hands, and to exclude France and the smaller powers from the settlement of Europe. This, however, failed through the determination of Talleyrand, who asserted the rights of France and the secondary states. In the congress itself it was evident that an arrangement had been made between Prussia and Russia for the disposal of the territories occupied by their troops; and this was so unwelcome to the others that in Jan., 1815, a secret convention was entered into between England, France, and Austria, to compel the adoption of the policy they advocated. This attitude of the three powers compelled Russia and Prussia to agree to a compromise, and the settlement was hastened by the news of Bonaparte's escape from Elba (Feb. 26, 1815). It was agreed that a large portion of Saxony should be given to Prussia, Posen should belong to Prussia, and Galicia to Austria, while the rest of Poland was secured to Russia; Luxemburg was given to the Netherlands, Switzerland was reorganised, the Bourbons were restored to Naples, the minor German states re-established, and the congress declared a universal disapprobation of the slave trade. The congress closed June 9, 1815.

Koch and Schoell, *Hist. des Traités de Paix;* Alison, *Hist. of Europe;* C. A. Fyffe, *Hist. of Modern Europe.*

Vienna, CONFERENCE OF (1853). Towards the end of July, 1853, a conference of the four great powers was held at Vienna. This conference adopted a certain note which had been previously drawn up in France as the embodiment of their views as to the Russo-Turkish question. Russia at once acceded to these terms, but the Porte refused its consent, objecting to certain passages. These objections the great powers subsequently allowed to have been well-founded; for, as the Sultan said, he could not accept a doctrine whose terms implied that the privileges of the Greek Church in his domains were only maintained by the championship of Russia, and

also threw doubts on the good faith of the Turkish government as regards its fulfilment of treaty obligations. The Porte declared war on Oct. 5, upon which the congress inquired on what terms Turkey would treat for peace. The reply was: Only on the immediate and complete evacuation of Moldavia and Wallachia, the renewal of the treaties, and various other conditions which were recognised by the congress as reasonable. The congress accordingly drew up a protocol to this effect, and forwarded it to Russia, which power, however, rejected the terms offered, and proposed five new ones (Jan. 13, 1853). These being found impossible of acceptance, the conference dissolved.

Vienna, The Second Congress of, met in March, 1855, and consisted of plenipotentiaries from England (Lord J. Russell), France, Austria, Turkey, and Russia. On March 26 it was adjourned, and only reopened towards the middle of April. The negotiations broke down on the proposal to limit Russian naval power in the Black Sea, and after the withdrawal of the English and French representatives, the Congress ended early in June.

Vienna, The Treaty of (March, 1731), completed the settlement of Europe designed by the Treaty of Seville. By that treaty the Emperor had been isolated in Europe. He seized the duchy of Parma, and it seemed likely that England, in conjunction with France and Spain, would be forced into a war that would result in acquisitions by France in the Austrian Netherlands which would be dangerous to England. Accordingly, Sir Robert Walpole, in conjunction with Holland, opened negotiations with the Emperor. England guaranteed the Pragmatic Sanction, which secured the succession of the Austrian dominions, while Austria "accepted the terms proposed at Seville, agreed to destroy the Ostend Company, to establish Don Carlos in his duchies, and not again to threaten the balance of European power." The treaty was signed without the participation or assent of France.

Vigo Bay, The Expedition to, in the War of the Spanish Succession, was despatched in 1702 under the command of the Duke of Ormonde, with Sir George Rooke at the head of the fleet. It consisted of fifty vessels, of which thirty were English and twenty Dutch. On July 1 they sailed from St. Helen's, and on Aug. 12 they anchored in the harbour of Cadiz. Through disunion and jealousy, very little was effected at this place besides the plunder of a few ports. News, however, now arrived from England of the arrival of the Spanish galleons in the Bay of Vigo, and instructions to take or destroy them were forwarded to Sir George Rooke, who, however, had received this information earlier. The Dutch vessels were communicated with, and on Oct. 11 it was resolved to attempt to capture the French and Spanish ships which were drawn up at Vigo Bay, in a position defended by a boom and a castle. Next day the Duke of Ormonde landed some soldiers to effect a diversion, and these soon made themselves masters of the castle. Meanwhile the boom was forced by the English ships, and the French admiral, seeing destruction imminent, gave orders to set fire to his own vessels. Of the enemy's men-of-war eleven were burnt, four were taken by the English and six by the Dutch. Of the galleons six were taken by the English and five by the Dutch, who, however, sunk six others. Of the treasure on board, valued at more than 40,000,000 "pieces of eight," much had been taken on shore before our arrival, and booty to the amount of about 11,000,000 "pieces of eight" alone fell into the hands of the victors.

Villa Viciosa, The Battle of (1710), in the War of the Spanish Succession, was the sequel to the unfortunate defeat of the allies in Spain at Brihuega. That defeat was mainly owing to the sluggishness of the Imperial general, Staremberg, in the support of General Stanhope. On coming within sight of Brihuega at last, Staremberg found that Stanhope had surrendered, and at once attempted to retreat, but finding that step impossible, he drew up his troops in order of battle. He had but thirteen thousand opposed to twenty. The left wing of the allied troops was completely routed by the cavalry of the enemy, amongst whom was Philip, the French candidate for the crown. Instead, however, of proceeding to attack the remainder of our army, the victorious troops fell to plundering the baggage, leaving Staremberg free to contend with the left wing, a contest in which he was so far successful that by nightfall he was left in possession of the field, from which the Duke of Vendôme and Philip had galloped in haste. The enemy's cannon were taken and our own recaptured, but the allied forces had suffered so much in the action, that Staremberg deemed it advisable to retreat to Saragossa.

J. H. Burton, *Reign of Queen Anne*; Mahon, *War of the Succession in Spain*.

Villenage, Villeins. These words respectively denote the depressed condition, and the class to which at one time the vast bulk of the population that was in immediate contact with the soil belonged. The villein class was the aggregate, formed by political and social influences, of several classes, some similar and all distinguishable, which began to be drawn closer to one another long before the Norman Conquest, and reached their common level years after that event. It is a fair surmise that the mutual attraction exercised on each other by the various kinds of *ceorls* and *theows*, the former sinking, the latter rising, till they met and blended, had

been working from an early date. The *villeins*, however, were originally those who had a right to share in the common land of a *vill*. When *Domesday Book* was compiled, the sections of the labouring population that were in a few generations to combine into the general villein class were known as *bordars*, *cottars* or *cotsets*, *serfs*, and *villeins*, the first and last in enormous majority. These may be assumed to have already come to differ in degree only; perhaps they were not far from the substantial amalgamation which eventually made a single class of them. When the coalescence and degradation were complete, they bore many names. As tillers of the soil, and of a status distinct from that of the lower class in towns, they were called *rustics*; as being exclusively of English birth *natives* or *neifs*; *villeins* because they were bound to live on the vills, which had now become the property of feudal lords; and *serfs* because they had to serve another's will. The feature in the condition that accompanied every one of its varying stages and distinctions, and doubtless fixed the fate of the different constituents of the class, and may consequently be taken for the most significant, was the dependence of every member of it on a superior, the existence of an intermediary through whom alone they came under the eye of the law, and by whom alone their rights could be asserted. The moment this is seen in the historic development of our system—and it is clearly seen in the later Anglo-Saxon rule, that no man could be lordless—at that moment we become aware of a general set among the humbler dwellers in the land towards villenage. The fresh impetus given to the feudal principle by the Conquest, and the indifference of Norman judges to the degrees of English dependence, insured the completion of the process; when the twelfth century began, the men whose labour raised the necessary food for all, were in huge proportion "irremovable cultivators," holding their cottages and patches of ground at the will of others, barely capable of political rights, and at the mercy of others for the exercise of such social rights as the law doled out to them; in a word, dependent on those who had lordship over them for everything that made living possible, and life supportable. The peculiar facts of their condition were summed in the single fact, they had a master. This master commanded their services; had nominally power to take from them everything they possessed; could transfer them in the lump with the land they tilled; they were—in some instances at least—reckoned part of the stock of his estate; against his will they were not at liberty to withdraw from the conditions of their birth. They could not buy their freedom from him with their own money, because all they had was in his power. If a villein ran away from his lord, he not only lost the holding that afforded him a livelihood, but was liable to be dragged back to his former dependence. The consent of his lord was needed to his becoming a knight or clerk, or to his educating his children for the service of the Church. Yet his lord's authority over him was not unbounded; for his cruelty or neglect the villein had a remedy in the king's court. And from all oppressions but his lord's he was absolutely safe; the law redressed the wrongs done to him by others as promptly as those of the most law-worthy man in the kingdom. He had, moreover, many comforts and little responsibility. He was generally left in undisturbed enjoyment of his small farm and the gains of his industry, was exempt from service in war, and often found his lord an indulgent master. There was more than one door to freedom that he might contrive to open; residence in a town as member of a gild for a year and a day, unclaimed by his lord, made a free man of him; the Church was on his side, ever raising her strong voice in favour of emancipation. Nor was he always an utter nonentity in politics, or overlooked in the great securities of the national rights. His oath was received in the great inquests; he was represented in the local gatherings; the Great Charter guaranteed his wainage against legal distraint. In course of time the villein's position came to be something like this: he owed his lord the customary services, whereby his lord's demesne was cultivated; and to render those his continual presence on his lord's estates was required; but his lord could not refuse him his customary rights in return, "his house and lands and rights of wood and hay," and in relation to every one but his lord, his capacity as a citizen was unqualified—"he might inherit, purchase, sue in the courts of law." His condition, too, had a tendency to improve; custom raised his hold upon his house and land into a form of tenure—that by villenage, which eventually developed into copyhold—he was allowed to pay his rent in money instead of service; in many cases his lord's grasp upon him gradually relaxed; the current of the time ran in favour of enfranchisement. In the middle of the fourteenth century a large number of the villeins had become actually, a large number virtually, free; these were "free to cultivate their land, to redeem their children, to find the best market for their labour." This beneficial movement was checked by the Great Plague, when the scarcity of labour gave the lords an interest in recovering stray or half-liberated villeins, and the steps they took to this end drove the whole class to insurrection. The abolition of villenage and substitution of rent for its services were among the demands of the insurgents of 1381. The check, however, was but temporary; disappointed of their immediate object and cruelly punished as

they were, the rustics benefited materially by the outburst. "The landlords ceased the practice of demanding base services; they let their lands to leasehold tenants, and accepted money payments in lieu of labour; they ceased to recall the emancipated labourer." It must be remembered, moreover, that emancipation had long been common, that the law was now making for freedom, throwing the burden of proof on the claimant lord, and construing doubtful points in favour of the claimed—ruling, for instance, that no bastard could be a villein. These causes affected mainly the "villeins regardent," as those whose bondage was dependent on land and disabled them only towards their lords, were called. It is suspected that there were also in England "villeins in gross," whose villenage was personal and absolute, whose services at least could be sold in open market, and who had not a trace of political status; but this is still a disputed point. "We may conjecture that the villein regardent had fallen into villenage by occupying some of the demesne of the lord on servile conditions, and that the villein in gross was a chattel of the lord whom he paid or maintained by a similar allotment of land." But even the more debased form slowly gave way before continuous charters of enfranchisement; by this process the last isolated bondmen and their families were, in Elizabeth's reign, quietly absorbed in the general mass of free citizens. [J. R.]

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*; Hallam, *Middle Ages*; Rogers, *Six Centuries of Work and Wages*; Seebohm, *The English Village Community*; Vinogradoff, *Villenage in England*; Maitland, *Domesday Book and Beyond*. [The survival from Roman times of a serf-class of tillers of the soil is credited by some investigators with a large share in the production of villenage.]

Villiers, Elizabeth (*d.* 1733), was one of the ladies-in-waiting to Princess (afterwards Queen) Mary at the time of her marriage with William of Orange. She became the prince's mistress, for although destitute of personal attractions she was a woman of considerable talents, and "to the end of her life great politicians sought her advice." In 1693 William employed her in vain to try and induce the Duke of Shrewsbury to accept office. She married George Hamilton, afterwards Earl of Orkney. William bestowed on her a grant of part of the old crown property in Ireland (estimated at £24,000, though really only about £4,000 a year), and this grant became very unpopular when grossly exaggerated in value by the commission sent to inquire into the Irish forfeitures (1699). It was against Lady Orkney, Woodstock, and Keppel that the Resumption Bill of 1700 was chiefly directed.

Vimiera, The Battle of (Aug. 21, 1808), during the Peninsular War, was brought on by an offensive movement of the French army under Junot, four days after the combat of Rorica. The village of Vimiera stands in a small plain at the foot of hills, near the river Maceira, and about nine miles from Torres Vedras. Sir Arthur Wellesley's object was to keep near the coast, in order to protect the landing of British troops; but although holding the road to Torres Vedras, he had been forestalled at that place by Junot, who had collected there the scattered troops of Laborde and Loison. Wellesley accordingly took up a defensive position, occupying two ridges and some high ground between them. On the high ground to the south of the village, Wellesley placed Fane and Anstruther with some infantry and six guns, while the bulk of the troops occupied the range west of the Maceira. On the heights to the east and north few troops were posted owing to a want of water. Junot's plan was to attack these heights, so thinly defended, and so to outflank the British left; but Wellesley, to meet this, withdrew large bodies from the right. The French attack on the centre, which was intended to be supported by the troops who were told off to outflank and destroy the English left, met with some little success at first, but was checked at the summit of the plateau by the 50th, who drove them back over the edge, and a cavalry charge completed their rout. In the meantime the French troops on the right, having too late extricated themselves from the ravines which had intercepted their progress, attacked Ferguson on the extreme left, but were vigorously repulsed. The pursuit, which would have destroyed the French army, routed as it was, was arrested by Burrard, who had arrived, and now took up the command.

Napier, *Peninsular War*.

Vincent, Henry, one of the chief leaders and orators of the Chartists, was tried at Monmouth for sedition in August, 1839, and sentenced to twelve months' imprisonment. His release was one of the objects of the unsuccessful attack on Newport, Dec. 4, 1839, for participation in which Frost, Ernest Jones, and Williams were sentenced to death.

Vinegar Hill, The Battle of (1798), during the Irish Rebellion, was fought near Enniscorthy, in Wexford. The Irish rebels, headed by Father Murphy, assembled here, established a camp, and committed fearful cruelties in the neighbourhood. From May 29 till the time when the camp was stormed, the massacre of Protestants was a matter of almost daily occurrence. On June 26, the British troops, under the command of General Lake, advanced from five sides to attack the rebels, the road to Wexford being, however, perhaps intentionally, left open. The camp was taken without much fighting, only 400 out of 16,000 being killed. Thirteen guns, however, were

taken, and the rest of the rebels fled in disorder to Wexford.

Virgil, Polydore (*b.* 1470 ? *d.* 1555 ?), was born at Urbino. Being sent by Alexander VI. to England for the purpose of collecting Peter's Pence, he so favourably impressed Henry VII. as to make that king desirous of keeping him in his realm. Being appointed Archdeacon of Wells, he was induced by Fox, Bishop of Winchester, to undertake to compile a history of England. This work was completed after several years' labour, and was published at Basle in 1534. It consists of twenty-six books, and extends to the end of Henry VII.'s reign. Though of contemporary authority only for the latter years of Henry VII., Polydore's production merits great praise as being the first English history which is critically compiled from the annals of the older chronicles. About 1550 Polydore Virgil went abroad again, still, however, enjoying the revenues of his English preferments, and is generally said to have died at Urbino about the year 1555.

Virgin Isles, The, are a collection of islands in the West Indies belonging to the Leeward group, and owned partly by Denmark, partly by Spain, and partly by Great Britain. They were discovered by Columbus (1493), and visited by Drake in 1580 and by the Earl of Cumberland in 1596. Tortola, and some other of the Virgin Islands, were in 1666 acquired by the English after they had driven out the Dutch buccaneers, who had held them since about the year 1648, and were in the course of the same reign annexed to the Leeward Islands.

Viscount is a title of nobility between those of earl and baron. As an hereditary honour it was introduced into England in Edward II.'s reign from France, Henry de Beaumont being the first man created Viscount. The title has never been used to any great extent in England, though in latter times it has been the custom to confer it on prominent cabinet ministers when they are raised to the peerage. It must be remembered that the Latin word *vice-comes* is always used to translate the English *sheriff;* in this sense the word seems to have been brought into England from Normandy at the time of the Conquest, and was used by the invaders for the English shire-reeve because the Norman *vice-comes* was the nearest equivalent.

Visitation, The Committee of, appointed by the Scottish Parliament, consisted of Presbyterian clergymen, who were to purify the Church by visitation. The result was the expulsion of many Episcopalian clergy on charges of immorality, which were often the result of malice.

Vittoria, The Battle of (June 21, 1813), was the first great battle of Wellington's campaign of that year in the Peninsular War. Vittoria stands on a small eminence with the Zadora flowing through the plain on its northern side. In the Vittoria basin Joseph had collected all the baggage, camp-followers, and plunder of the last campaigns. On the 19th the allies came up, and encountered the French in some partial skirmishes. Joseph's plan was to hold the bridges over the Zadora, and Wellington determined to deliver three attacks on the French position, which was very widely extended. Hill, on the right, was to force the bridge of the narrow pass called La Puebla, and drive in the French left. Wellington himself was to carry the three chief bridges in the centre, while on the extreme left Graham was to turn the French right, and so enclose the whole army in the Vittoria basin between the Zadora and the Puebla range. On the morning of the 21st Hill seized the village of La Puebla, and while some of his men were detached to seize the heights, he himself pushed on through the pass, and carried the village of Subigana. In the centre, and on the left, Kemp and Graham succeeded in driving back the enemy, and before long all the English troops were across the Zadora. The French began to retreat, but were hotly assailed on all sides, especially by Wellington from the hill of Aimez, which he had seized by a sudden rush. They nevertheless kept up a running fight for five miles, until, after being driven from each successive position, they finally gave themselves up to a headlong flight, leaving women and children, baggage, and artillery behind them as spoil for the pursuing troops.

Napier, *Peninsular War.*

Vixen, Seizure of the. In 1836 Mr. Bell, an English merchant, infringed the Russian blockade of the coast of Circassia, but at the distinct advice and instigation of Mr. Urquhart, the English minister at Constantinople, who, it was believed, acted with the express cognisance of Lord Palmerston (q.v.). Great excitement was created; a large party in the country urgently demanded war to avenge this insult to the British flag. A select committee on the subject was moved for in the House of Commons (1837), and it was refused by only 200 to 184.

Annual Register, 1857.

Volunteer Convention, The, at Dublin (1783). In accordance with the resolutions passed at the Dungannon Convention [Volunteers, The Irish], 300 members assembled in the Rotunda on Nov. 10, 1783, and under the presidency of Lord Charlemont, passed a Reform Bill excluding all Catholics. Hood brought it before Parliament on Nov. 29, but was beaten by two to one. On Dec. 1 the Convention adjourned *sine die*, and thus came to an end.

Volunteer Corps. Soon after the outbreak of the Great War with France, numerous Volunteer corps were raised in England to defend the country in case of invasion, and to overcome internal disorder if necessary. These regiments were chiefly raised from the gentry and the middle classes, and were armed and equipped at their own expense. Several of the corps consisted of cavalry. In 1803, when the war broke out again, the Volunteer movement received a great impetus. A bill known as the Military Service Bill was passed, authorising the enrolment as Volunteers of all able-bodied men. Many new regiments were formed, and the numbers of the Volunteers rose to over 300,000. Pitt put himself at the head of the movement, and, as Warden of the Cinque Ports, raised a force of 3,000 Volunteers, of which he was in command. Though not called upon to repel invasion, these Volunteer corps were frequently useful in suppressing riots. In 1859 the intemperate language used about England, in French newspapers and public meetings, roused the nation to its defenceless condition. In consequence large numbers of Rifle Volunteer Corps were formed all over the country. The movement spread and took firm root. In 1860 an Act was passed to regulate the conditions of service, and in 1862 amended. Several other statutes have been passed in reference to the Volunteers, and in 1870 an Act provided for the resumption by the crown of direct authority over the Volunteers. Thus the Volunteers were closely incorporated with the military system of the country, and placed under the direct control of the War Office. In 1881 they were further affected by the Regulations of the forces, and by administrative changes; the chief of which was that of attaching the Volunteer corps as auxiliary battalions to the line regiments. Under the provisions of the Territorial and Reserve Forces Act, 1907, the units of the Volunteers were transferred to the Territorial Army (q.v.).

Volunteers, The Irish. The movement for establishing Volunteer corps began about 1778, owing, on the one hand, to the boldness of American privateers, and, on the other, to want of money, which prevented the Lord-Lieutenant from establishing a militia. It was part of the definite system of compelling the English government to grant legislative and commercial independence to Ireland by that country adopting the methods of agitation which had been so successful in America. In 1779 the first regular regiment, under command of the Duke of Leinster, was formed in Dublin, and though the Catholics were persuaded to abstain, Protestant corps were formed all over the country, commanded by country gentlemen. They were now 40,000 strong. On Sept. 13, Parliament passed a vote of thanks to them, and the patriots, anxious to imitate America, at once determined to use them to extort concessions from England. In this they had not miscalculated; and the government, being unable to spare troops for Ireland, had to grant free trade in 1779. Grattan had now begun to attack the Union. The Volunteers supported him, and elected Lord Charlemont, their leader, in defiance of the Castle. In the north they began to hold reviews, their flag bearing the inscription "*Hibernia tandem libera.*" Soon after, they passed resolutions declaring free trade in danger and against the Perpetual Mutiny Bill. The House of Commons at last took the alarm, and in September, 1780, declared their resolutions, "false, scandalous, libellous, and tending to raise sedition." All through 1781 the Volunteers continued to increase till their numbers were estimated at 100,000. Meanwhile their uselessness in case of invasion had been shown by the fact that when Cork was threatened, only 300 came forward to defend it. In April, 1782, when Parliament again met, the Volunteers poured into Dublin in great numbers to give Grattan confidence. The Irish demands were granted, and without doubt the constitution of 1782 was due to the inability of the government to oppose any force to the Volunteers, who at this time actually had 80,000 men under arms, and 130,000 on the rolls. It was owing to their opposition that a projected increase of the army had to be given up. The second Convention at Dungannon declared in favour of Reform, and with the Earl of Bristol (q.v.) as a leader, the Volunteers became a real danger to the State when they assembled again in the "Volunteer Convention" (q.v.) of Nov. 10, 1783, at Dublin, under the presidency of Lord Charlemont, and drew up a Reform Bill, which excluded all Catholics. After this the better classes retired from the movement, and the ranks began to be largely filled with Catholics. In 1785 they were again the idols of the mob, though a vote of thanks to them was lost in the Commons. The failure of a congress to be held under their auspices through the firm action of the government, and the suppression of the Whiteboys in 1787, made them less formidable. Wolfe Tone tried to revive them, but without success, and the Arms Bill of 33 George III. finally put an end to the movement, the carrying out of the law being entrusted to the soldiery, who met with opposition at Belfast alone. Many of the arms of the Volunteers, however, had before this passed into the hands of the peasantry, and were used in 1798.

Froude, *English in Ireland; Life of Grattan.*

Vortigern appears to have been a prince of one of the British tribes (probably the Demetæ) in the middle of the fifth century. Innumerable stories concerning him are related by Nennius and Geoffrey of Monmouth.

none of which redound much to his credit. He, perhaps, represented the national British party as opposed to the Roman party led by Ambrosius Aurelianus. He is said to have invited the Saxons over to Britain to help him against the Picts. But Hengest is said to have very soon turned against him, and, after several engagements, to have driven him out of Kent. Of his subsequent history we have even less trustworthy accounts. According to Nennius he was burnt by fire from heaven, while Geoffrey declares he was burnt in his castle by the orders of Ambrosius. The story of his marriage with Rowena, the daughter of Hengest, rests on very bad authority, but the names of four of his sons, Vortimer (q.v.), Categirn, Pascent, and Faustus, are preserved in Nennius, who also says that St. Germanus severely reprimanded Vortigern for marrying his own daughter. He seems at first to have left the conduct of the war against the Jutish invaders to his eldest son, Vortimer, being himself at first friendly to the invaders. Nennius is also the authority for Hengest's massacre of the British, on which occasion, however, the king's life is said to have been spared. Such are the chief traditions which have been preserved concerning the reign of Vortigern. They belong to fable rather than to history.

Nennius (Eng. Hist. Soc.), c. 43, &c.

Vortimer (Gortimer) (*d. circa* 450) was the eldest son of Vortigern (q.v.), and appears to have actively opposed Hengest and the Saxon invaders. He is said by Nennius to have valorously encountered them on four occasions, but as his name does not occur either in Gildas or Bede, any particulars about him must be extremely doubtful. According to Nennius's account, Vortimer at first succeeded in confining the Jutish invaders to the isle of Thanet, defeated them in three battles, and forced them to send over to Germany for a fresh supply of warriors. Three times after this he defeated the newcomers. Shortly after this last victory he died, with his last breath bidding his friends bury him by the sea-side, and uttering a prophecy that the strangers would not hold their conquests for ever.

Nennius, c 43, 44, 47.

Vox Clamantis is the title of an important Latin poem by John Gower, in which, under the guise of an allegorical dream, he treats of the causes and incidents of the Peasant Revolt of 1381.

W

Wace, Robert (*d.* after 1183), was a native of Jersey, and became a prebendary of Bayeux. He wrote two long historical poems, *Le Roman de Brut* (first printed 1836), which is a paraphrase of the *History* of Geoffrey of Monmouth, and *Le Roman de Rou*, a chronicle of the Dukes of Normandy down to 1106. The latter poem has been edited by Sir A. Malet (1827), and translated by Mr. E. Taylor.

Wade, George, General (*b.* 1673, *d.* 1748), entered the army in 1690. He served under the Duke of Marlborough during the reign of Queen Anne. In 1707 he was raised to the rank of major-general. Wade was elected member for Hindon in 1715. In 1725 he was sent to pacify the Highlands in pursuance of the "Act for Disarming the Highlanders." "General Wade," says Lord Stanhope, "who had been sent into Scotland with very full powers, seems to have been a judicious and conciliatory man, insomuch that he became personally popular, even whilst faithfully obeying most distasteful orders. He employed himself more usefully in making military roads across the Highlands." They have been immortalised in the famous lines—

"If you had but seen these roads before they were made,
You would hold up your hands and bless General Wade."

From 1722 to 1748 he sat as member for Bath. In 1744 he commanded the British forces in Flanders, but could accomplish nothing against the superior skill of Marshal Saxe. On the outbreak of the Jacobite Rebellion of 1745 he collected what troops he could at Newcastle. A false report that he was advancing to relieve Carlisle induced the Pretender to relinquish for awhile the siege of that city. However, he pursued the Pretender through Yorkshire, but his inactivity during the campaign was a general subject of complaint, and he was in consequence superseded in command by Hawley.

Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*

Wade, Sir William, one of the diplomatists and statesmen of Queen Elizabeth's reign, was in 1584 sent to Madrid to explain to Philip the causes of his ambassador's (Mendoza) dismissal, but the king refused to see him. The same year he was entrusted with the task of explaining to the Queen of Scots her hopeless position if she refused a reconciliation with Elizabeth, and in 1585 vainly endeavoured to procure the extradition of the Jesuit Morgan from Henry III. of France. He subsequently took possession of the Queen of Scots' papers at Chartley after the discovery of the Babington Conspiracy.

Wager of Battle, "A relic of old Teutonic jurisprudence," was a Norman innovation introduced into England by William the Conqueror. A man charged with an offence by a private individual "had the right to plead not guilty, and throw down his glove and declare his readiness to defend his innocence with his body." If the challenge was accepted by the accuser, the two proceeded to fight on an appointed day; if the defendant was defeated, or unable to continue the combat all day, he was convicted and punished.

while if he was victorious, or could protract the fight till nightfall, he was acquitted, and his adversary was fined sixty shillings and declared infamous. "The parties were obliged to fight in their own persons, except the appellant were a woman, a priest, an infant, sixty years old, lame, or blind, in any of which cases he might 'counterplead the battle,' and compel the defendant to put himself upon trial by his country." As a Norman innovation it was much disliked in England, and in borough charters we frequently find exemptions from trial by battle granted as a privilege, though it was not legally abolished until 1819. In 1817 a certain Abraham Thornton, on his trial for alleged murder, demanded a "trial by battle," and on the refusal of the prosecutor to accede, was discharged; this led, in 1819, to an Act abolishing "appeals of murder, treason, felony, or other offences, and Wager of Battel, or joining issue, and trial by Battel in Writs of Right." [ORDEAL.]

Waitangi, THE TREATY OF (Feb., 1840), was made between Captain Hobson, representing the English Government, and the Maori chiefs. By it the sovereignty of New Zealand was handed over to England, whilst Captain Hobson promised protection to the natives together with the rights of British subjects, confirming also to the chiefs and tribes of New Zealand the full, exclusive, and undisturbed possession of their lands, etc., "so long as it might be their wish to retain them."

Wakefield, THE BATTLE OF (Dec. 31, 1460), was an important Lancastrian victory during the Wars of the Roses. The battle of Northampton had placed the supreme power in the hands of York, who had been acknowledged heir to the crown, but Queen Margaret, who had fled to Scotland, refused to acknowledge this arrangement, whereby her son was deprived of the succession, and, raising an army in the north, advanced against the Yorkists. The Duke of York marched against her, and took up his position in his castle at Sandal, near Wakefield. Margaret advanced from York, and the Yorkists met them on Wakefield Green, between the town and Sandal Castle. The Yorkists, who were greatly inferior in numbers, were defeated, the duke was slain, his son, Rutland, was murdered by Lord Clifford while escaping from the battlefield, while the Earl of Salisbury and others were sent to Pontefract, where they were beheaded.

Eng. Chronicle (Camden Soc.); *Arrival of Edward IV.* (Camden Soc.)

Wakefield, EDWARD GIBBON (*d.* 1862), was the originator of the system of colonisation bearing his name. It aimed at securing an adequate supply of labour in newly-settled countries by abolishing the free granting of land to intending settlers. Instead of this practice, the land was to be sold at £1 or more per acre, and the proceeds were to be applied to assisting immigration. Thus an industrial element might be secured in the population of the colony which would cause an additional demand for agricultural produce and so increase the total production of wealth. This system, which was at first adopted in South Australia and Victoria, as well as in New Zealand, was strongly opposed by Sir Richard Bourke, Governor of New South Wales, and, except in South Australia, never had any hold. In May, 1839, Mr. Wakefield became private secretary to Lord Durham, while High Commissioner of Canada.

Wakefield, *Letters on Colonisation.* A sketch is given in Fawcett's *Manual*, and some reference is made to it in Mill's *Political Economy.*

Wakefield, PETER OF, was a hermit celebrated in the reign of King John for the number and success of his prophecies. In 1213 John, who had paid little heed either to interdict or excommunication, was terrified into submission to the Pope by hearing that Peter had predicted that on the next Ascension Day John would not be a king. Strangely enough the prophecy received a kind of fulfilment from the fact that before the day mentioned John had ceded his kingdom to the Pope.

Wakeman, SIR GEORGE, was physician to Queen Catherine, wife of Charles II. He was accused of conspiring to poison the king at the instance of the queen. The chief witness against him was Titus Oates, whose evidence on this occasion was more than usually contradictory, and Wakeman was acquitted, but by the menace of a second trial was so frightened that he left the kingdom.

Walcheren Expedition, THE (1809), was projected by the British government on the renewal of the war between France and Austria, in order to effect a diversion, and assist the latter power, by compelling the French to withdraw part of their forces from the Danube valley. The capture of the immense arsenal which Bonaparte had fortified and extended, expressly as a menace to England, was also a great object. The armament, which was despatched late in July, was one of the largest ever sent forth by England, and consisted of sixty ships of the line and frigates, and an enormous number of transports, conveying over 40,000 infantry and cavalry; in all, Sir A. Alison computes that there must have been more than 100,000 men of all arms and both services. But the results achieved by this great force were miserably inadequate. Lord Chatham, the brother of William Pitt, who was in command, was destitute of decisive energy or military capacity. On July 29 part of the English force landed in the isle of Walcheren, and seized Middleburg, while other divisions captured the fortresses at the mouths of the Scheldt. Antwerp might have been seized by a *coup-de-main;* but instead, time was lost

in the siege of Flushing, which surrendered August 16. By the time the English were prepared to begin the siege of Antwerp, that city had been put into a thorough state of defence, and the garrison had been very largely reinforced. As it was now the beginning of September, Lord Chatham, suspending operations, withdrew his troops to the island of Walcheren, and kept fifteen thousand of them there as a garrison, while the remainder were sent back to England. But the sanitary arrangements of the army were extraordinarily bad, and the damp climate of Walcheren told terribly on the soldiers. Before a month was over half the garrison was in hospital. Orders were therefore given to destroy Flushing, and abandon the island, which was completely evacuated before the end of the year. The failure of the expedition was made the occasion of violent attacks in Parliament on the ministry, who were only saved from a vote of censure by a narrow majority. A violent quarrel broke out between Canning, who was Foreign Minister, and Castlereagh, who was War Minister, and was held to be largely responsible for the mismanagement of the campaign, which resulted in a duel, and the resignation of both ministers.

Parliamentary Debates, vol. xv., appendix i.; *Annual Register*, 1809; Alison, *Hist. of Europe*, ch. lx.

Waldegrave, Sir Edward (*d.* Sept., 1561), one of Mary's most trusted advisers, used his utmost endeavours to prevent the queen's marriage with Philip. He was appointed in 1558 on a committee of ways and means, but found no favour with Elizabeth, by whom he was sent to the Tower for transgressing the Act of Uniformity (1561).

Walden, Roger, Archbishop of Canterbury (*d.* 1406), was employed on diplomatic errands by Richard II., and in 1395 was appointed Lord High Treasurer of England. When Archbishop Arundel was driven into exile in 1397 the king obtained the archbishopric from the Pope for Walden. On the deposition of Richard II. Walden's life was threatened, but he came to terms with Arundel, and, resigning the see, retired into private life. In 1405 he was elected Bishop of London by Arundel's influence, and held that see till his death in the next year.

Wales is strictly the district inhabited by the foreigners, for that is the literal meaning of the term Welsh, applied by the English to all the Britons alike. Its limits have varied with the progress of the English arms. In the sixth century it included an unbroken stretch of country from the Clyde to the English Channel, but the conquest of Chester and the Severn Valley at the end of that century cut up the land of the Welsh into three distinct portions, of which the northern part has been described under Cumbria, and the southern under Dumnonia. It remains to speak of the central portion, which we still call Wales, but which was then called North Wales, to distinguish it from the West Wales, south of the Bristol Channel, and whose inhabitants called themselves Cymry, and the land Cymru. Before the end of the sixth century the modern Wales was simply a fragment of South Britain. It was originally peopled by the primitive pre-Aryan savages, who largely survived in the great tribe of the Silures; then by Goidels of the earlier Celtic migration, who long maintained their hold in the west; and then by Brythonic Celts, who were in turn subdued by the Romans, whose roads, towns, and mines showed the reality of their power, but whose withdrawal in 410 led to the breaking up of settled government, the relapse of the Britons into the tribal organisations so characteristic of the Celts, the relaxation of the feeble bonds which Roman Christianity had cast over them, and an anarchy which threatened speedy conquest by the English.

During the sixth century, however, a remarkable revival of energy seems to have occurred in Celtic Britain, and not least in Wales. The political revival, which set bounds to the English conquest, and united the Britons, firstly under Gwledigau, or temporary generals in war, such as the famous Arthur, and, at a later stage, under national kings, such as Cadwallon, who held Northumbria a whole year in servitude—the political revival, perhaps, affected Strathclyde more intimately than Wales. But even in Gildas we read of great princes, like Maelgwn of Gwynedd, and the tradition of the migration of Cunedda from the region of the Wall to North Wales, of the expulsion of the Goidel by his descendants, and the story of Kentigern's wanderings from Clyde to Clwyd show that Wales, too, was affected by the movement. The peculiar organisation of the Celtic Church certainly originated in Wales, though its highest development was worked out in Ireland and Scotland.

But the promise of national development was never fulfilled. Enough was done to set limits to the Saxon conquest, but no really united state was formed. Despite the later stories of Kings of all Britain, and Kings of all Wales, Wales was during nearly the whole of its history split up into an infinity of tribal states, over which very rarely some powerful character or vigorous stock acquired a loose overlordship that was never strong enough to make itself permanent. In the north the Kings of Gwynedd were, perhaps, the strongest line in Wales, but their authority over much of the wide district so named was probably very slight. In the south we know of a very large number of petty states. In the south-west the kingdom of Demetia or Dyfed was in early times the most important. But to the

north the aggressive state of Ceredigion grew at the expense of the older kingdom. Gwent, Morganwg, Brecheiniog, and, in the north-east, Powis, were other important divisions. In short, Wales was a group of clan states, with a few greater sovereignties, claiming indefinite suzerainty over the lesser ones and each other.

The history of these petty states consists primarily in endless and purposeless feuds with each other, true "battles of kites and crows," as no political development, no national state gradually evolved from the conflict. But fierce invaders from east and west made it necessary for the petty kings to unite sometimes for common defence. The English from the east, the Irish Danes from the west, constantly plundered and pillaged. Especially terrible were the ravages of the "black pagans" from beyond sea. After a long period of predatory incursions, they perhaps ultimately formed a permanent settlement in Dyfed. On the west, the Mercian overlords were formidable neighbours during the eighth century. Offa conquered Pengwern and the western portion of Powis, and built a dyke from Dee to Wye to mark off the limits of his kingdom, and keep the Welsh marauders in check. He probably co-operated with Elvod, Bishop of Bangor, in forcing the Catholic Easter on the unwilling Welsh.

During this period the meagre Welsh annals give a bare catalogue of obscure kings. The end of the Mercian overlordship left the way clear for the development of the remarkable power of Rhodri Mawr (843—877), who seems to have added to his patrimony of Gwynedd, the kingdoms of Powis, Ceredigion, and Dyfed, and to have thus been ruler of nearly all Wales. It is said that on his death he divided his dominions into three portions among his three sons, and that the three chief states of later Wales—Gwynedd with its capital Aberffraw, Powis, with Mathraval as the royal seat now that Pengwern had become Shrewsbury, and Ceredigion, including Dyfed, with the king's residence at Dinevawr, near Llandilo. Under Rhodri's grandson, Howel Dha (q.v.) of Dinevawr (907—948), another hope of national unity arose. But the West Saxon monarchs were too strong for such attempts. The friendship of Asser had brought Alfred's troops into the western wilderness of Demetia. All the South Welsh kings acknowledged Alfred as their lord. South Welsh bishops were consecrated at Canterbury, and a deadly blow struck at the old wild freedom of the Welsh episcopate where every bishop was, so to say, archbishop as well as bishop of his own see. Howel himself attended Edward's and Athelstan's Witenagemots. The laws that go by his name are a curious combination of old Welsh customs with those of the English court. On Howel's death, Wales became more anarchic than ever. Its relation to England checked its internal development, but the English supremacy was too weak to impose order and strong government from without.

In 1015 Llewelyn ap Sitsyll conquered the usurper Aedhan ap Blegywryd, and inspired with new vigour the kingdom of Gwynedd. His son Gruffydd became king over all Welshmen, and, in close alliance with his father-in-law, Elfgar, Earl of the Mercians, played a really important part in the history of the time. At last the triumph of the house of Godwin proved fatal to the Welsh king. His great victories in Herefordshire, which far exceeded the measure of the border forays which are the staple of Welsh history, were punished by two brilliant English campaigns under Harold in person. At last in 1065, after Harold had ravaged Wales from end to end, Gruffydd was slain by the treachery of his own men. The conqueror divided his dominions among his kinsmen, Bleddyn and Rhiwallon, to be held as dependencies of the English crown, and, by pushing the English frontier still further westward, prepared the way for the new period of Saxon aggression, which made the Norman Conquest an event more important in Welsh than even in English history.

The foundation of the great border Palatinates by William I. was the first result of the Conquest on Wales. The earldoms of Hugh of Chester and Roger of Shrewsbury, proved an iron barrier which effectually set limits on Welsh forays for the future. Their military organisation made them equally capable of becoming centres of offensive warfare. In the true spirit of their race, a swarm of Norman knights and adventurers poured over the borders into Wales. The earldom of Chester soon extended its bounds to the Conwy, and its vassal Robert of Rhuddlan, governed the vale of Clwyd. The modern county of Montgomery roughly marks the district now added to the Shrewsbury earldom. Earl Robert of Belesme was the terror of all Welshmen. His brother Arnulf conquered Ceredigion and Dyfed. Bernard of Neufmarché, founded the lordship of Brecon in the old district of Brecheiniog. Robert Fitz-Hamon conquered the vale of Glamorgan. Gower, Kidwely, Ystradtowy, were similarly appropriated. Unable to withstand the Normans in the field, the Welsh withdrew to their mountain fastnesses, and, in sudden forays, revenged themselves on their oppressors. Revolt after revolt of the conquered peasantry confined the Norman lords to their castle walls. To guard against the repetition of such events, English, or Low German, colonists were planted in southern Dyfed, in Gower, and perhaps in parts of Glamorgan, and the old inhabitants ruthlessly driven out. Commerce came in the invaders' train, and towns sprang up in a community hitherto unacquainted with urban life. Norman priests and bishops followed the

soldiers and merchants. The Welsh sees were finally subjected to Canterbury. The southern bishoprics were permanently bestowed on Normans. By the time of Henry I. the Normans had conquered all southern and western Wales worth having. After the fall of Rhys ap Tewdwr (1090), the native princes lay aside even the title of king. In Gwynedd alone, whose monarchs now begin to be called Princes or Kings of Wales, was a really strong Celtic power left. There the disastrous fate of Norman interlopers into the see of Bangor showed that the native spirit was still unsubdued. The territories thus conquered became known as the Lordship Marches. Conquered by independent adventurers, they possessed all the rights of a Palatine earldom. [PALATINE COUNTIES.] Their lords were practically kings on their own estates, and were bound to the English monarch by no other tie than simple allegiance. For all practical purposes they were as free as the lords of Aberffraw. After a generation or two, many begin to amalgamate with the conquered race, or at least to intermarry with them and get mixed up in their quarrels. The succession of great English barons to some of these lordships—for example, the union of Gloucester and Glamorgan—had an important reflex influence on English politics.

Yet the Welsh race was still far from being subdued. The return of Gruffydd ap Cynan from his Irish exile (1100) marks a new development of culture and literature among the Cymry. The Welsh bards renew their songs. The Welsh chroniclers become more copious. The old laws were re-edited. Even politically they were only reduced to a certain extent. The Marcher lords were as much divided as the Welsh chieftains. English help was far off, and often ineffectual. Physical difficulties always imposed obstacles on feudal armies among the mountains of Gwynedd. Henry II.'s three expeditions into Wales (1156, 1163, and 1165) were disastrous failures, and were followed with none of those indirect successes which had attended similar invasions of Rufus. Owen Gwynedd (*d.* 1169) was a prince of vigour, activity, and power. The expansive energy of the Normans was diverted into other channels, with the departure of Strongbow to Ireland. The Celtic sympathies of Geoffrey of Monmouth, the strangely chequered career of Giraldus Cambrensis show the approximation of the two races. Archbishop Baldwin's crusading tour throughout all Wales in 1188 marks the comparative peace that now reigned. The alliance of Llewelyn ap Iorwerth, who became Prince of Gwynedd in 1194, with the baronial opposition to John, shows that, despite differences of race, all feudal dependents of the Angevin monarchs had a common interest in setting limits to the arbitrary power of their imperious overlord. Llewelyn's occupation of Shrewsbury helped the success of the movement that won Magna Charta, and the regard shown to his rights in that famous instrument suggests that the barons were not ungrateful for his aid. Llewelyn's marriage with John's bastard daughter, kept him in peace with Henry III. for some time. But in 1228 Henry sent an expedition against him that signally failed, and exacted nothing but barren homage from the powerful chieftain. Up to his death in 1240, Llewelyn waged constant and not unsuccessful war on the Lords Marchers, and succeeded in extending his power in some of those southern districts where their power was slight. Between 1240 and 1246, David, son of Llewelyn by his English wife, governed the principality; but in 1246 Llewelyn, son of Gruffydd, son of Llewelyn by a Welsh mother, succeeded him, at first jointly with his brothers, but afterwards alone. The national revival, which had been marked under Llewelyn ap Iorwerth, reached its culminating point in Llewelyn ap Gruffydd. The energy of the Welsh became greater, their literary activity bore greater results.

In 1255—57 the young prince Edward failed in his attempts to curb Llewelyn's power. In alliance with Simon de Montfort, Llewelyn took an active part against the king during the Barons' Wars. His projected marriage with Eleanor, Earl Simon's daughter, involved his alliance with the French crown and the remnants of the disaffected party in England. In 1275 Edward I. seized the bride on her way to Wales. A fierce attack of the injured prince upon the Marchers was followed in 1277 by an expedition of Edward that exacted his submission, and in 1278 he was allowed to marry Eleanor. But in 1282 his treacherous brother David incited him to a fresh revolt. Edward resolved to settle the Welsh question once for all. He made a great effort, systematically conquered the country, and, on Llewelyn's death in battle, declared his dominions forfeited to the crown. Thus Edward I. subdued the only native Welsh State of any importance. The Statute of Wales (12 Ed. I.) finally annexed the Principality (*i.e.*, the dominions of Llewelyn) to the crown, introduced the English law, with a special judicial system under the Justice of Snowdon, and established six sheriffdoms of Anglesea, Carnarvon, Merioneth, Flint, Carmarthen, and Cardigan, with organisation analogous to those of the English shires. But the Principality, though united to the crown, was not absorbed in it. It was not a part of England, but a conquered country. It became the custom to invest with the dignity of Prince of Wales the eldest son of the sovereign. Edward's campaigns and legislation affected the Principality only. The hundred and forty Lordship Marchers went on as before, except that an Act of 1354 (28 Ed. III., c. 2) declared them dependent not on

the Principality but on the English crown. Their wild freedom, with its private wars and constant outrages, still continued.

Several revolts showed the unwillingness of Gwynedd to acquiesce in the English conquest. The strong line of Edwardian castles alone kept the country subdued. David's luckless rising in 1283, the revolts of Rhys ap Maredudd in 1287 and 1292, that of Madoc, Mailgwn, and Morgan, in 1294, show the difficulty involved in establishing the Edwardian system. After it had slept for nearly a century, Welsh national feeling was again aroused by the revolt of Owen Glendower (1400; q.v.), whose private feud with his neighbour, Lord Grey of Ruthin, became the germ of a determined effort to throw off the English yoke. In conjunction with the Percies, the Mortimers, and the Scots, afterwards with French support, Owen managed to defeat expedition after expedition sent against him by Henry IV. From one end of the country to the other he made his power felt, and managed to maintain his independence till his death (about 1415). But the English re-conquest was ultimately effected, and a series of harsh penal statutes was passed to check further revolts. The establishment at Ludlow of the Court of the President and Council of Wales (1478), was Edward IV.'s contribution to the establishment of a stronger system of government. The disorders of the period of revolt gradually disappeared. The conquerors and the conquered began to approximate towards each other. The Queen Dowager of England, and the last representative of the line of John of Gaunt, both married into the same Welsh family. Henry Tudor became King of England. His son passed a series of statutes which incorporated the Principality with England, restrained the powers of the Lords Marchers, made all Wales shire-ground, and introduced, with English laws, English local self-government and parliamentary representation (27 Hen. VIII., c. 26, and 34 & 35 Hen. VIII., c. 26). The only difference between Wales and England now, besides the still existing, though diminished, powers of the Marchers and the Court of the Council of Wales at Ludlow, was the fact that instead of being united to any English circuit, a special court of justice, called the "King's Great Sessions in Wales," was to be held twice a year under special justices; an arrangement which continued until 1830, when Wales and Cheshire were formed into new English circuits.

These great measures of justice formed a new epoch in Welsh history. The peaceful, if slow, acceptance of the Reformation, the literary and educational revival that began under Elizabeth, illustrate the beneficial results of the change. During the Civil War Wales was, as a whole, strongly Royalist. Some North Welsh castles were the last places to hold out for Charles I. Soon after the Revolution of 1688 the Court of Ludlow, and the remnants of the Marcher jurisdiction, were abolished. During the eighteenth century the Methodist movement profoundly influenced the character of Wales. While introducing a new religious fervour, a higher tone of morality, and a greater amount of energy, its Puritanism made much havoc with the more harmless features of old Welsh life. The movement began with Griffith Jones, vicar of Llanddowror, whose system of "circulating schools," established in 1730, was the only important step made in that age towards popular education. In 1736 Howell Harris began to preach. His connection with Whitefield determined the theology of Welsh Methodism. The suspension of the famous preacher, Daniel Rowland of Llangeitho, first turned the Welsh Methodists in the direction of Nonconformity. In 1811 the formal separation from the Church took place. By that time the great bulk of the people had become Dissenters. Hardly until the nineteenth century did the industrial revolution affect Wales. The development of the coal and iron trades in the south has enormously increased its population and resources. [See also Celts; Celtic Church; Counties, The Welsh; Methodism.]

For early Welsh history, Gildas, perhaps parts of Nennius, the *Annales Cambriæ*, and *Brut y Tywysogion*, badly edited in the Rolls Series, and the less authentic *Gwentian Brut*, published by the Cambrian Archæological Society, are, with the so-called *Laws of Howel Dha* in Owen's *Ancient Laws and Institutes of Wales*, and the scattered references in the English chronicles and charters, the chief authorities. Geoffrey of Monmouth, most of the Triads, and other literary sources, must be entirely disregarded. The "Four Bards" in Mr. Skene's *Four Ancient Books of Wales* are too obscure and doubtful to give much help to the historian. The works of Giraldus Cambrensis, especially his *Itinerarium Cambriæ*, are, though not implicitly trustworthy, of very great importance for the twelfth century. With Edward I.'s conquest the native annals cease. The statutes affecting Wales become now an important source of information, and the English chronicles become fuller in their notice of the Edwardian conquest, and the revolt of Glendower, while the very extensive remains of Welsh literature, contain much of historical interest. Of modern books covering the whole subject, Warrington's *History of Wales*, and Miss J. Williams's *History of Wales* are the best, although neither are very critical. They are both largely based on a sixteenth century compilation, Powel's *History of Cambria*, that has obtained more credence than it always deserves. F. Walter, *Das alte Wales*, though too careless in its choice of authorities, is for coolness and impartiality the most valuable modern work. Early Welsh history is best treated in Skene's *Preface to the Four Ancient Books of Wales*; Jones, *Vestiges of the Gael in Gwynedd*; Jones and Freeman, *History of St. David's*; Stephens, *Literature of the Cymry*; Elton, *Origins of English History*, and Rhŷs, *Celtic Britain*. Freeman's *Norman Conquest* and *William Rufus* are exhaustive for the conquest of South Wales. Stephen, *History of Criminal Law*; Reeve, *History of English Law*, give the legal history of the incorporation of England and Wales. A large number of particular points are well worked

up in the *Archæologia Cambrensis*. A good short account of Welsh Methodism is in Lecky's *Hist. of Eng.* Fuller accounts in Howell Harris's *Autobiography*, Lady Huntingdon's *Memoirs*, Middleton's *Biographia Evangelica*, and Dr. Rees's *History of Nonconformity in Wales*. [T. F. T.]

Wales, Prince of, is the title usually borne by the heir apparent of the English sovereign. After the death of Llewelyn, the last native Prince of Wales, Edward I. in 1301 created his son Prince of Wales. It is noticeable that, whereas the heir apparent is born Duke of Cornwall, it is only by creation that he becomes Prince of Wales. The English Princes who have borne the title are:—

Edward, son of Edward I. (afterwards Edward II.)
Edward, son of Edward III. (the Black Prince).
Richard, son of the Black Prince (afterwards Richard II.)
Henry, son of Henry IV. (afterwards Henry V.)
Edward, son of Henry VI.
Edward, son of Edward IV. (afterwards Edward V.)
Edward, son of Richard III.
Arthur, son of Henry VII.
Henry, son of Henry VII. (afterwards Henry VIII.)
Edward, son of Henry VIII. (afterwards Edward VI.)
Henry, son of James I.
Charles, son of James I. (afterwards Charles I.)
Charles, son of Charles I. (afterwards Charles II.)
James, son of James II. (the Old Pretender).
George, son of George I. (afterwards George II.)
Frederick, son of George II.
George, son of Frederick (afterwards George III.)
George, son of George III. (afterwards George IV.)
Albert Edward, son of Queen Victoria (afterwards Edward VII.)
George Frederick Ernest Albert, son of Edward VII. (now George V.).

Wales, The Statute of (1284), was passed by Edward I. immediately after the conquest of Wales. Many English laws and regulations were introduced, such as the English law of succession; while Welsh local customs, as far as they were comparatively unimportant, were retained.

Walker, George (*d.* July 1, 1690), was rector of the parish of Monaghan. He took refuge in Londonderry before the siege of that town, and was active in rousing the inhabitants to resist James's troops. On April 17, 1689, he was elected one of the governors of the city, an office he continued to hold till August, when he yielded up his authority to Colonel Kirke. There is still a Walker Club in the town, and his statue surmounts the pillar erected on one of the bastions in memory of the siege. When he arrived in London, soon after the delivery of Londonderry from the Irish, the House of Commons passed a vote of thanks to him, and the king gave him £5,000. In June, 1690, the bishopric of Derry fell vacant, and William at once bestowed it on him. He had, however, contracted a passion for war, and much shocked William by appearing at the head of the men of Londonderry in the campaign of 1690. He fell at the head of his men in resisting the Irish cavalry at the battle of the Boyne.

Macaulay, *Hist of Eng.*

Walkinshaw, Clementina, was a mistress of Charles Edward Stuart, the Young Pretender. He first became acquainted with her on his expedition to Scotland in 1745. He sent for her after his return from that country, and soon she acquired complete dominion over him. It was believed that she was in the pay of the English ministers; accordingly, in 1748, the English Jacobites sent an agent named Macnamara to request that the lady should, for a time at least, retire to a convent. Charles, however, obstinately refused to agree to this. He had a daughter by her about 1760, who died in 1789.

Vernon Lee, *The Countess of Albany;* Ewald, *Life of Prince Charles Edward.*

Wallace, William, the younger son of Wallace of Elderslie, in Renfrewshire, was outlawed for slaying an Englishman who had insulted him at Lanark. This circumstance, and the indignation with which he viewed the usurpation of Edward I., induced him in May, 1297, to make an attack on the English quarters at Lanark, where he killed Hazelrigg, the governor. He was soon joined by Sir William Douglas and a considerable body of Scots. The murder of his uncle, Sir Reginald Crawford, at Ayr, still further incensed him, and he utterly refused to join some of his supporters in making their submission to the English. On Sept. 11, 1297, Wallace thoroughly defeated the English at Stirling, following up his victory by a raid into England. The following year he was chosen governor of the kingdom, and as a consequence increased the jealousy of many of the Scottish barons. Meantime Edward had returned from Flanders and hurried to Scotland, where he defeated Wallace at Falkirk (q.v.) (July 22, 1298). At this time Wallace disappears from public life, and is said to have visited France and Rome. It is more probable that he remained in the wilds of his native country with a few followers. In 1305 he was betrayed into the hands of the English at Glasgow by his friend, Sir John Menteith, carried to London, and tried at Westminster. He was condemned as a rebel and traitor to the English king, and executed (Aug. 23, 1305). In spite of the want of authority which characterises most of the stories told about Sir William Wallace, it is apparent that he was a man of great capacity, and a military genius of a very high order.

Burton, *Hist. of Scotland;* Rishanger, *Chronicle* (Rolls Series); Palgrave, *Documents and Records Illustrating the Hist. of Scotland.*

Waller, Edmund (*b.* 1605, *d.* 1687), poet, was a relation of John Hampden. He was educated at Cambridge, and in 1623 took his seat in Parliament as member for Amersham

The story of his unsuccessful courtship of Lady Dorothy Sydney, the daughter of the Earl of Leicester, appears to be well authenticated. A zealous member of the Long Parliament, Waller was appointed in 1643 one of the commissioners who negotiated with Charles at Oxford. There he was won over by the court, and played a decidedly equivocal part, agreeing on his return to London to publish a commission of array, and so having collected troops to seize the city by a *coup-de-main*. The plot, however, miscarried, and he was heavily fined and condemned to banishment, after an abject submission to the House of Commons. In 1651 he was allowed to return to England, and attempted to curry favour with the Protector by his "Panegyric on Cromwell," which he followed up by an ode to Charles II. after the Restoration. "Poets, sire," he wittily remarked to the king, "succeed better in fiction than in truth." In spite of his time-serving disposition, Waller was popular in the House of Commons, of which he was a member until 1683. His poems—dainty, but uninspired productions—have been frequently published. A fairly complete edition appeared in 1694.

Johnson, *Lives of the Poets.*

Waller, Sir William (*b.* 1597, *d.* 1668), was a cousin of the foregoing. His military education was acquired in Germany during the Thirty Years' War. In 1640 he was returned to the Long Parliament as member for Andover. On the outbreak of the Civil War he was sent into the west of England, and at first gained such success as to acquire for himself the title of "William the Conqueror," but in July, 1643, he was severely beaten both at Bath and Devizes. Parliament nevertheless thanked him for his exertions. In the following year he fell out with Essex, the commander-in-chief, and in consequence Charles managed to make a sortie from Oxford, and to defeat him at Cropredy Bridge. Waller again returned unsuccessful to London. In 1645 he was removed from his command by the Self-denying Ordinance, but soon resumed his appointment, and under Cromwell was successful in the west in the first campaign of the New Model army. In 1637 he was one of the leaders of the Presbyterian party who attempted in vain to oppose the advance of the army on the capital, and was one of the eleven members against whom its resentment was especially directed. In 1660, during the troubled time which preceded the Restoration, he was a member of the Council of State.

Vindication of Sir William Waller by Himself.

Wallingford, John of, was the author or transcriber of a chronicle extending from the year 449 to 1035. Of this chronicle Sir T. Hardy says:—"The author seems frequently desirous of examining and comparing authorities, and yet the result is only error and absurdity, as he confounds persons and places, and sets chronology at defiance." It is doubtful who the author was, but he probably lived about the beginning or middle of the thirteenth century, and was an inmate of the abbey of St. Albans.

Wallingford, William of (*d.* 1488), a monk of St. Albans, was appointed archdeacon and prior of the abbey in 1465, and held several subordinate offices. Charges of perjury and theft are made against him in the register known as that of John Whethamstede, but they are evidently written with considerable animus. He became abbot in 1476 on the death of William Albon. Of his tenure of office we have a very full account, but, though it gives an idea of somewhat fussy activity, it presents no feature of interest. His register, which he compiled in imitation of his predecessors, covers the period from 1476 to 1488, though the entries for the last two years are not numerous. It gives a powerful picture of the corruption of the monastic system. It has been edited by Mr. Riley in the Rolls Series together with the register of Wallingford's predecessors, John Whethamstede and William Albon.

Wallingford, The Treaty of (1153), is the name usually given to the peace made between Stephen and Prince Henry, though only the preliminary negotiations took place at Wallingford, the treaty itself being signed at Westminster. By this treaty Stephen was to retain the kingdom during his lifetime, but Henry was to succeed him, the rights of Stephen's children to the private dominions of their parent being guaranteed. At the same time a scheme of administrative reform was decided upon, which was intended to restore things as far as possible to the state in which they had been left by Henry I.

Walpole, Horace, Lord (*b.* 1678, *d.* 1757), the elder brother of Sir Robert, first appears as secretary to General Stanhope in Spain (1706). In 1707 he was appointed secretary to Henry Boyle, Chancellor of the Exchequer. In 1708 he was sent as secretary to an embassy to the Emperor, and was afterwards in the same position at the negotiations at Gertruydenberg. In 1716 he was sent as envoy to the Hague. He subsequently appeared at Hanover, and remonstrated with Stanhope for the suspicions he entertained of Townshend, and was sent home with letters calculated to heal the breach in the ministry. In 1720 he was appointed secretary to the Duke of Grafton, Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland. In 1723 he was despatched to Paris to counteract Sir Luke Schaub. He ardently attached himself to Cardinal Fleury. He remained in France until 1727. In 1728 he was one of the plenipotentiaries to the congress at Soissons. In 1733 Walpole was sent as envoy to the States-General. In

1739 he was sent to Holland to receive the auxiliary troops stipulated in case of hostilities. In 1741 he was made Secretary to the Exchequer, and in 1756 was raised to the peerage. "He was," says Stanhope, "a man who through life played a considerable part, but chiefly because he was the brother of Sir Robert." According to his nephew, "he knew something of everything but how to hold his tongue, or how to apply his knowledge."

Horace Walpole, *Memoirs*; Coxe, *Walpole*; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*

Walpole, Sir Robert, Earl of Orford (*b.* 1676, *d.* 1745), was the son of a Norfolk gentleman, and was educated at Eton and at King's College, Cambridge. In 1702 he entered Parliament as member for Castle Rising. He soon attracted the attention of the Whig leaders. In 1705 he was placed on the council of Prince George of Denmark as Lord High Admiral, and in 1708 succeeded St. John as Secretary at War. In 1710 he was one of the managers of Sacheverell's trial, of which he secretly disapproved; and when the Whig ministry was driven from office he persisted in resigning in spite of Harley's solicitations to him that he should retain his place. He now became with Somers a leader of the Whig opposition, and being charged with peculations as Secretary at War, he was expelled the House and sent to the Tower, where he remained till the prorogation. His defence was, however, quite complete, and he was re-elected for Lynn Regis. He wrote at this time two able pamphlets in support of the late ministry, *The Debts of the Nation Stated and Considered*, and *The Thirty-five Millions Accounted For*. On the accession of George I. Walpole was chosen chairman of the committee of inquiry into the conduct of the last ministry. In 1715 he became First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer. But he was disliked by the king, and angry at the dismissal of Townshend, so he resigned in 1717. In this year he had established the first sinking fund. Immediately he passed into unscrupulous opposition, and spoke against the Mutiny Act, the Quadruple Alliance, the Peerage Bill, and the repeal of the Schism Act. Finding opposition hopeless, he offered to rejoin the Ministry, but was only made Paymaster of the Forces, 1720. On the fall of the South Sea Company it was felt that he alone could deal with the matter, and his measures, though severe, were felt to be just. On the death of Stanhope he was left without a rival, and became Chancellor of the Exchequer and Prime Minister (April, 1721). His history is now the history of England. He crushed Atterbury's plot, and taxed the nonjurors' estates to the amount of £100,000. Already his jealousy of rivals, the great fault in his character as a minister, had become apparent; and he and Townshend drove Carteret from office. Meanwhile the situation abroad had become complicated; the alliance between Austria, Spain, and the Duke of Bourbon's party in France, was checked by the Treaty of Hanover between England and France. On the death of George I., Walpole, disliked by the new king, found himself in danger of being superseded by Sir Spencer Compton. Owing to the representations of Queen Caroline, he remained in power. The Opposition consisted of discontented Whigs led by Pulteney, and the remnant of the Tories under Bolingbroke. In 1730 Walpole quarrelled with Townshend, who retired from political life; and in 1733 with Chesterfield. His supporters consisted of such second-rate men as Newcastle, Stanhope, Compton, and Harrington. He had, however, at his back a majority secured by the most unscrupulous bribery. In 1729 the Treaty of Seville preserved the peace of Europe for a time. In 1733 Walpole brought forward his celebrated excise scheme, a measure thoroughly sound and justifiable; but such was the success of Pulteney in rousing public feeling against it that he had to abandon it. In 1734 he was much blamed for keeping aloof from the war waged by the Emperor against France and Spain. In this year the Opposition joined to attack the Septennial Act. They failed; and Bolingbroke withdrawing to France, the leadership of the party fell on the Prince of Wales, whom Walpole had offended by resisting the increase of his income. In 1737 Queen Caroline's death deprived him of a staunch and faithful friend. The Opposition, now reinforced by Pitt, continued to attack his pacific policy; Newcastle began to intrigue against him, and favoured the king's desire for war. Nevertheless, Walpole concluded a convention with Spain; and the Opposition wishing to drive matters to a crisis, seceded from the House. It had become obvious that he must declare war or resign. He chose the former course (1739). The war was disastrous. [George II.] In Feb., 1741, Mr. Sandys proposed that he should be removed from the king's councils. The motion was thrown out; but in the following year Walpole, taking his defeat on the Chippenham election petition (Feb. 2, 1742) as a test, resigned. He was created Earl of Orford. In March a secret committee of inquiry against him was chosen; but in spite of its animosity it failed to bring any but the most trivial charges against the ex-minister. He seldom spoke in the Lords, having, as he remarked to his brother Horace, "left his tongue in the Commons." In 1745 he died, having retained his influence with the king to the last. Walpole's character was exposed to the most violent misrepresentation from his contemporaries. His jealousy of power made almost every eminent man of the age his enemy; while the corruption by which he maintained his position and

debauched the House of Commons is indisputable. But to him are due the completion of the Revolution settlement, and the preservation of peace at a time when peace was most required by England. "He understood," says Lord Stanhope, "the true interest of his country better than any of his contemporaries." "The prudence, steadiness, and vigilance of that man," says Burke (*Appeal from the New Whigs*, &c.), "preserved the crown to this royal family, and with it their laws and liberty to this country."

Coxe, *Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole*; Ralph, *Critical History of Lord Walpole's Administration*; Horace Walpole, *Reminiscences*; Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; Lecky, *Hist. of Eng. in the Eighteenth Century*; Macaulay, Essay on *Horace Walpole*; Ewald, *Sir R. Walpole*; John Morley, *Walpole*.

Walpole, Horace, Earl of Orford (*b.* 1717, *d.* 1797), was the third son of Sir Robert Walpole, and the nephew of Lord Walpole. In 1741 he entered Parliament for Callington, but he never took a prominent part in debate. In 1757 he exerted himself in favour of Admiral Byng. He remained in Parliament till 1768. In 1791 he succeeded his nephew in the family title and estates; but never took his seat in the House of Lords. So far as he had any political feeling at all, he was inclined to a speculative Republicanism. As a man of letters, *virtuoso*, novelist, critic, and retailer of public and private gossip, Horace Walpole is one of the most characteristic figures of the eighteenth century. His *Memoirs* of the last ten years of George II.'s reign, though inaccurate and prejudiced, contain a good deal of information, and his letters (which are among the most entertaining in the language) are very valuable for the insight they give into the social history of the century. Walpole's work, *Historic Doubts on the Life and Reign of Richard III.*, is curious and acute.

Walpole, *Works*, 1792, and *Correspondence*, 1840; Lord Dover, *Life*, prefixed to the *Letters to Sir H. Mann*; Macaulay, *Essays*; Scott, *Lives of the Novelists*; L. B. Seeley, *H. Walpole and his World*.

Walsingham, Sir Francis (*b.* 1536, *d.* 1590), "the most penetrating statesman of his time," was born at Chislehurst, in Kent, and passed most of his youth abroad. On his return to England, after the accession of Queen Elizabeth, his abilities and accomplishments recommended him to the notice of Lord Burleigh, who sent him to the court of France as ambassador, in which capacity he showed great "fidelity, diligence, and caution." In 1573 Sir Francis was recalled, sworn of the Privy Council, and made one of the principal secretaries of state, devoting himself especially from this date to the unravelling of the numerous plots against the queen and her government. His system of espionage was most elaborate, and his spies were active, faithful, and ubiquitous. In 1581 he was employed to negotiate the proposed marriage between Elizabeth and the Duke of Anjou, but failed to bring the matter to a successful issue, through the caprice of the queen herself. Two years later Walsingham was sent on a mission to Scotland, and subsequently had the satisfaction of detecting Babington's conspiracy and of implicating in it the Queen of Scots. That Sir Francis was her enemy there is no doubt, but it is unlikely that he forged any of the letters produced in evidence, as Mary declared, and his reputed letter to Sir Amyas Paulet, urging him "to find out some way to shorten the life of the Scots queen," is most probably a forgery. He was subsequently the means of preventing a breach between Elizabeth and James VI. Sir Francis, who was a staunch Protestant, and a thoroughly religious man, did his best to procure toleration for the Puritans; he "has the honour of having sustained and cemented the Protestant cause in times of its greatest peril, and of having effectually ruined the interests of popery by detecting and baffling all its plots." The integrity of his character was such that with every facility for amassing wealth in an age of corruption, he died so poor as to leave barely enough to defray the expenses of his burial. A biographer of the following century (Lloyd) says of him, "His head was so strong that he could look into the depths of men and business, and dive into the whirlpools of state. Dexterous he was in finding a secret; close in keeping it. His conversation was insinuating and reserved; he saw every man, and none saw him."

Strype, *Eccles. Memorials*; *Walsingham Correspondence*; Nares, *Memoirs of Burleigh*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Aikin, *Memoirs of the Court of Elizabeth*; Lloyd, *Statesmen and Favourites of England*, 1665.

Walsingham, Thomas of (*fl.* 1440), a monk of St. Albans, and for some time Prior of Wymondham, wrote two most valuable historical works, *Historia Brevis*, a history of England from 1272 to 1422, and *Ypodigma Neustriæ*, a history of Normandy from Rolf to Henry V. He is very important for the reigns of Richard II. and Henry IV. and V., and gives us valuable accounts of Wycliffe and the Lollards, the Peasant Revolt, and the French wars of Henry V.'s reign.

Both Walsingham's works have been published in the Rolls Series.

Walter, Hubert, Archbishop of Canterbury (1193—1205), and justiciar (1194—1198), was a nephew of Ranulf Glanvill (q.v.), and first came into prominence during King Richard's captivity. He had accompanied the king on his crusade, and on his way homewards, hearing that Richard had been taken prisoner, he visited him. The king sent him over to England to act as vicegerent in his absence, to counteract the intrigues of John, and raise the ransom, while at the same

time he used his influence to obtain Hubert's election to the archbishopric. In 1194 he was appointed justiciar, and held that office for four years, governing well and vigorously, his most important work being the repression of the insurrection of William Fitz-Osbert. His expedition against the Welsh called down a reprimand from the Pope, a fact which shows that the age of fighting bishops was almost over. On the death of Richard, Hubert supported the claims of John to the throne, and was by him appointed chancellor. Hubert Walter is a favourable specimen of the statesman-ecclesiastic of the middle ages, and it is in the former light that he more frequently appears. "He was a strong minister," says Dr. Stubbs, "and although as a good Englishman he made the pressure of his master's hand lie as light as he could upon the people, as a good servant he tried to get out of the people as much treasure as he could for his master. In the raising of the money and in the administration of justice he tried and did much to train the people to habits of self-government. He taught them how to assess their taxes by jury, to elect the grand jury for the assizes of the judges, to choose representative knights to transact legal and judicial work—such representative knights as at a later time made convenient precedents for Parliamentary representation. The whole working of elective and representative institutions gained greatly under his management. He educated the people against the better time to come."

Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops*; R. Hoveden (Rolls Series).

Walter, Sir John (*d.* 1630), was attorney-general to Prince Charles in 1619, but refused to conduct the prosecution against Sir E. Coke. Notwithstanding this, he was made Chief Baron of the Exchequer by Charles I. in 1625. He showed considerable independence and spirit in the exercise of his judicial functions, and in 1629 gave his opinion against Holles, and other members of Parliament, being prosecuted for acts done in the House of Commons. For this the king prohibited his taking his seat on the bench, though he nominally held his office till his death.

Walters, Lucy (*d.* 1658), was the daughter of a Welsh gentleman, and in 1648 became the mistress of Charles II., by whom she was the mother of James, Duke of Monmouth. She lived with Charles in Holland. In 1656 she came over to England, where she was imprisoned in the Tower, but shortly afterwards released. After this little or nothing is known of her. When Monmouth put forward his claims to the throne it was contended by his adherents that his mother had been secretly married to Charles II., but of this assertion no proof was forthcoming, and Monmouth himself subsequently retracted it.

Waltheof (*d.* 1076) was a powerful nobleman, the son of Siward. After the battle of Hastings he submitted to William the Conqueror, and was allowed to retain his earldom of Northampton. Subsequently he rebelled, but was forgiven, retained in his earldom, and married to the Conqueror's niece, Judith. In 1075 he joined in the conspiracy of the Earls of Hereford and Norfolk, with the intention of restoring the state of things which had existed in Edward the Confessor's time. What Waltheof's share in this plot was is very doubtful; probably it was no more than a tacit acquiescence. When the rebellion broke out he betrayed the plot to Lanfranc, and was for the moment pardoned, but shortly afterwards he was executed at Winchester, it is said at the instigation of his wife. His body was removed to Croyland, where miracles were said to be worked at his tomb. The English looked upon Waltheof as a martyr, and the later troubles of William's reign were considered by them to be judgments on him for the murder of the earl.

Ordericus Vitalis; *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*; Freeman, *Norman Conquest*.

Walworth, Sir William, a citizen of London, was appointed with John Philipot in 1377 by Parliament to regulate the finances. In 1381 he was Lord Mayor of London, and attended the young king at his conference with Wat Tyler and the other insurgents. Fearing that Tyler was about to attack Richard, Walworth slew the rebel leader, for which feat he received the honour of knighthood.

Wanborough (Wodnesbeorh), on the Wiltshire Downs, near Swindon, was the scene of two important battles in Anglo-Saxon history—one in 591, in which Ceawlin of Wessex was defeated by his brother Ceol; the other in 715, when Ine repulsed the Mercians.

Wandewash, The Battle of (Jan. 22, 1760), was fought during the Seven Years' War between the French and English in India. The two armies of Lally and Coote encountered each other near Wandewash. The English had 1,900 Europeans and 2,100 native infantry, with 1,250 native cavalry, and 16 field pieces; the French 2,250 native cavalry, and 1,300 sepoys, besides their Mahratta horse, with twenty field pieces. The forces were therefore pretty equal. After a brilliant combat, the French, who had suffered very severely, retreated. If the English native horse had done their duty, the defeat might have been even more decisive.

Wanton, Valentine (*d.* 1661), married a sister of Oliver Cromwell, and joined the Parliamentary cause in the Civil War. In 1646 he was made a colonel, and in 1648 was appointed one of the members of the High

Court of Justice to try the king. He was present at all the sittings, and signed the death warrant. In 1649 he was made one of the Council of State, but his stern Republican views did not recommend him to Cromwell, and after the dissolution of the Long Parliament he retired into private life till Richard Cromwell's deposition, when he declared for the Parliament against the army, and joined Monk. Perceiving that the Restoration was inevitable, he withdrew to the Continent, where he remained in disguise till his death.

Wapentake is a name of Danish origin, and is only found in the districts occupied by the Danes, where it answers to the Hundred (q.v.) of other parts of the kingdom.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, i. § 45.

Warbeck, Perkin (*d.* 1499), was the name of one of the most celebrated impostors in history, who, for several years during the reign of Henry VII., succeeded in persuading many persons that he was Richard, Duke of York, the younger of the two princes generally supposed to have been murdered in the Tower under Richard III. According to the story of the writers under the Tudors, he was in reality the son of a Jew of Tournay, who settled in London in the reign of Edward IV., and afterwards returned to Tournay. The lad after his father's death went to Antwerp, and came into communication with agents of the Duchess Margaret of Burgundy, who, struck by his noble demeanour and resemblance to the Yorkist family, conceived the design of bringing him up as a pretender to the English throne. This story is borne out by Warbeck's own *Confession*, and by a letter of Henry VII. to Sir Gilbert Talbot as early as 1593. Some writers, however, are still inclined to believe the very plausible hypothesis that he was a natural son of Edward IV. The mystery can hardly be completely solved. The history of Warbeck's proceedings is briefly this. In 1492 he made his appearance in Cork as Richard Plantagenet, Duke of York, and obtained a reception so encouraging to his hopes of success, that Charles VIII. of France thought it well to specially invite him to take up his residence at Paris. He did not, however, have any long enjoyment of the French king's protection and hospitality, for Henry made it a special article of the treaty concluded at Estaples in the autumn of 1492 that no further shelter or assistance should be given to Warbeck. Flanders was the pretender's next refuge, and here he received a most cordial welcome from Margaret, Duchess of Burgundy, who acknowledged him at once as her nephew, honouring him on all occasions with the title of the "White Rose of England." Warbeck's arrival in Flanders was the signal for the commencement of a vast system of conspiracy in England against Henry's life and authority; but the king's resolute caution, and the zealous activity of his spies, conspicuous among whom was Sir Robert Clifford, proved more than a match for the efforts of his enemies. Sir William Stanley, Lord Fitzwalter, Sir Simon Montfort, all prominent adherents of Warbeck, were brought to the block; and the pretended Duke of York, forced by these occurrences into a display of decided action, made in July, 1495, a hurried descent upon the coast of Kent. This, however, was a miserable failure, ending in the capture on Deal beach of a portion of his troops by the people of Sandwich. This experience of the feeling of the country for his cause drove Warbeck in despair to Flanders; but the commercial treaty concluded in Feb., 1496, between Henry and Philip, Duke of Burgundy, expressly stipulating for his expulsion, the impostor, after an unsuccessful attempt to make a settlement in Ireland, crossed over thence to Scotland. Here his fortunes began for a time to look somewhat brighter: the Scottish monarch received him as Richard IV., the lawful King of England, and, as a very practical proof the sincerity of his belief in his pretensions, bestowed upon him in marriage a kinswoman of his own, the Lady Catherine Gordon. Two fruitless invasions of England, and probably, too, the influence of Ferdinand of Spain, tended to greatly cool James IV.'s affection for Warbeck's cause, and in July, 1497, he requested him to leave the country. Thus once again abandoned by his friends, Warbeck found a temporary refuge in the wilds and fastnesses of Ireland, which, however, he left on receiving an invitation from the people of Devon and Cornwall to make another attempt in England. He landed accordingly at Whitsand, near Penzance, Sept. 27, 1497, and, after capturing St. Michael's Mount, laid active siege to Exeter. On the approach, however, of the royal forces under Lord Daubeny, Warbeck retired to Taunton, whence, in despair of success, he withdrew secretly to the sanctuary of Beaulieu, in the New Forest. Here, on promise of his life being spared, he surrendered himself, Oct. 5, to Lord Daubeny, by whom he was despatched a prisoner to London. For a time Warbeck was treated with marked leniency, but on his attempting to escape in June, 1498, he was at once placed in close confinement in the Tower; and towards the end of the following year, in Nov., 1499, he was executed, in company with his fellow-prisoner, the young Earl of Warwick, on a charge of again attempting to escape, and of having conspired with Warwick and others, as a part of his plan, to get forcible possession of the Tower.

Bacon, *Life of Henry VII.*; Rey, *Essais Historiques et Critiques sur Richard III.* (Paris, 1818); Gairdner, *Life and Reign of Richard III.*

Wards, The Court of, was a court of record founded by 32 Hen. VIII., c. 46, for the survey and management of the rights of the crown over its wards. Being joined to the Court of Liveries by 33 Hen. VIII., ch. 22, it was called the Court of Wards and Liveries. The seal of the Court was kept by its chief officer, the Master of Wards. Its province was to see that the king had the full profits of tenure, arising from the custody of the heirs of his tenants being infants or idiots, from the licences and fines for the marriage of the kings' widows, and from the sums paid for livery of seisin by the heir on entering on his estate. A Court of Wards established in Ireland by James I. compelled all heirs in the king's custody to be educated as Protestants, and enforced the oath of supremacy as a condition of livery of seisin. The jurisdiction of the Court of Wards was unduly extended, and became very oppressive under the first two Stuart kings. On Feb. 24, 1645, the House of Commons "passed a vote that the Court of Wards itself, and all wardships, tenures, licences for alienation, &c., should be taken away;" and the lords concurred therein. The Court was finally abolished by the statute, 12 Car. ii., ch. 24, which destroyed military tenures.

Reeves, *Hist. of the English Law*, iii.; Whitelocke, *Memorials;* Stephen, *Commentaries*, ii., ch. 2. [W. H.]

Wardship ranked as one of the Feudal Incidents, and consisted in the right of the lord, if the heir were under age on the death of the ancestor, to the custody of the land and the person. This right, which was obviously capable of great abuse, was carefully limited by Magna Charta. [Feudalism.]

Warham, William, Archbishop of Canterbury (*d.* 1532), was highly distinguished among the many prelates who favoured the spread of the new learning in England. Among his *protégés* was Erasmus, who speaks of him in terms of great regard. Warham was made Keeper of the Great Seal (1502), and Lord Chancellor (1503), an office in which he was continued by Henry VIII. In the following year he became successively Bishop of London and Archbishop of Canterbury. The chief event of his primacy was an inquiry into the condition of the monasteries with a view to their reform. In 1515 he resigned the chancellorship on account of some difference with Wolsey, then Archbishop of York. We subsequently find him commenting adversely on the cardinal's severe taxation. The growing opposition to Rome greatly alarmed him; and when the clergy took the grave step of acknowledging that they could not legislate without the consent of Parliament, he resigned office, and not long afterwards died.

Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops of Canterbury.*

Warrenne, William de (*d.* 1087), a Norman baron, distantly related to the Conqueror, was one of the commanders at the battle of Hastings, and in 1073 was appointed regent of the kingdom in William's absence. He assisted William Rufus against Robert, and died shortly after the coronation of the former.

Warrenne, John, Earl of (*d.* 1304), was an adherent of the king in the early part of the Barons' War, and fought on the Royalist side at Lewes. Subsequently he quarrelled with the king, and assaulted the royal justiciary in Westminster Hall in 1268. He retired to his estates in Surrey, and fortified his castle of Reigate against Prince Edward in 1268, but was compelled to surrender. He did not, however, entirely forfeit Edward's favour. He bore a conspicuous part in the Scottish wars, and was appointed Guardian of Scotland in 1296. In 1297 he was in command of the army which was defeated by Wallace at Stirling. He sided with the baronial party in the disputes which led to the confirmation of the charters, and in the Parliament of Lincoln (1301).

Warrenne, John, Earl (*d.* 1347), a powerful member of the old aristocracy, maintained an independent attitude during the troubles of Edward II.'s reign. He did not oppose Gaveston at first, and although he subsequently joined in the attack on the Despencers, he was faithful to the king at Boroughbridge, as well as after the landing of Mortimer and Isabella. He was subsequently appointed one of the Council of Regency during Edward III.'s minority.

Warrington, The Town of, near Liverpool, was an object of contention more than once by the rival parties in the Great Rebellion. In the summer of 1643 it was besieged and taken by the Parliamentarians, and in 1648 the Scots were defeated there by General Lambert after a severe tussle. Again, in 1651, it was the scene of a partial success gained by Charles II. over the forces of the Commonwealth. An attempt was made to check the Young Pretender's army there in 1745, but it was foiled by the activity of the rebels.

Warwick was probably one of the capitals of the Mercian kings. Destroyed by the Danes, it was rebuilt by Ethelfleda, the "Lady of the Mercians," who built a fortress there in 913. It appears as a borough in Domesday. The castle was repaired and enlarged under William the Conqueror. It sent members to Parliament from the reign of Edward I. onwards, but was not regularly incorporated till the reign of Philip and Mary.

Warwick, Peerage of. The Earldom of Warwick appears to have been first conferred on Roger de Bellomonte, who received the title from William the Conqueror, and died in 1123. In the thirteenth century the dignity passed by marriage into the family

of the Marischals, Earls of Pembroke, and subsequently by William de Mauduit, from whom it descended in 1267 to William de Beauchamp. In 1449 Richard Neville, eldest son of Richard, Earl of Salisbury, married Anne, the heiress of the Beauchamp estates, and was created Earl of Warwick. In 1471, on the attainder of the Earl after the battle of Barnet, the dignity was conferred on the Duke of Clarence, who had married his daughter Isabella. His son bore the title, but it became extinct on his execution in 1499. In 1547 it was revived for John Dudley, afterwards Duke of Northumberland, and was also borne by his son Ambrose Dudley, on whose death in 1590, it became extinct. It was revived in 1618, and conferred on Robert, Lord Rich. It became extinct in this family in 1759. It was revived the same year for Francis Greville, Earl Brooke, whose descendants have since borne the titles of Brooke and Warwick.

Warwick, Ambrose Dudley, Earl of (*d.* 1590), son of the Duke of Northumberland, was brought to trial, and condemned (1553) for his participation in his father's plot, but was not executed. In 1563 he was in command of the English garrison at Havre when it was forced to surrender; and after his return to England was proposed by Elizabeth as a husband for the Queen of Scots. In the rebellion of 1569, he was in command of some of the royal forces, and aided materially in crushing the insurrection. "He appears," says Miss Aikin, "to have preserved through life the character of a man of honour, and a brave soldier."

Aikin, *Court of Queen Elizabeth.*

Warwick, Edward Plantagenet, Earl of (*d.* 1499), was the son of George, Duke of Clarence, brother of Edward IV., by Anne, sister of the Earl of Warwick, known as the Kingmaker. After the execution of his father, in 1478 the young earl was kept in honourable confinement at the castle of Sheriff-Hutton, in Yorkshire until Henry's accession to the throne in 1485, when the earl's Yorkist blood, and the strong claims it gave him to the crown of England, made it a very obvious necessity on the new king's part to have him placed in the more secure prison of the Tower of London. From this prison he never again emerged except on two occasions, viz., in 1487, when he was paraded through the principal streets of London to disprove the imposture of Lambert Simnel, and in 1499, when he was beheaded on a charge of being concerned with Perkin Warbeck (q.v,), then also a prisoner in the Tower, in a conspiracy to get forcible possession of the Tower, and effect the overthrow of Henry's government.

Warwick, Guy de Beauchamp, Earl of (*d.* 1315), distinguished himself in the Scottish wars of Edward I. In the next reign he was prominent in opposition to Gaveston, and was one of the ordainers appointed in 1310. In 1312 he seized Gaveston, who had given him mortal insult by nicknaming him "The Black Dog of Arden," as he was being conducted to London by Pembroke, and had him beheaded without trial. Warwick died shortly afterwards—according to one account, by poison.

Warwick, Richard de Beauchamp, Earl of (*b.* 1382, *d.* 1439), son of Thomas Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick, fought on the Royalist side in the battle of Shrewsbury, and distinguished himself in the Welsh wars. He was appointed governor of Henry VI. during his childhood, and held the office of regent of France from 1437 to 1439.

Warwick, Richard Neville, Earl of (*b.* 1428, *d.* 1471), was the son of Richard, Earl of Salisbury, and married Anne, daughter and heiress of the Earl of Warwick, with whom he received the title as well as the estates of the Beauchamp family. He thus became the owner of enormous wealth and landed property, and by his liberality and profuse hospitality he became a great favourite with the people. He espoused the cause of the Duke of York, with whom he fought at the first battle of St. Albans in 1455. In the same year he was made Captain of Calais. A quarrel which took place between Warwick's retainers and some of the king's servants in 1459 led to a renewal of the Civil War. After the affair at Ludford he fled to Calais, and afterwards joined York in Ireland, where they arranged a plan of action, and returning to England in 1460 defeated the Lancastrians at Northampton, and took the king prisoner. After the battle of Wakefield, Warwick attempted to intercept Margaret's march to London, but was defeated at St. Albans. Retreating with a considerable force, he effected a junction with Edward at Chipping-Norton, and returned to London, when Edward IV. was proclaimed king. Warwick took part in the battle of Towton, and was richly rewarded by Edward, receiving the captaincy of Dover, the wardenship of the Scottish marches, the offices of Lord Chamberlain and Steward, with large grants of forfeited lands. Warwick's policy was to strengthen the new dynasty by a strict and cordial alliance with the French king, and for this purpose he set on foot negotiations for marrying Edward to Bona of Savoy, sister of Louis XI. But the king preferred the alliance of Burgundy, and his marriage with Elizabeth Woodville entirely upset Warwick's plans. The ascendancy of the Queen's kinsfolk completed Warwick's estrangement, and he intrigued with Clarence, who in 1469 married his eldest daughter without the king's knowledge. An insurrection in Yorkshire now induced the king to apply for help to Warwick, who returned from Calais but for

the purpose of destroying the power of the Woodvilles. The king was taken prisoner. Rivers and Sir John Woodville were beheaded, and for a time the government was completely in Warwick's hands. But in 1470 the king escaped, and the defeat of the insurgents at Loosecoat Field obliged Warwick once more to seek refuge at Calais. By the influence of Louis XI. a reconciliation was made between Warwick and Queen Margaret, in accordance with which Warwick invaded England. He was joined by his brother, Montague, and others, while Edward fled to Burgundy. Henry was released from the Tower, and Warwick was once more supreme. But in the next year (1471) Edward returned, was joined by Clarence, and entered London. Warwick was encamped at Barnet, and here, after a hard-fought battle, he was defeated and slain. The character of the "last of the barons," or the "Kingmaker," as Warwick has been called, was in some respects an exaggeration of the ordinary baronial type. But as a politician he had sagacity and foresight; and he was a skilful warrior and military leader, rather of the modern than of the mediæval kind. He left two daughters, Isabella, who was married to the Duke of Clarence; and Anne, married first to Edward, son of Henry VI., and secondly to Richard, Duke of Gloucester. [WARS OF THE ROSES.]

Continuator of the *Croyland Chronicle*; Warkworth, *Chronicle*; *Paston Letters*, with Gairdner's *Introd.*; *Arrival of Edward IV.* (Camden Soc.); Brougham, *Eng. under the House of Lancaster*.

Warwick, THOMAS BEAUCHAMP, EARL OF (*d.* 1401), was appointed Governor to Richard II. during his minority. In 1386 he joined Gloucester, and was one of the lords who appealed De Vere, and the other royal ministers, of treason. In 1397 he was accused of conspiring with Gloucester against the king, and condemned to death. But having confessed his guilt, his sentence was commuted to exile, and he was banished to the Isle of Man. On the deposition of Richard II. he was released.

Washington, founded in 1790 as the Federal capital of the United States, was attacked by the English during the American War (1812—14). A body of troops under General Ross was landed on Chesapeake Bay, while a fleet under Admiral Cockburn assisted in the operations. The Americans were able to offer little resistance to the veterans of the Peninsula, who had been sent straight off from Bordeaux for this service. The town was occupied by the British, and though there was little loss of life, the Capitol and nearly all the public buildings were destroyed; an act which caused great indignation both in America and Europe. [AMERICAN WAR.]

Washington, THE TREATY OF (May 8, 1871), was concluded between England and the United States. Its provisions were that a mixed court of arbitrators should meet to adjust the Alabama claims at Geneva, and that by this award the two nations should be bound, prescribing also the rules in accordance with which the arbitrators should decide on their verdict; that the inhabitants of the United States should have the liberty to take fish of every kind, except shell-fish, on the sea-coasts and shores and in the bays, harbours, and creeks of Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, and the colony of Prince Edward's Island, and of the various islands adjacent, with permission to land for the purpose of drying their nets or curing their fish; that this liberty should only extend to sea-fishing; that the subjects of Great Britain should have similar rights of fishing and landing on the eastern sea coasts and shores of the United States north of the 39th parallel; that the navigation of the River St. Lawrence, its tributaries, and canals, should be open to the subjects of the United States; that in return the Lake Michigan, and the canals between it and the Atlantic, should be open to British subjects. That the San Juan question should be decided by arbitration. That this treaty should last for ten years, and should not expire after that time until two years have elapsed from the date when notice of withdrawal is given by either party. In accordance with this treaty the Geneva Commission of Arbitrators met to decide the Alabama claims, and the San Juan question was arbitrated by the German Emperor William, 1872. [GENEVA AWARD.]

Washington, GEORGE (*b.* 1732, *d.* 1799), distinguished himself at the age of nineteen, on the outbreak of hostilities between England and France, and was aide-de-camp to General Braddock in his unsuccessful expedition against Fort Duquesne, taking part also in its capture in 1758. Together with Patrick Henry, he represented Virginia at the General Congress at Virginia in 1774, and expressed moderate views by no means favourable to secession. On the outbreak of the war he was chosen commander-in-chief. This is the place for the very briefest account only of his military operations. His first great success was in compelling the English to evacuate Boston in March, 1776, but he was defeated at Long Island by General Howe, and compelled to retreat west of the Delaware. A succession of defeats, notably one at Brandywine in Sept., 1777, followed two slight successes at Trenton and Princetown, but they were more than compensated by the victory of Gates at Saratoga (Oct., 1777). In June, 1778, he fought an indecisive battle at Monmouth Court House. During the greater part of 1779 and 1780 he remained inactive, owing to the weakness of his army; but in 1781, having been appointed to the command of the army of the South, he was

enabled to direct the important operations of Green and Morgan, which resulted in the collapse of the British attack, and the surrender of Lord Cornwallis. On the conclusion of peace, Washington resigned his commission to Congress, and retired to his farm. He was, however, in 1787, elected President of the National Convention at Philadelphia, which remodelled the constitution. Two years later he was elected President of the United States, and again in 1792. Perhaps the most distinguishing feature in his tenure of office was the skill with which he kept America clear of the complications created by the French Revolution. In 1794 hostilities seemed imminent with England, but Washington averted them by sending John Jay to London on a special mission, and two years later negotiated a commercial treaty. He declined to be nominated for the presidency a third time. Just before his death, when war with France seemed at hand, he was appointed commander-in-chief.

Sparks, *Life and Writings of Washington*, 12 vols., and *Diplomatic History of the American Revolution*; Bancroft, *Hist. of America*; Guizot, *Washington*; Washington Irving, *Life of Washington*.

Waterloo, The Battle of (June 18, 1815), was one of the decisive battles in history, since it closed the great European war against France, and it decided the fate of Napoleon and of Europe. In June, 1815, Napoleon crossed the Belgian frontier. Wellington's army was drawn up so as to cover Brussels, in a long line from Charleroi to Antwerp. The Prussians, under Blücher, extended eastward from Charleroi to Liège. Napoleon attempted to push between the two armies, and to crush them in detail. On the 15th he attacked the Prussians at Charleroi, and drove them back. On the 16th his right attacked the Prussians at Ligny, and, after a hard battle, forced them to retreat. Ney, with the French left, at the same time attacked the English at Quatre Bras. After fighting all day, they fell back. The English slowly retired towards Brussels on the 17th. Wellington, relying on assistance from Blücher, who was slowly retreating towards Wavre, determined to fight at Waterloo. The field of battle consisted of two low lines of hills, running parallel to one another, east and west, and separated by a valley about half a mile in breadth. Wellington took up a position on the northern ridge, about twelve miles south of Brussels, with the Forest of Soignies in his rear, the centre of the position being the hamlet of Mont St. Jean. His army was drawn up in two lines. On the extreme left of the front line were light cavalry, next to them were the fifth and fourth Hanoverian brigades. On the right of these was Bylandt's Dutch and Belgian infantry, with Pack and Kemp's brigades on their right. On their right, and garrisoning the farm-buildings of La Haye Sainte, stood the Third Division, under Alten, consisting of the King's German legion, and a Hanoverian brigade. To their right again was Halkett's brigade, and the two brigades of the Guards, under Maitland and Byng, who held the farm of Hougoumont. The second line was composed entirely of cavalry, the greatest strength being concentrated behind the centre, resting on the Charleroi road; Lord Uxbridge being in command of the whole. The French on the opposite ridge were drawn up in two lines, with the entire Imperial Guard, cavalry, and infantry, in rear of the centre as a reserve. The battle began at half-past eleven by a fierce attack on Hougoumont under Jerome: but though the French won the gardens and orchards, they could not drive the Guards from the buildings themselves. As this attack failed in its main object, Napoleon directed a grand attack on the left-centre of the allied position. As the columns approached, the Dutch and Belgian troops fled in panic; but Picton, with the 3,000 men who formed the brigades of Pack and Kemp, seized the moment when the French halted on the brow of the hill. His men fired a volley at thirty yards' distance, and then, charging, drove the columns back over the hill. Meanwhile Kellermann's cuirassiers, who had ridden up the Charleroi road in support of Ney's attack, had been charged by Lord Uxbridge, at the head of the Household Brigade, and had been driven back in headlong confusion. It was about half-past three when Napoleon found that his grand attack had failed, and that, far from making any way, he had very much weakened his right wing, while, at the same time, there were sure signs of the approach of the Prussians. He directed all his splendid cavalry to attack the centre and right, while fresh assaults were made upon Hougoumont and La Haye Sainte. But the cuirassiers could make no impression on the impenetrable squares of British infantry, and the artillery played upon them as they retired, so that they were almost wholly destroyed. In the meantime the attacks on La Haye Sainte had been carried on with determined vigour; and between six and seven o'clock the French took the place. The Prussians were pressing on, and were already carrying on a fierce contest for the possession of Plancenoit, which lay in the rear of the French right, and which the Young Guard had been detached to hold. Napoleon ordered the Old Guard, who had as yet taken no part in the struggle, to advance. The two columns advanced between La Haye Sainte and Hougoumont. They were suddenly encountered on the top of the ascent by Maitland's Guards, who were lying down. When the French arrived at the top, the Guards suddenly rose up, at a distance of fifty yards, and while the French attempted to deploy into line, showered volley after volley into their ranks, till they became disordered. Then the Guards charged, and drove the French column headlong down the hill,

returning to their position, however, in time to take part in the destruction of the second column, which bore on, undismayed, slightly towards the left. The column broke, and fled in disorder. Napoleon, meanwhile, was rallying the remains of the first column of the Old Guard round La Belle Alliance; but Wellington now took the offensive. Soon after eight o'clock he gave the word for a general advance along the whole line. The British troops rushed down from the ridge, and up the opposite slope. The Old Guard bravely rallied, and attempted to stem the current. But it was in vain. The British swept away all resistance in their impetuous rush; and the French army gave itself up to flight in hopeless confusion, every one seeking only his own safety. Wellington, riding back, met Blücher at La Belle Alliance, and entrusted to him the pursuit with the Prussians, who were comparatively fresh. The allies, under Wellington, had lost 15,000 men killed and wounded in the battle; the Prussians 7,000; but the French army was annihilated. It lost from 23,000 to 30,000, and the survivors were a mere scattered mob. Wellington's army had numbered about 68,000 at the beginning of the battle, Napoleon's about 70,000.

Siborne, *Waterloo*; Chesney, *Waterloo Lectures*; Alison, *Hist. of Europe*; Creasy, *Decisive Battles of the World*; Thiers, *Hist. of the Consulate and Empire*; Jomini, *Military Hist. of Napoleon*. [W. R. S.]

Watling Street was one of the great Roman roads through Britain. Starting from Richborough, it passed by Canterbury, whence, leaving Rochester to the right, it ran to London, which it passed through, thence to Verulam, Dunstable, Towcaster, Weedon, Dovebridge, High Cross, Fazeley, and Wellington, to Wroxeter. It then crossed the Severn, and continued by Rowton and Bala to Tommen-y-Mawr, where it divided into two branches. One ran by Beddgelert to Caernarvon and Anglesea; the other by Dolwyddelan to the Menai Straits, where one branch went to Holyhead, and the other through Aber to Chester, thence by Northwich, Manchester, Ilkley, Masham, and Newton, to Catterick. Crossing the Tees, it ran by Binchester, Ebchester, and Corbridge, into Scotland, thence by Jedburgh to the interior of Scotland, probably as far as the Forth. Other authorities regard the road between London and Wroxeter as alone properly the Watling Street. But the name seems popularly to have been used to denote several lines of Roman highways. [Roman Roads.]

Watson, Richard, Bishop of Llandaff (*b.* 1737, *d.* 1816), was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, of which he was elected a Fellow in 1760. He became Professor of Chemistry in 1764, and in 1771 Regius Professor of Divinity. He wrote largely both on scientific subjects and on theology, and had also written some pamphlets to defend and explain Whig principles, when, in July, 1782, he was made Bishop of Llandaff by Lord Shelburne. He sided with the Whigs in the House of Lords, and supported the claims of the Prince of Wales on the Regency question. In 1792, in his charge to the clergy, he vehemently eulogised the French Revolution. Subsequently he changed his views on this subject, and wrote in 1798 an *Address to the People of Great Britain*, which was an energetic appeal in favour of the war against France, and excited immense public attention. In 1803 he wrote another pamphlet on the same subject. His best-known work is perhaps his *Apology for the Bible* against the attacks of Thomas Paine.

Waurin, John de (*d. circa* 1471), was a French knight, who fought in the battle of Agincourt, but subsequently joined the English, and attached himself to Sir John Fastolf. He wrote a chronicle of England from the earliest times to the year 1471, which has been published in the Rolls Series.

Waverley, The Annals of, is one of the monastic chronicles—written in the Cistercian Abbey of that name in Surrey—which extends from the Incarnation to the year 1291. From 1277 to the end the work appears to be contemporary, and is of great value. It has been published in the Rolls Series.

Waynflete, William of (*d.* 1486), was master of Winchester School from about 1432 to 1443, when he was made first provost of Eton. In 1447 he was elected Bishop of Winchester, and in 1456 became Chancellor. In 1460 he resigned the Great Seal, and, though he had been an attached friend to Henry VI., he lived unmolested by Edward IV. In 1448 Waynflete commenced the foundation of Magdalen College in Oxford, which was completed in 1456. He also founded a school in his native town (now Wainfleet), in Lincolnshire.

Ways and Means, The Committee of, is a Committee of the whole House of Commons appointed to determine how the money is to be raised which has been voted to the Crown after the resolutions framed by the Committee of Supply have been agreed to. Its principal duty is to receive the budget or financial statement of the Chancellor of the Exchequer. Resolutions for new ways of raising revenue are often submitted to it previous to being embodied in bills.

Wedderburn, Alexander, Lord Loughborough and Earl of Rosslyn (*b.* 1733, *d.* 1805), was the son of a Scotch advocate and judge. He was called to the Scotch bar, but his short career in Scotland came to an abrupt conclusion in 1757, and he came to London, and was called to the English bar. In 1762, through the interest of Lord Bute, he was returned to Parliament for the Rothesay and

Inverary Burghs. In 1769 he spoke in support of the legality of Wilkes's election, which earned him a congratulatory banquet at the hands of the Opposition. In 1771, however, he left his party, and became Solicitor-General to Lord North. In his new office he is described as "elegant, subtle, and insinuating," but he had no great opportunity of displaying his powers till, in 1773, he defended Lord Clive against General Burgoyne's resolution. During the following years he defended the policy of the ministry on the American war. In 1778 he refused the office of Chief Baron, and continued in Parliament to urge the prosecution of the war. Next year he became Attorney-General, and delivered his last great speech in the Lower House in favour of a firm policy of repression towards Ireland. In 1780 he became Chief Justice of the Common Pleas, with the title of Lord Loughborough. When the Coalition ministry was formed (1783) the Great Seal was put into commission, and Lord Loughborough was appointed one of the commissioners, but in 1784 the chancellorship was given to Lord Thurlow. In his disgust, Lord Loughborough became a complete Foxite. He now took all pains to cultivate favour with the Prince of Wales, and advocated his claims in the debates on the Regency Bill. In 1791 he made a vigorous attack on Pitt's Russian policy, and became so strong a Whig that he advocated measures for Catholic relief, "although it is now certain that when he became keeper of the king's conscience, he poisoned the royal mind by scruples about the coronation oath, and that he obstructed the policy which he at this time advocated." He now opened negotiations with Pitt, who, in return for his services in securing the adherence of the Duke of Portland to the Pitt ministry, obtained for him the Great Seal (Jan., 1793). In 1794 he advised the State prosecutions for sedition, and, while he cooled towards the Prince of Wales, tried to win favour with George III. In 1800 he opposed all measures for Catholic emancipation connected with the Union, and became somewhat estranged from Pitt. The next year he betrayed the Prime Minister's private correspondence to the king, and thereby obtained the dismissal of Pitt. Addington, succeeding to the vacant place, got rid of Lord Loughborough by the bribe of an elevation to an earldom, with the title of Earl of Rosslyn. Henceforth his Parliamentary career was unimportant. At his death George III. is reported to have said, "He has not left a greater knave behind him in my dominions."

Campbell, *Lives of the Chancellors*; Jesse, *Memoirs of the Reign of George III.*; *Parliamentary Hist.*; Trevelyan, *Early Life of C. J. Fox*; *Letters of Junius*.

Wedmore, The Peace of (879), is the name frequently given to the treaty between Alfred and Guthrum, though the treaty was certainly concluded at Chippenham. The village of Wedmore lies near Athelney, between Bridgewater and Yeovil. The treaty is of great importance, as assigning a definite district to the Danes, and establishing a *modus vivendi* between them and the English. The boundaries here agreed upon were—"Up on the Thames, and then up on the Lea, and along the Lea to its source, then right to Bedford; then up on the Ouse unto Watling Street." Thus the Danes were to leave Wessex, but keep East Anglia and the north-eastern part of Mercia, but the south-western part of Mercia was united to the kingdom of Wessex. "Speaking roughly," says Mr. Freeman, "Alfred recovered that part of Mercia which had been originally West Saxon, and which had been conquered by the Angles in the seventh and eighth centuries. . . . The Danes got much the largest part of England; still Alfred contrived to keep London." [Alfred; Danes; Mercia.]

Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, vol. i., and *Old Eng. Hist.*; Stubbs, *Select Charters*, 63.

Welles, Leo, Lord (*d.* 1461), was a distinguished commander in the French wars, and in 1438 was made Lieutenant of Ireland, which office he held till 1443. He fought on the Lancastrian side in the Wars of the Roses, and fell in the battle of Towton.

Welles, Richard, Lord (*d.* 1470), son of the above, was allowed to receive his father's goods and estates by Edward IV., though he had been attainted, and in 1468 he was restored to all his honours. In 1470 his son raised a rebellion in Lincolnshire, and Lord Welles, being unable to induce him to submit, was put to death by Edward, contrary to a promise he had made.

Welles, Sir Robert (*d.* 1470), was the son of Richard, Lord Welles. In 1470, probably at the instigation of the Earl of Warwick, he raised a rebellion in Lincolnshire. Although the cry of "King Henry!" was raised, and many Lancastrians joined his standard, it would seem that his real object was to set Clarence on the throne. Before assistance could arrive from Warwick or Clarence, he was attacked by the king, and totally defeated in the battle of Loosecoat Field, near Stamford. He was captured, and beheaded the day after the battle, having made a full confession of his designs.

Wellesley, Richard Colley, Marquess of (*b.* 1760, *d.* 1842), was the eldest son of the first Earl of Mornington, and elder brother of the Duke of Wellington. He took his seat in the Irish House of Lords as soon as he became of age, and also entered the English House of Commons as member for Beeralston in 1786, and afterwards for Windsor. He took the Tory side in the debates on the Regency of 1789, and greatly distinguished himself. In 1797, having previously

occupied a seat on the Board of Control, he received a British peerage (as Baron Mornington), and was nominated to succeed Lord Cornwallis as Governor-General of India. In 1799 he became Marquess Wellesley in the Irish peerage. His governor-generalship in India was an eventful period. On first landing he found the English power exposed to great dangers, owing to the existence of a formidable body of disciplined troops in the service of the Nizam. By great firmness and skill Lord Mornington prevailed on the Nizam to disband his army, and to enter into a subsidiary alliance with England. He next determined to crush the power of Tippoo Sultaun (q.v.), who was then deeply engaged in intrigues with France. Owing to the firmness and energy of the viceroy, the troops were speedily put into a state of efficiency. In 1799 war was declared on Tippoo, and three armies advanced on Seringapatam. The Bombay army won a victory at Sudasere, and that of Madras at Malavelly and Arikera. Seringapatam was invested and captured, and Tippoo slain in the assault. Mysore was partitioned, and the Mohammedan dynasty driven out. In 1801 Lord Wellesley organised the Red Sea expedition (q.v.), and despatched a large force into Egypt to assist in the operations against the French. He then proceeded to intervene in the affairs of the Mahratta States. He forced the treaty of Bassein upon the Peishwa Bajee Rao. Thereupon a combination of Scindiah, Holkar, and the Rajah of Berar was formed against the English, and the result was the hardly contested campaigns in which the British, under Colonel Wellesley and Lake, were completely successful. The siege of Aligurh, the battles of Delhi and Laswaree, soon reduced Scindiah's French battalions in Hindostan; the battles of Assye and Argaom were followed by the treaties of Deogaom and Surgee Anjengaom, which embodied the submission of Scindiah and the Bhonslah.

Meanwhile Lord Wellesley had paid much attention to the commercial development of India. He gave great offence to the Court of Directors partly by the magnitude and expense of his military exploits, partly by allowing private English vessels to trade in India, contrary to the Company's monopoly. In 1805 Lord Wellesley was recalled. Attempts were unsuccessfully made in Parliament to accuse him of high crimes and misdemeanours, and the Court of Proprietors passed a vote of censure on him by a large majority. But after thirty years the feeling changed, and the directors, taking advantage of the publication of his despatches, voted him a grant of £20,000, and ordered his statue to be placed in the India House. His policy in India was to establish English influence; to oblige the native rulers to enter into permanent treaties with him; to place the political management of their provinces in the hands of a British Resident; to pay for the support of an army largely officered by Europeans; while the native princes at the same time retained the domestic government in their own hands. "The administration of Lord Wellesley may be regarded as the third great epoch in the formation of the British Indian empire. . . Lord Wellesley was the first to perceive that in India a political equilibrium was impossible; that peace was only to be insured by establishing the preponderance of British power; and that the task of breaking down the Mahratta confederacy was as practicable as, sooner or later, it must have been necessary, to be undertaken."

In 1808 Lord Wellesley was appointed ambassador in Spain. From 1809 to Jan., 1812, he was Secretary for Foreign Affairs in Mr. Perceval's cabinet, but resigned in consequence of a difference with his colleagues on the Roman Catholic claims in Ireland. In May, 1812, he unsuccessfully attempted to form a coalition government. Under Lord Liverpool's ministry he was the champion of the rights of the Roman Catholics in Ireland. In 1815 he loudly censured some of the provisions of the peace with France. From 1821 to 1828 he was Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, but when his brother, the Duke of Wellington, took office, and declared against the Catholic claims, the Lord-Lieutenant resigned. In 1831 he was appointed Lord Steward, under the Grey Ministry, and in 1833 again became Lord-Lieutenant, but resigned in 1834.

Despatches of the Marquess Wellesley, ed. by R. Montgomery Martin, 1836—1838; Pearce, *Life of Wellesley*. [B. S.]

Wellington, Arthur Wellesley, Duke of (*b.* 1769, *d.* 1852), was the fourth son of the first Earl of Mornington. He was educated at Eton, and afterwards at the military college at Angers, where he studied under the celebrated Pignerol. He entered the army in Mar., 1787. His career in the field commenced in Holland (1794), under the Duke of York. He shared the hardships of this campaign, occupying the post of honour, the rearguard. He received a colonelcy in 1796. His next service was in India, where he passed through the whole of the Mysore War, and the Siege of Seringapatam, being attached to the Nizam's contingent of horse. In July, 1799, he was nominated Governor of Seringapatam and Mysore, and the command in chief of the army of occupation was entrusted to him. He exercised the great powers conferred upon him in such a way as to deserve and obtain the gratitude and respect of the natives, and to display his own extraordinary talents for organisation and command. While thus employed he found it necessary to take the field against the marauder Dhoondiah Waugh, whom he routed and slew. In 1803 he was raised to the rank of major-general,

and shortly afterwards the Mahratta War broke out. Major-General Wellesley was appointed to the command of the force destined to restore the Peishwa to his throne after the conclusion of the Treaty of Bassein, as well as to act against the Mahratta chiefs. Operations in the Deccan were quickly opened, and concluded by Wellesley's brilliant victory at Assye (Sept. 23, 1803), and Argaum (Nov. 19), which effectually subdued the opposition of Scindiah and the Rajah of Berar. Shortly after the close of the Mahratta War, General Wellesley quitted India, and after an absence of five years landed once more in England. In 1807 he was appointed Chief Secretary to the Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland. In the following August he was nominated to a command in the expedition to Copenhagen, and rendered important services, for which he received the special thanks of Parliament. On July 12 the same year he started, with a command of 10,000 men, for Portugal, the Portland ministry having sent these troops at the request of the Portuguese government, who feared the ambitious designs of Napoleon. He landed successfully at Mondego, marched on Lisbon, and defeated the French at Rolica. Sir Harry Burrard, who had been appointed over Wellesley's head, now arrived and took the command, and countermanded all Wellesley's dispositions for the attack on Junot at Torres Vedras. The French therefore assailed the English at Vimiera, and again Sir Harry Burrard prevented the English success being decisive by forbidding Wellesley to pursue and cut off the French retreat to Torres Vedras. The Convention of Cintra roused the general indignation in England against the expedition and its commanders, and especially, but most unwarrantably, against Wellesley. He returned to England and resumed his Irish duties and his seat in Parliament. In 1809, when the French had entirely occupied the Peninsula, Wellesley was sent out again with 24,000 men. He landed at Lisbon (April 22), marched against Soult, who was strongly posted at Oporto, and drove him into Galicia. The state of his commissariat rendered it impossible to pursue and march on Madrid as he had intended; while the obstinacy and imbecility of the Spanish generals rendered co-operation impossible. In spite, therefore, of the crushing victory of Talavera (q.v.), he was obliged to retreat. The next year was occupied with the inroad of Napoleon, the victory of Busaco, and the successful defence of the lines of Torres Vedras. At last, in 1812, after the capture of Badajos and Ciudad Rodrigo, Wellington began his march across Spain by defeating the French at Salamanca; opened the road to Madrid; and marched from thence to Burgos. He was, however, compelled to retire once more to the Portuguese frontier. In 1813 he marched straight to Vittoria, and from victory to victory till Soult was finally routed at Orthez, and the abdication of Napoleon ended the great Peninsular War (q.v.). At the close of the campaign he was for his services created Marquis of Douro and Duke of Wellington; the House of Commons voted him an annuity of £10,000, which was afterwards commuted for the sum of £400,000, and on July 1 the thanks of the House were conveyed to him by the Speaker. The highest honours were conferred on him by the allies, and he was made a field-marshal in each of the principal armies of Europe. In August he proceeded to Paris to represent the British government at the court of the Tuileries. He remained five months, and bore a principal share in the negotiations of this year. In Jan., 1815, the duke was accredited to Vienna as one of the representatives of Britain at the Congress of the European Powers, and united with Austria and France in resisting the demands of Russia and Prussia. In February Napoleon broke loose from Elba, and Wellington was appointed Commander-in-Chief against him. The Hundred Days ended at Waterloo (q.v.), and the allied armies marched on Paris, where Wellington had the greatest difficulty in restraining the Prussian desire for vengeance; and it was in consequence of his advice that the army of occupation, which was to have remained for five years, evacuated France at the end of three. The military career of the duke thus came to an end. In Oct., 1818, while attending the Congress of Aix-la-Chapelle, he was offered and accepted the office of Master-General of the Ordnance, with a seat in the Cabinet. He took no prominent part, however, in the administration of home affairs, though he shared the odium which accrued to the government from its coercive policy. He represented Great Britain at the Congress of Verona in 1822, and protested against the armed intervention of the French court in the affairs of Spain. In 1826, he was sent on a special mission to St. Petersburg for the purpose of promoting a peaceable settlement of the Greek question. In the following year he refused to serve under Mr. Canning, and resigned the post of Commander-in-Chief which had naturally come to him on the death of the Duke of York. In 1828, he himself became Prime Minister of England. The Canningites were allowed to retain their seats for a short time, but very soon dissensions arose, and they were either driven out or resigned spontaneously. The great question of Roman Catholic Emancipation had now for a quarter of a century occupied the attention of the legislature, and had become not so much a question of abstract principle and policy as of national peace and security. The continued anarchy of Ireland, the interminable division of cabinets, the distraction of imperial councils, and the utter impossibility of maintaining such a state of things,

at last satisfied the duke and Sir Robert Peel that the time had come when the clamorous demand of the Roman Catholics should be conceded. The premier had a clear perception of the difficulties to be encountered, and the sacrifices which must be made in thus surrendering the citadel of Protestant ascendancy, but having made up his mind that this measure was necessary, he carried it through resolutely and characteristically. His policy was announced in the speech from the throne (Feb. 5th, 1829), and so vigorously was the measure pressed, that in spite of the most determined opposition, the Relief Bill passed both Houses by a large majority, and in little more than a month became law. The ministry of the duke was greatly weakened by his victory over the principles and prejudices of his party. His opponents were not conciliated, while many of his old supporters had become furious in their indignation. The duke failed to read the signs of the times, and his obstinate opposition to Parliamentary Reform caused the downfall of his ministry, the accession of Earl Grey (1831), and the passing of the Reform Bill (q.v.). At the final crisis of the Bill, Wellington, at the request of the king, left the House of Lords, followed by about a hundred peers, to allow the Bill to pass. All through this period the tide of popular feeling ran strongly against the duke, who found it necessary to protect his windows from the mob by casings of iron. When the excitement of the Reform agitation had subsided, popular feeling towards him gradually changed; and during the rest of his life he retained a firm hold on the affections of the English people. In 1834 the king announced his intention to recall the duke to his councils, but the latter insisted that Sir Robert Peel was the proper person to be placed at the head of the government, and himself accepted the post of Foreign Secretary. In 1835, he retired with his leader, and never again took charge of any of the great civil departments of state. In 1841, on the return of his party to power, he accepted a seat in the Cabinet, but without office; though he took an active part in the business of the country. In 1842, he again became Commander-in-Chief, and was confirmed in the office for life by patent under the Great Seal. When the Irish famine brought the Anti-Corn-law agitation to a crisis, he changed with Peel, and gave that minister the warmest and most consistent support in his new commercial policy. It was in fact mainly through the duke's influence that the opposition of the great territorial magnates was withdrawn. On the complete break-up of the Conservative party, in 1846, the duke formally intimated his final retirement from political life, and never again took any part in the debates in the House of Lords except on military matters. But he continued to take the warmest interest in the welfare of the army, the country, and the sovereign, and was regarded by the queen as a friendly and intimate adviser. With the nation the popularity of "the duke" during his later years was extraordinary and almost unique. Wherever he appeared he was received with enthusiasm and affection. On Sept. 14, 1852, he died at Walmer Castle, where he resided as Warden of the Cinque Ports. Of Wellington's eminence as a general there is no question. In an age of great commanders he was one of the greatest; inferior to few of his contemporaries, save the great opponent whose designs he so often defeated. The integrity, honesty, and disinterested simplicity of his private character are equally little open to doubt. His position as a statesman admits of more dispute. That he did not altogether comprehend the spirit of the age in which he lived can scarcely be denied.

Wellington Despatches, 1852, 1860-6, and 1867; Brialmont, *Life of Wellington*; Alison, *Hist. of Europe*; Von Sybel, *French Revolution*; Thiers, *Hist. of the Consulate and Empire*; Napier, *Peninsular War*; Greville, *Memoirs*; Walpole, *Hist. of Eng. from 1815*; Stapleton, *George Canning and his Times*; Pauli, *Englische Geschichte seit 1815*; Molesworth, *Hist. of the Reform Bill*; Peel, *Memoirs*. [S. J. L.]

Welsh Judicature, Abolition of (11 Geo. IV. & 1 Will. IV.). In 1820 a select committee was appointed to inquire into the Welsh judicature, which had existed for centuries, in spite of proposals to remove it. The Common Laws Commissioners of 1822 decided that its continuance was indefensible. Peel, therefore, introduced (1830) a bill for its abolition, and for adding an additional judge to each of the three superior courts at Westminster. The bill became law in 1830. The Special Sessions in Wales were abolished, and that country, with Cheshire, erected into new circuits, served by the ordinary judges. (The Court of the Marches of Wales, established under Henry VIII., had been abolished in 1688.)

Wendover, Roger of (*d.* 1236), a monk of St. Albans, was historiographer to his monastery, and wrote, or continued, a history of the world from the Creation to 1235, which is incorporated — with some additions and variations — in the *Chronica Majora* or *Historia Major* of Matthew Paris (q.v.), and known as the *Flores Historiarum*. Mr. Luard thinks that this chronicle was the work of a succession of writers, beginning with John de Cella (down to 1187), and continued by other monks, including Roger of Wendover, who is certainly responsible for the events subsequent to the accession of John, and is our chief authority on the reign. The chronicle from 1154 to 1285, under the title *Flores Historiarum*, is edited in the Rolls Series.

Wenlock, Lord (*d.* 1471), was originally supporter of the Lancastrian party, and

fought in the first battle of St. Albans. Subsequently he went over to the Yorkists, and was attainted in 1459. He commanded the rear of the Yorkist army in the battle of Towton, and many honours and rewards were given him by Edward IV. He afterwards joined Warwick and the malcontents, and fought on the Lancastrian side in the battle of Tewkesbury, where he was slain, it is said by Somerset, who suspected him of treachery.

Wensleydale's Case, Lord (1856). Sir James Parke, judge of the Court of Exchequer, was raised to the peerage by the title of Baron Wensleydale; but the patent which conferred the title on him contained the unusual recital that his barony was to be held "for the term of his natural life." This creation was an attempt to revive a right which had lain in abeyance since the reign of Richard II. There was a very strong feeling in the House of Lords against this, and Lord Lyndhurst acted as its exponent. Three great legal authorities who seldom united on any point, were agreed in strenuous opposition to this change—Lords Lyndhurst, Brougham, and Campbell. The Lord Chancellor, on the other hand, supported it, and was probably the author of the proposal. After some discussion, and the proposal of a great number of resolutions, the government yielded, and conferred on Sir James Parke a patent of peerage drawn up in the ordinary form.

Wentworth, Peter, was member for Tregony, in Cornwall, and a man of courage and independence. During the session of 1576 he made a speech reflecting on the undue influence of the queen on the Parliament, and defending the privileges of the House. For this he was sequestered, and a committee of all the privy councillors in the House was appointed to examine him. He was sent to the Tower, but released at the queen's request in a month, being reprimanded on his knees by the Speaker. In 1588 he was again committed to the Tower through the instrumentality of the Speaker, Serjeant Puckering (afterwards Lord Keeper), for some questions which he proposed to put in favour of liberty of speech. In 1593 he was again imprisoned for presenting a petition to the Lord Keeper, desiring "the Lords of the Upper House to join with those of the Lower in imploring her majesty to entail the succession of the crown, for which they had already prepared a bill."

Hallam, *Const. Hist.*; Aiken, *Memoirs of the Court of Elizabeth.*

Wer-gild, in Anglo-Saxon times, was the money value of each man's life, and the sum which, in case of his death by violence, had to be paid by the murderer, either to his kinsmen or gild-brethren, or, in the case of a serf, to his master. The amount of the *wer-gild* depended entirely on the rank of the person slain, and was carefully graduated. Thus the *wer* of the king was 7,200 shillings, that of an ealdorman 2,400 shillings, while a king's thegn was valued at 1,200 shillings, an ordinary thegn at 600 shillings, and a ceorl at 200. [Bot.]

Robertson, *Hist. Essays*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*

Wesley, John (*b.* 1703, *d.* 1791) was the son of Samuel Wesley, Rector of Epworth. He was educated at the University of Oxford, and took orders. In 1726 he was elected to a fellowship at Lincoln. At the University, he and his brother in 1729 formed a society to promote religious study and conversation. They soon became known (from the regularity of their behaviour) as the "Methodists." (q.v.). In 1735 the two brothers went to Georgia to convert the Indians. Their mission was unfruitful, and they returned in 1738. On their return they proclaimed themselves advocates of the doctrine of justification by faith alone. In May, 1738, the Wesleys began to form Methodist congregations in London. For the next few years Wesley, with his brother, George Whitfield, and a few other coadjutors, was engaged in preaching in London and other parts of England to immense and growing congregations. In spite of much opposition, frequently manifested in the form of riot and violence, the movement rapidly gained ground. John Wesley lived till 1791, by which time the Methodists had established societies in every important town in England, and had a flourishing church in America.

Wessex, The Kingdom of. This state, which eventually expanded into the kingdom of the English, but when separate covered at one time seven modern counties, was founded by the West Saxons in 519. These settlers seem to have been at first called *Gewissas*, which word also is supposed to mean men of the west, and had been already spreading over and planting themselves in the Itchen valley for twenty-four years. Some inquirers believe that during this time the work of conquest and occupation was carried on "by independent bands of settlers," who had not yet felt the need of a common leader, but who, in 519, were brought to a union under the kingship of Cerdic and his son, Cynric. Indeed, to these "aldermen," as it calls them, the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* gives all the distinction from the first, informing us that they came to Britain in 495 with five ships, and had a fight with the Welsh on the very day of their arrival; were, in 501, followed by Port; slew, in 508, 5,000 Britons, and their King Natanleod; were, in 514, joined by Stuf and Wihtgar, leading a third invading force; "laid their grasp on the kingship" in 519, thus establishing the kingdom that has since swelled into the British empire. Their battle at *Mons Badonicus*, in 520, with "the king, in whom some have recognised the majestic figure of Ambrosius" (Elton), some the mysterious Arthur, some both, is reported from the other

side. Cerdic lived, fought, and slew—routing the Britons at Cerdicslea in 527, and overrunning Wight in 530—till 534, when he died, leaving his task to be carried on by Cynric. The exact extent of Cynric's kingdom is unknown, but it had certainly spread beyond Hampshire. It was reserved for his son, Ceawlin, to make the West Saxon a large and powerful state. Beginning in 560, Ceawlin reigned for thirty-one years. Aided by his brother, Cuthwulf, he overthrew Ethelbert of Kent, vanquished the Britons at Bedford in 571, vanquished them again at Derham in Gloucestershire in 577, and took into his kingdom Buckinghamshire and Oxfordshire, northern Wiltshire, and the Severn Valley. In 584 he fought, and lost his brother, in the battle of Fethanlea, a place that Dr. Guest identifies with Faddiley, regarding the campaign as a conquering march as far as Cheshire, but others conjecture to have been Frethern. In either case the West Saxons had extended their conquests far beyond the line of the Thames and the Somersetshire Avon, to which they had been at first restricted. But Ceawlin would seem to have gone too fast; disaster overtook his arms in the end. Beaten at Wodensburg by his own subjects, he fled, and died in exile. After this rebuff the advance of the West Saxons was held in check for more than two hundred years. They lost to Mercia the conquests they had made beyond the Thames, and they even lay under the Mercian yoke for nineteen years (733—752). But they had compensations. About 635 they were converted to Christianity by Birinus; under Kenwalch (Cenwealh) they pushed their western frontier from the Axe to the Parret; then, under Ina, beyond the Parret; from the same Ina they obtained the first English code of laws; and, led by Cuthred, they broke the Mercian yoke from off their necks by a great victory over Ethelbald at Burford in 752. At the same time they gave two examples that have not been lost on their posterity—in 672 they took a woman for their ruler, Sexburh, Kenwalch's widow, and in 755 they dethroned Cuthred's successor, Sigebert, after he had reigned a year. Ina, too, added to the bishopric of Winchester, founded by Kenwalch, that of Sherborne, of which the see was later on shifted to Salisbury. This stage of West Saxon history closed with 800, when Egbert came to the throne. Feared by his predecessor, Brihtric, he had passed several years in exile near Charlemagne, and is thought to have profited greatly thereby. It was his fate not only to extend the kingdom, and bring it once more to the front, but also to raise it to the lordship of the other kingdoms and states. In his days Wessex reached the Tamar, the invading Mercians were overthrown at Ellandun in 823, and their sceptre was wrested from them, while the aggressive Danes and the Cornishmen were beaten in a great battle at Hengestdown in 835. Between 823 and 828 every other people south of the Tweed had been annexed to or made dependent on the West Saxons. The Danish wars gave a new turn to the growth of Wessex. Under Alfred she was virtually stripped of her external supremacy, but her immediate territory was much increased. The impulse thus gained continued under Alfred's son and grandsons, till Wessex far outgrew its name, and lost itself in the English kingdom, but her distinguishing legal customs, the *Westseaxnalage*, survived till Henry II. reduced English law to a uniform system.

The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle; Elton, *Origins of English History*; Green, *The Making of England*; Lappenberg, *Anglo-Saxon Kings*; Freeman, *Norman Conquest*. [J. R.]

KINGS OF WESSEX.

Cerdic	519—534
Cynric	534—560
Ceawlin	560—591
Ceolric	591—597
Ceolwulf	597—611
Cynegils	611—643
Cenwealh	643—672
Sexburh (Queen)	672—673
Æscwine	674—676
Centwine	676—685
Ceadwalla	685—688
Ine	688—726
Ethelhard	726—741
Cuthred	741—754
Sigebert	754—755
Cynewulf	755—784
Bertric	784—800
Egbert	800—836
Ethelwulf	836—858
Ethelbald	858—860
Ethelbert	860—866
Ethelred	866—871
Alfred	871—901
Edward the Elder	901—925

West African Colonies and Settlements, THE, consist of those on the Gambia, the Gold Coast, Nigeria, and Sierra Leone. They are all crown colonies—that is, the crown has entire control over the administration. (1) The Gambia was first colonised after 1618; a patent having been granted to some Exeter merchants by Elizabeth to trade in the district. Its trade chiefly consisted in slaves, and its white population has greatly decreased since the abolition of slavery. Until 1843 it was subject to Sierra Leone. It became a portion of the government of West Africa settlements by charter in 1843, and an independent colony in 1888. (2) Sierra Leone was at first settled solely with negroes. It became a British colony in 1787, and has since been maintained for the suppression of the slave-trade. (3) The Gold Coast was first visited by Englishmen in 1591. It became the possession of the African Company of merchants in 1750, and they ceded it to the crown in 1820. Several times during the 19th century the English protectorate over the tribes of the interior has caused us to come into collision with the Ashantees, the last occasion being in 1896, when their country was annexed. In 1872 the Dutch

surrendered all their settlements on the Gold Coast to England. The Gold Coast became an independent colony in 1874. (4) Nigeria comprises the protectorates of Northern Nigeria and of Southern Nigeria; in 1906, the old protectorate of Lagos (which originally belonged to the King of Dahomey) was included in Southern Nigeria.

Westbury, Richard Bethell, Lord (*b.* 1800, *d.* 1873), was the son of a physician at Bristol; he was educated at Wadham College, Oxford. He was called to the bar (1823), and soon acquired an extensive practice. He obtained distinguished success as advocate for Brasenose College in a suit which brought him a continually increasing practice, and in 1840 he became a Queen's Counsel. In 1847 he unsuccessfully contested Shaftesbury in the Liberal interest. In 1851 he was more successful, and was returned for Aylesbury as a "Liberal, favourable to the ballot and the abolition of Church rates." In 1859 he was elected for Wolverhampton, which he continued to represent till he was called to the Upper House. In Dec., 1852, he became Solicitor-General under the Coalition government of Lord Aberdeen. His services at this time were of much use to Mr. Gladstone in carrying the Succession Duty Bill, many of the points in which were so intricate and so strictly technical, that no one but an equity lawyer could have explained them properly to the House. The success in fact was in the main due to Sir Richard Bethell, who also took an active part about the same time in carrying the bills for reforming the University of Oxford, and for abolishing the Ecclesiastical Courts. In the winter of 1856—7 Sir Richard became Attorney-General. It became his duty to introduce and carry through the House the Probate and Administration Act and the Divorce Act, and this duty he discharged effectually and successfully. When the new Court of Probate and Matrimonial Causes was formed, the judgeship was first offered by Lord Palmerston to Sir Richard Bethell, who, however, refused it. In 1857 he carried successfully through the House of Commons another important measure, the Fraudulent Trustees Bill. He had a large share in the preparation of the Conspiracy to Murder Bill of 1858, which caused the retirement of Lord Palmerston's Cabinet from office. In 1861, on the death of Lord Campbell, the Great Seal was offered to Sir Richard, and he took his seat in the House of Lords as Lord Westbury, having previously carried the Bankruptcy Bill of 1861 through the Lower House. In the summer of 1865 some scandalous proceedings which it was thought he ought to have detected and checked, were brought to light in connection with the Leeds Bankruptcy Court, and in consequence of these, and of an adverse motion in the House of Commons, he resigned the Great Seal in the July of that year. From that date down to his death, Lord Westbury constantly took part in the decision of Appeals brought before the House of Lords, and as Arbitrator in delicate and important commercial cases.

Westminster Abbey was commenced by Edward the Confessor in 1049, and consecrated in Dec., 1065. The rebuilding was commenced by Henry III. in 1220, and the chapter house begun in 1250. In 1256 Parliament first met in the chapter house at Westminster, and their last sitting in this building was in Jan., 1547. The sanctuary rights of the abbey were abolished in 1602. In 1739 the Western Tower was finished, and in 1808—22 the abbey was repaired and partly reconstructed. The restoration of the chapter house was began in 1866 and finished in 1871. The altar screen was restored in 1867.

Westminster Assembly, The, was convoked by order of the Long Parliament in the summer of 1643, to consider the condition of the Church, as "many things in its liturgy, discipline, and government required further and more perfect reformation." It met on July 1, and, after a sermon from Dr. Twiss, the Prolocutor, began its sessions in Henry VII.'s chapel, whence it afterwards removed to the Jerusalem Chamber. The assembly consisted of both lay and clerical members, and was never very numerous—about sixty attending its ordinary sittings. The great majority of the assembly were inclined to Presbyterianism, and many of them profoundly convinced of its Divine Right. This party was further strengthened when political necessities involved a close alliance with the Scots, and compelled the assembly to accept the Solemn League and Covenant, and to add to its numbers Henderson, Baillie, and other commissioners of the General Assembly of the Scottish Church. Their predominance was further assured when the moderate Episcopalians, the advocates of "Ussher's model," including the archbishop himself, either refused to sit or withdrew from the assembly. But a small though extremely energetic and intelligent opposition, consisting partly of "Erastians," like the lawyers Selden, St. John, and Whitelocke; and the divines, Coleman, and, to some extent, Lightfoot; and partly of Independents, like the "dissenting brethren," Vane, Nye, Goodwin, Bridge, Burroughs, and Simpson. Burgess, Calamy, Marshall, and Ash, were, with the Scots, the most famous of the Presbyterian party. After 1645 Charles Herle was its Prolocutor. The debates of the assembly extended over nearly all possible subjects of theology. From July, 1643, to the summer of 1647 it pursued its way uninterrupted. It spent much time on the revision of the Articles, which involved endless theological discussion. It superseded

the Prayer Book by the *Directory of Public Worship*. It did its best to establish a rigid Presbyterial organisation, slightly modified by a few insignificant concessions to the Independents, and, pending its establishment, it took upon itself the function of ordaining ministers. It drew up the celebrated *Westminster Confession of Faith* with the Longer and Shorter Catechisms, which have since remained the authoritative expositions of British Presbyterianism. Possessing no direct power, it was necessarily somewhat dependent on the Parliament to which it owed its existence; though this did not prevent the active section exalting the spiritual power so highly as to call down upon the assembly the threat of an action for *præmunire*. After the summer of 1647, the retirement of the Scots marked the ending of the main business of the Assembly. But up to the spring in 1652 a small number of its divines continued to meet for the purpose of examining candidates for ordination, until Cromwell's dissolution of the Rump led to their silent disappearance without formal dismissal. Despite their narrowness and bigotry, the members of the Westminster Assembly had shown much learning and zeal, and some moderation, in a critical and arduous duty.

Hetherington, *History of the Westminster Assembly*; Rushworth, *Collections*; Lightfoot, *Journal*; Baillie, *Letters*; Neal, *History of the Puritans*; Stoughton, *Religion in England*.

[T. F. T.]

Westminster, Matthew of, the name given, on the authority of one MS., and perpetuated by Archbishop Parker's first printed edition (1567) of the work, to a supposed author of the *Flores Historiarum*, a history of the world from the Creation to 1326, which agrees as to large portions of its text with the *Chronica Majora* of Matthew Paris (q.v.), but after 1259 contains additions, obviously by Westminster monks. Mr. Luard thinks that it contains substantially the St. Albans compilation, which was the basis of the work of Roger of Wendover (q.v.) and Matthew Paris, but that it was amplified from various other sources; that it was indeed transcribed, with additions and omissions, from one MS. of Matthew Paris, and that, as it resembles his work in part and also speaks of Westminster, the name is due to some confusion by the copyist. After 1259 it has independent value. Mr. Luard has edited it, with prefaces, in the Rolls Series.

Westminster, The First Statute of (1275), was one of the earliest of Edward I.'s great legal measures, and was a measure of reform and consolidation. It contains fifty-one clauses, and covers the whole ground of legislation, so that, as Dr. Stubbs says, it is "almost a code in itself." Its language now recalls that of Canute or Alfred, now anticipates that of our own day: on the one hand common right is to be done to all, as well poor as rich, without respect of persons; on the other, elections are to be free, and no man is by force, malice, or menace to disturb them. The spirit of the Great Charter is not less discernible; excessive amercements, abuses of wardship, irregular demands for feudal aids, are forbidden in the same words, or by amending enactments. The inquiry system of Henry II., the law of wreck, and the institution of coroner's measures of Richard and his ministers, come under review, as well as the Provisions of Oxford, and the Statute of Marlborough.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.* and *Select Charters*.

Westminster, The Second Statute of (1285), like the preceding, is rather a code than a simple statute. It contains the famous article *De Donis Conditionalibus*, alters and improves the laws relating to manorial jurisdictions, trial of criminals, the rights of commonage, dower, and advowsons.

Westminster, The Provisions of (1259), were drawn up in accordance with the plan prescribed by the Provisions of Oxford (q.v.). They were republished by Henry III. in 1262, and again in 1264, during his captivity. They were subsequently embodied in the Statute of Marlborough (1267). They provide for the orderly inheritance of property, forbid the disparaging marriage of wards, and the granting of lands, &c., to aliens; the offices of state and the fortresses are to be put into the hands of Englishmen only; ecclesiastics shall not acquire any land without the sanction of the immediate lord, and benefit of clergy is limited.

Westminster Hall was built by William Rufus in 1097—99. It was used for sittings of the courts of law in 1224. Richard II. had the hall rebuilt in 1397. The law courts, which had been attached to the outside walls of the hall, were taken down in 1884 after the completion of the Royal Palace of Justice in the Strand.

Westmorland, Charles Neville, Earl of (*d.* 1601), one of the most powerful Catholic nobles of Elizabeth's reign, though a man devoid of talent, was a leader in the Northern Rebellion of 1569, and achieved the only success in the insurrection by the capture of Barnard Castle from Sir George Bowes. On the collapse of the movement he made his escape to the border, and in spite of many attempts to seize him, managed, with better fortune than the Earl of Northumberland, to find an asylum with the Duke of Alva in the Netherlands, where he dragged out a tedious existence in poverty and obscurity, barely supplied with the necessaries of life by a slender pension from the King of Spain.

Westmorland, Ralph Neville, Earl of (*d.* 1425), was the son of John, Lord Neville. In 1386 he was made Guardian of

the West Marches, and in 1399 Earl of Westmorland. He joined Bolingbroke on his landing in England, and was by him created Earl Marshal. He fought for Henry IV. against the Percies; prevented the Earl of Northumberland from joining his son Hotspur; checked the incursions of the Scots, and by gross treachery got Archbishop Scrope, the Earl of Nottingham, and other partisans of the Percies into his hands. He married first Margaret, daughter of the Earl of Stafford; and secondly, Joan Beaufort, daughter of John of Gaunt.

Wetherell, Sir Charles (*b.* 1770, *d.* 1846), was the son of the Very Rev. Nathan Wetherell, Dean of Hereford. He was educated at Magdalen College, Oxford, and was called to the bar (1794). His friendship with Lord Eldon, who received the Great Seal in 1801, stood him in good stead. His practice increased continually, and in 1816 he was made king's counsel. In 1817 he undertook the defence of Watson after the Spa Fields Riots, but this proceeding did not further his chances of promotion. In 1818 he was elected M.P. for Shaftesbury, but never acquired any great influence with the House. From 1820 to 1826 he represented the city of Oxford. From 1826 to 1830 he sat for Plympton; and in 1830 he was elected for Boroughbridge, which was disfranchised by the Reform Bill. He then retired from Parliament. In 1824 he was appointed Solicitor-General by the Earl of Liverpool; and in 1826 he succeeded to the Attorney-Generalship, an office which he did not, however, hold longer than till April 30 the following year. In 1828 he again became Attorney-General under the Duke of Wellington, but resigned when the government accepted the Catholic Relief Act. He opposed Lord Grey's Reform Bill with the greatest ability and perseverance, and in consequence became extremely unpopular in the country. In 1831, therefore, when he proceeded to Bristol to hold the October Sessions as Recorder of the town, his carriage was surrounded by an infuriated mob, and he and the other corporate authorities were pelted with stones. Sir Charles retained his office, however, in spite of this, till his death, which was due to an accident when out driving.

Wexford was frequently the scene of conflict in Irish wars and rebellions. It was taken by Fitzgerald and Fitzstaple in 1169. In 1462 it was seized by Sir John Butler, and recovered by the Earl of Ormonde. In the autumn of 1641 it was captured by the Irish rebels. Cromwell appeared before Wexford after the capture of Drogheda in 1649, and he refused to grant the terms demanded by the governor, and demanded an unconditional surrender, giving only an hour for reflection. The gates were not opened at the end of the hour granted, and the town was at once stormed. Some 3,000 or 4,000 people were massacred (Oct. 9, 1649). It was in Wexford that the rebellion of 1798 assumed its most dangerous form. It broke out on May 26, and the troops were defeated in rapid succession at Oulast, Enniscorthy, and at the Three Rocks. In consequence of this last defeat, General Fawcett, who had been advancing to support Maxwell, who commanded in Wexford, retreated, and on the 31st Maxwell himself had to follow his example, his men refusing to fight. The Protestant inhabitants and fugitives had fled to the ships in the harbour, but were brought back and thrown into prison. After the rebel defeat at New Ross the Protestants were given a choice between conversion to Catholicism and death. On June 20 ninety-seven Protestants were murdered after a mock trial. The nominal leader of the rebels was Bagenal Harvey, but the real leader a priest named Murphy. Lake's victory at Vinegar Hill (June 21, 1798) crushed the Wexford rebellion, and the insurgents evacuated the town the same day.

Whalley, Edward (*d. circa* 1679), was a member of an ancient Nottinghamshire family, and a first cousin of Oliver Cromwell. He joined the Parliamentary army, and distinguished himself by his bravery at Naseby, for which he was made a colonel of horse. During Charles I.'s imprisonment at Hampton Court he was placed in Whalley's charge. In 1655 he was made one of the major-generals, and subsequently one of the "lords" of Cromwell's Upper House. He took a prominent part in the trial of the king, and was one of those who signed the death warrant. When the Restoration was inevitable he fled to America, where he led a life of danger, having continually to hide in the woods and among Puritan friends, who protected him from the warrant which had been issued against him.

Whalley, Richard, one of the most unscrupulous adherents of Protector Somerset, was receiver-general in Yorkshire, where he managed to appropriate a good deal of the public money. In 1551 he was accused of having formed a plot for the restoration of the Protector.

Wharncliffe, James Stuart Wortley Mackenzie, Baron (*b.* 1776, *d.* 1845), was the grandson of the third Earl of Bute. He was educated at the Charterhouse, entered the army in 1791, and quitted it in 1801, after having obtained the rank of lieutenant-colonel. In 1797 he was elected to Parliament for the borough of Bossiney in Cornwall. In 1812, after the failure of many ministerial negotiations, he was chosen to move an address to the Prince Regent, praying that he would form a strong and efficient ministry. In 1818 he succeeded to his large inheritance, and was elected for Yorkshire, which he represented till 1826, when, having

offended his constituents by his opinions on the Catholic question, he was not re-elected. He was, however, elevated to the peerage. He strenuously opposed the Reform Bill in 1831, but was reconciled to it later by Earl Grey. He opposed the Whigs as long as they were in power, but when Sir R. Peel was recalled from Italy (Nov., 1834) to form a Conservative government, he took office as Lord Privy Seal, which he held till April, 1835. In 1841, on the return of Peel to power, Lord Wharncliffe became President of the Council.

Wharton, PHILIP, DUKE OF (*b.* 1698, *d.* 1731), son of Thomas, Marquis of Wharton, early displayed extraordinary talents, combined with an utterly dissolute and unprincipled character. In 1716 he went abroad and had interviews with the Pretender and queen-dowager, and offered them his services. He sat in the Irish Parliament as a Whig, but on coming to England he passed into Opposition. His talents were employed in publishing an Opposition paper, known as the *True Briton*. In 1720 his violent attack on Lord Stanhope and the ministry, when the South Sea Company was under discussion, so enraged that statesman as to cause a rush of blood to his head, which proved fatal. [STANHOPE.] Wharton made a fine speech in 1722 in defence of Atterbury. Shortly afterwards his debts compelled him to leave England. He went to Spain, where he openly attached himself to the Pretender's cause, and was created by him Duke of Northumberland. He became a pretended convert to Roman Catholicism. At this time the schemes of Ripperda, the Spanish minister, had resulted in a close alliance between Spain and Austria, while by a secret treaty these powers pledged themselves to assist the restoration of the Stuarts. But the imprudence of Wharton and Ripperda ruined the plan. Wharton had so far cast aside his nationality as to become a volunteer in the siege of Gibraltar. In 1728 he tried to be reconciled with the English court, but they, through Horace Walpole, refused to remit the indictment for high treason which had been preferred against him. His character has been drawn in Pope's lines:—

"Wharton, the scorn and wonder of our days,
Whose ruling passion was the lust of praise.
* * * * * *
A fool, with more of wit than half mankind;
Too rash for thought—for action too refin'd;
A tyrant to the wife his heart approves;
A rebel to the very king he loves."

Wharton, THOMAS, MARQUIS OF (*b.* 1648, *d.* 1715), was the son of Philip, Lord Wharton, who had fought on the side of the Parliament in the Civil War. He was educated in the strictest Calvinism, but nevertheless became one of the most dissolute of the Cavaliers at the Restoration. He was, however, throughout his life a firm adherent of the Whig party. In 1685 he was elected for Buckinghamshire, where his political influence was very great. It is said that in this and other counties he sent thirty members to Parliament. He was one of the boldest opponents of James II. When James reprimanded the Commons on the subject of the Test Act, Wharton proposed that a time should be appointed for taking the king's answer into consideration. By his song "Lillibullero" (q.v.), a satire on Tyrconnel's administration, Wharton afterwards boasted that he had sung a king out of three kingdoms. On the arrival of William in England Wharton joined him at Exeter. When the throne was declared vacant, Wharton was the first to propose that it should be occupied by William and Mary. In 1695 he conducted an attack on the Tory ministry. A committee was appointed to examine the books of the city of London and the East India Company. He was placed in the chair; and the result of the inquiry moved the impeachment of the Duke of Leeds. In 1696 he supported the bill for Fenwick's attainder, which caused the Whigs to triumph completely. He was made Chief Justice in Eyre, retaining his place of Comptroller of the Household. In 1697 he hoped to be made Secretary of State; but William refused to grant the request, for fear of alienating the Tories. Next year a Tory reaction set in, and Wharton's candidates were defeated throughout England. In 1700 he proposed amendments in the bill for the resumption of Irish land grants. A struggle took place between the Lords and Commons; but the former yielded, and Wharton retired from London. In 1701 he regained all his influence in Buckinghamshire. On the accession of Anne he was removed from his employments. In 1705 he proposed a Regency Bill in the case of the queen's demise. In 1708, after the Junto had joined Godolphin's ministry, he was made Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland. There he showed great hostility to the Catholics, but was disposed to conciliate the Dissenters. He was superseded by Ormonde in 1710. His administration was bitterly attacked by Swift, whose *Short Character of the Earl of Wharton* is a satire of the most savage character. During the last session of Anne's Parliament he displayed great zeal for the Protestant Succession. He opposed Bolingbroke's Schism Act; he proposed that the Duke of Lorraine should be compelled to expel the Pretender from his dominions; he advocated the issuing of a proclamation offering a reward for the apprehension of the Pretender, whether dead or alive. On the accession of George he was made Lord Privy Seal, and created a marquis. In the next year he died. Wharton's private character was irredeemably bad. He was notorious as the greatest profligate in England, and his effrontery and mendacity had no bounds. He was the most thorough-going and unscrupulous of all the Whig party men of the age. "The falsest of

mankind in all relations but one: he was the truest of Whigs," says Macaulay.

Burnet, *Hist. of his Own Time*; Swift's *Works*, vol. v.; Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng.*

Whethamstede, John of (*d.* 1464), was Abbot of St. Albans, and wrote a chronicle or register of events from 1441 to 1460. Though a very meagre record, owing to the dearth of contemporary writers at this period, this chronicle is of considerable importance, and is published in the Rolls Series.

Whig. This famous party name was first used to denote the stern Covenanters of south-western Scotland, who struggled against the Royalist and Episcopal Restoration of 1660, and frequently rose in fruitless revolt against the government of Charles II. About 1679, during the height of the Popish Plot agitation, the name was applied to the champions of the Exclusion Bill, at first in derision, but before long as their accepted name. The Whig party had, however, existed in fact long before it existed in name. It sprang from the old Country party, which had begun the contest with Charles I., and had, with varying fortunes, continued to struggle against his son. In this sense the germ of the Whig party is almost as old as the end of the reign of Elizabeth. Proscribed after the failure of the Exclusion Bill, the Whig party found their principles accepted by nearly the whole nation in 1688. The accession of the house of Hanover completed a triumph which lasted until the accession of George III. During this long period of power the Whigs became conservative. Those who had been zealous for the old liberties of the nation, for Magna Carta, the Habeas Corpus Act, and the "Social Contract," now regarded the Revolution, the Toleration Act, and the Bill of Rights as including all the most important of their principles. All now needed was to preserve the admirable constitution which the Revolution had given us, and to govern the country in its spirit. The opposition to the crown had always been led by the aristocracy. The triumph of the opposition made the English government a "Venetian oligarchy," while reducing the sovereign to the position of the doge. Of this party in its earliest stage, Locke was the great teacher; Somers and Walpole, perhaps, the greatest practical statesmen. But the long tenure of power demoralised the party, so that from being stationary it became almost reactionary, while most corrupt in its administration. Attacked both from the popular and royalist sides by Chatham and George III., the want of agreement between the two elements of opposition, and the narrowly personal character of George III.'s policy, postponed for a time its final defeat. At last Chatham's son repudiated the name of Whig, and, in alliance with the crown, dealt a death-blow to the Whig aristocracy. The writings of Burke enshrine in its most perfect form the Whig theory of government. But with the French Revolution new political factors came into play, which revolutionised again the Whig party. The meaning of the term changed. "Revolution Whigs," like Burke, became practically Tories. The more active section of the party became Liberal, if not Radical. Fox was the founder of the New Whigs, whose first principle was admiration of the French Revolution, and who were the progenitors of the modern Liberal party. Their principles triumphed in the Reform Bill of 1832; but once in power the aristocratic and conservative element which still remained in the Whig party began to show itself again to the disgust of the more advanced section of the Reformers. Gradually the word Whig became so discredited that Whig progressists preferred to borrow from Continental politics the term Liberal as a better designation of their party. The development of new party principles by the changes involved in the Reform Act completed the change. Ultimately the term Whig has become almost a term of reproach in the great party which has inherited its traditions, and is popularly used to denote a timid and rather old-fashioned type of aristocratic politician.

Cooke, *Hist. of Party*; Hallam, *Const. Hist.*; May, *Const. Hist.* [T. F. T.]

Whiggamores' Raid, The, is the name given to the proceedings of a body of Covenanters (1648) who assembled at Mauchline in Ayrshire, under Lord Eglinton, and marched to Edinburgh.

Whitbread, Samuel (*b.* 1758, *d.* 1815), was the son of a London brewer, his mother being a daughter of Lord Cornwallis, and was educated at Eton, and St. John's College, Oxford. In 1790 he was returned to Parliament for Bedford, and first signalised himself by a powerful speech in opposition to the proposal of the ministry for a Russian armament. In the following year (1793) he opposed the project of a war with France. Throughout the long sway of Pitt, Whitbread was one of the foremost men among the Opposition. When in 1805 the Opposition decided to bring Lord Melville to account, Whitbread was selected to move the resolutions. Consistent in his view of the war policy throughout, he never ceased to inveigh against the rupture of the Peace of Amiens, and broke with a large section of his own party, who were at last convinced of the insincerity of Napoleon's professions. In 1809 he took a prominent and fearless part in the inquiry into the Duke of York's conduct. On Napoleon's escape from Elba, Whitbread again raised his voice against any attempt to impose a ruler on France and to interfere with the choice of the nation. Unfortunately he only lived just long enough to see the end of a war which he so violently detested. He incurred much odium in his attempts to

put down the jobbery which had prevented Drury Lane Theatre from occupying the national position which it ought to have held. The strain thus entailed on him, combined with his Parliamentary labours, were too much for him. His mind gave way, and on July 6, 1815, he died by his own hand.

Lord Holland, *Mem. of the Whig Party*; Romilly, *Life*; *Life and Opinions of Earl Grey*.

White, John, Bishop of Lincoln and afterwards of Winchester (*b.* 1511, *d.* 1560), was a strong opponent of the Reformation, and was imprisoned in the Tower by Edward VI. Under Mary he obtained high favour at court, and was one of the commissioners appointed to try Cranmer for heresy (1555). On the accession of Elizabeth he was again sent to the Tower for preaching a violent sermon against the queen.

Strype, *Memorials*.

White Bands, The Parliament of (1321), was the name given to the Parliament which banished the Despencers, from the white favours which were worn by the adherents of the barons.

Whiteboys, The. The increased demand for salt beef and salt butter in the middle of the eighteenth century, gave a great impetus to the change from tillage to pasture in Ireland. Tithes aggravated the sufferings of the tenants which necessarily followed this change. The Whiteboy movement was the result; it was formidable chiefly in Tipperary and Limerick. In the spring of 1760 troops had to be sent there together with a special commission to try the numerous offenders, but few were convicted. The leader of the Whiteboys called himself Captain Danger, and from 1762 to 1765 his commands were better obeyed and enforced than the law. At last the gentry formed bodies of Volunteers, and this, together with the execution of a certain Father Sheehy, repressed the outrages for a time. In 1786, however, the Whiteboys reappeared in Munster; they mustered in opposition to the payment of tithes, and forced the people to swear to obey the Captain's right. They disarmed all Protestants, and committed terrible outrages, especially on curates and clergymen of the Established Church. In 1786 they were bold enough to attack a detachment of the 20th Regiment; they were driven off with some difficulty, as they had managed to arm themselves with the arms of the Volunteers. In the same year a special bill for the "Protection of the Clergy" had to be passed. General Luttrell was now sent down with troops, and he and Lord Tyrone stopped the movement for the moment. But soon after, the High Sheriff had to fly for his life from the Whiteboys, and now at last the gentry were roused, and headed by Lord Kenmare, a Catholic, hunted them down without mercy, while shiploads were sent off to Botany Bay. After the Rebellion of 1798, nothing was heard of them for some time, but in 1821 they again appeared in Munster. The Insurrection Act checked them, but in 1823 they were worse than ever.

Whitefield, or **Whitfield,** George (*b.* 1714, *d.* 1770), born at Gloucester, and educated at Oxford, where he joined the Methodists. He was ordained at the early age of 21, and after holding various curacies in England went to America to join the Wesleys (q.v.), reaching Savannah in 1738. He returned to England and met with extraordinary success as a preacher. In 1739 he went again to America, and came back to England in 1741. The rest of his life he spent travelling and preaching.

Whitelocke, Bulstrode (*b.* 1605, *d.* 1675), son of Judge Sir James Whitelocke, became a student at the Middle Temple, and was elected member for Marlow in Nov., 1640. At the trial of the Earl of Strafford, Whitelocke had the charge of the last seven articles of the impeachment. At the outbreak of the war he raised troops, and occupied Oxford for the Parliament (Aug., 1642), but was forced to abandon it immediately. He acted as one of the Commissioners for the Parliament during the negotiations at Oxford and Uxbridge, and was also a member of the Westminster Assembly. In May, 1647, he voted against the disbanding of the army, and in March, 1648, was appointed one of the Commissioners of the Great Seal. He became ambassador to Sweden (Nov., 1653). After concluding a treaty of amity with Queen Christina, he returned to England, and resumed his duties as Commissioner for the custody of the Great Seal. From this office he was dismissed (June, 1655), for opposing Cromwell's ordinance for the reform of Chancery. He was nominated as a member of Cromwell's House of Lords, but refused to accept the title of viscount which the Protector wished to confer on him. Richard appointed him Keeper of the Great Seal, but he nevertheless became a member of the Council of State of the restored Rump. He remained in retirement from the close of 1659 to the final dissolution of the Long Parliament. The House of Commons by 175 to 134 votes decided that Whitelocke should have the benefit of the Act of Indemnity, and he escaped all punishment.

A book called *Whitelocke's Memorials* was published in 1682. Mr. Sanford, in his *Studies of the Great Rebellion*, calls this work "a compilation which is manifestly a bookseller's speculation, founded on some rough notes of Whitelocke's, eked out by scraps from the newspapers, and other much more doubtful sources of information; and edited by some Royalist who had little personal knowledge of the general events of the Civil War, and who has not only made sad confusion in dates, but has also introduced certain passages which may be safely pronounced to be absolute forgeries." Anthony

Wood says, that the anonymous editor was Arthur, Earl of Annesley.

Whitelocke, *Journal of the Embassy to Sweden*, edited by H. Reeve, 1855; *Memoirs of Bulstrode Whitelocke*, by R. H. Whitelocke, 1860; Wood, *Athenæ Oxonienses*. [C. H. F.]

Whitgift, John (*b.* 1530, *d.* 1604), Archbishop of Canterbury, was born at Great Grimsby, and educated at Cambridge, and became Master of Trinity in 1567. Having early become a zealous advocate of the Reformed doctrines, he would have been compelled to quit England during the Marian persecution, had he not been protected by his friend Dr. Perne. After the accession of Elizabeth, Whitgift soon acquired great reputation as a preacher, and in 1573 was made Dean of Lincoln, subsequently obtaining the see of Worcester in 1576. In 1583 he accepted the primacy of England in succession to Archbishop Grindal, and at once set himself to remedy the abuses caused by his predecessor's leniency. He issued articles for the regulation of the Church of extreme severity, and took active measures against the Puritans whom he had formerly attacked in his answer to Cartwright's *Admonition* (q.v.). On the death of Sir Thomas Bromley in 1587, the post of Lord High Chancellor was offered to the archbishop, but refused by him to his great honour. In 1595 he drew up the famous Lambeth Articles, and on the death of the queen endeavoured to win the favour of her successor, an attempt in which he succeeded admirably, owing to his politic flattery of James. Though nominally president of the Hampton Court Conference in 1604, he delegated most of his duties to Bishop Bancroft, owing to his old age, and died shortly afterwards of a paralytic stroke. Mosheim says of him, "He was disinterested, consistent, single-minded, liberal, and discerning above most men. His great natural blemish was hastiness of temper. This, however, he corrected by a spirit so thoroughly considerate and forgiving that his friends rather apprehended from him undue lenity. When principle was at stake he would make no compromise. In secular politics he did not interfere, usually retiring from the council board when it was unoccupied by ecclesiastical affairs."

Strype, *Memorials* and *Life of Whitgift*; Camden; Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops*; Neal's *Puritans*, Mosheim, *Ecclesiast. Hist.*

Whithern (or Candida Casa) was the capital of the district subsequently known as Galloway, and is said to have been the see of St. Ninian, who in 397 built a church there, which he dedicated to St. Martin of Tours. About 730 the Northumbrians founded a bishopric here under Pecthelm, but the line of Anglic bishops came to an end with Beadulf in 803.

Widdrington, Sir Thomas (*d.* 1664), was a member of an ancient Northumberland family, and was elected member for Berwick in 1640. He took a prominent part on the Presbyterian side against the bishops, but finding subsequently that the Independents were the rising party, he joined them, and in 1648 was made one of the Commissioners of the Great Seal. He refused to take any part in the king's trial, but in 1651 was made one of the Council of State. He was in favour of making the young Duke of Gloucester king under restrictions, but this advice was not relished either by the Cromwellian or Republican factions. Cromwell reappointed him to his commissionership, but on his refusing to assent to the proposed reforms in Chancery, he was removed from office in 1655. He was chosen Speaker of the Parliament of 1656, in which capacity he presented the Humble Petition and Advice to Cromwell, and strongly advocated his assuming the royal title. In 1658 he was made Chief Baron of the Exchequer, and in 1660 Commissioner of the Great Seal, which office he held till the Restoration. He owed his rise in great measure to his having married a sister of Lord Fairfax.

Wight, The Isle of (called by the Romans Vectis, and in *Domesday Book* Wict and Wiht), was conquered by Claudius in A.D. 43, and subsequently had to submit to raids from Cerdic the Saxon and the Danes. Earl Godwin, after his banishment by Edward the Confessor, made a descent on the island in 1052. After the Conquest William allotted the island to William Fitz-Osbern, who was created Lord of the Isle of Wight. Fitz-Osbern built the greater part of Carisbrooke Castle. The island was temporarily held by the French just after the accession of Richard II., and was frequently plundered by them down to the reign of Richard III. In the reign of Henry VI. it was allotted to the Earl of Warwick, who received the title of King of the Isle of Wight, and on the accession of Edward IV. it passed to Earl Rivers, whose successors, the Woodvilles, were Captains of the Isle of Wight for several generations. The first governor of the island was the Earl of Pembroke, appointed by the Long Parliament. He was succeeded by Colonel Hammond, to whom Charles I. repaired after his escape from Hampton Court During the imprisonment of the king at Carisbrooke, and subsequently at Hurst Castle, the complicated negotiations and intrigues between the king and Parliament were carried on chiefly at Newport.

Worsley, *History of the Isle of Wight.*

Wiglaf, King of Mercia (825—838), succeeded Ludecan. In the early part of his reign he was conquered by Egbert, and compelled to pay tribute to Wessex.

Florence of Worcester.

Wihtgar (*d.* 543?) was one of the invaders of Wessex (514), and is said to have

been a nephew of Cerdic. Together with his brother Stuf, he assisted Cerdic and Cynric against the Britons, and they received the Isle of Wight in 534 as a tributary kingdom. From him Carisbrooke (Wihtgaresbyrig) is supposed to derive its name.

Wihtred, King of Kent (692—725), was son of Egbert and brother of Edric. After the death of the latter in 687 (?) there seems to have been an interregnum till 692, when Wihtred, having purchased peace from Wessex, was chosen king. His reign was successful, and he is spoken of as "an admirable ruler, an invincible warrior, and a pious Christian."

Anglo-Saxon Chronicle.

Wilberforce, William (*b.* 1759, *d.* 1833), a member of an old Yorkshire family, was educated at St. John's College, Cambridge, where he formed a close friendship with Pitt. On leaving Cambridge, he was returned to Parliament for Hull, his native town. He at once opposed North, especially in regard to the American War. But on Pitt becoming Prime Minister, he exerted all his powers in support of the struggling government; and at the general election in 1784, he was identified with the Tories, and chosen to represent his native county against all the influence of the Whig families. In Parliament he strongly supported Pitt's measures for Parliamentary Reform. In 1787 he first mentioned in Parliament the subject of the slave trade, with which his name is most familiarly associated, and in the next year proposed a resolution pledging the House to take the subject into consideration. After a long series of preliminary struggles, Wilberforce, in 1791, proposed to prevent the further importation of African negroes into the colonies. The bill was rejected by a majority of seventy-five votes. The next year he proposed a measure for gradually educating the negroes, so that they might at length be fit to be emancipated. This was passed; and from that time forward Wilberforce persevered in order to obtain the total abolition of the trade. His efforts were at length crowned with success. What his friend Pitt had found impossible to achieve, the Whig administration of 1807 accomplished with little difficulty, with only sixteen dissentient voices, a triumphant result, which was no doubt in some measure due to the opportune appearance of a book by Wilberforce on the subject. Already in 1797 he had acquired considerable celebrity as an author by a book discussing the contrast between the practice and profession of English Christianity, especially among the upper classes. After the abolition of the English slave trade, he was not satisfied at the result of his exertions, but still strove for its universal extinction by all countries. But his efforts were not entirely confined in this particular channel. He took an active part in miscellaneous questions, and gained a very conspicuous place in Parliament, both by his own genius and singularly captivating oratory, and by his entire independence of party. An instance of this may be seen in his conduct with regard to Lord Melville, whose refusal to render an account of public moneys he criticised sharply, in spite of his friendship for Melville's patron, Pitt. In 1812 he retired, on account of ill-health, from the representation of Yorkshire, which had at six successive elections triumphantly returned him, and in 1825 he retired altogether from Parliament. He lived on in broken health for eight years more, and died in 1833. "Few persons," said Lord Brougham, "have ever either reached a higher and more enviable place in the esteem of their fellow-creatures, or have better deserved the place than Wilberforce, whose genius was elevated by his virtues, and exalted by his piety."

Life of Wilberforce; Stanhope, *Life of Pitt;* Lord Russell, *Life of Fox; Life and Opinions of Earl Grey;* Lord Brougham, *Statesmen of the Reign of George III.*

Wilfred (or Wilfrith), St. (*b.* 630? *d.* 709), was educated at the court of Northumbria and, taking holy orders, went to Rome in the year 654, and on his return became tutor to the son of Oswiu, King of Northumbria, from whom he received the monastery of Ripon. At the Synod of Whitby he powerfully supported the Roman views, and was appointed to the archbishopric of York. He then passed over into Gaul, to Ægilbert, Bishop of Paris, but during his absence Chad was appointed to York, and Wilfred, when he returned, found himself obliged to retire to Ripon. In 669, however, Chad resigned York to him, and Wilfrid held it till 678. He, however, again quarrelled with the Northumbrian king, and was driven out, his vast diocese, which comprised the whole Northumbrian kingdom, being divided into the bishoprics of York, Lindisfarne, and Hexham. Wilfrid, after spending some time among the heathens of Friesland, went to Rome to appeal to the Pope. He obtained a papal decree in his favour, but it was disregarded. Unable to obtain restitution of his see, he visited the heathen South Saxons, and converted them. At length, in 687, a portion of his diocese was restored, and he was established at Hexham, but was again driven out in 691, and spent several years in Mercia. In 702 or 703 he made another journey to Rome, obtained another decree in his favour in 705, and passed the remaining years of his life as Bishop of Hexham. He died at Oundle in 709. He was buried in the monastery of Ripon.

Eddius, *Vita Wilfridi* in Gale, *Scriptores,* i. 40; Bede, *Hist. Eccles.;* Wright, *Biograph. Brit. Liter.*

Wilkes, John (*b.* 1727, *d.* 1797), the son of Israel Wilkes, a rich distiller, was born on

Oct. 17, 1727. Early in life he was persuaded to marry a rich heiress, whom he treated with much cruelty and neglect. In the gayest and most vicious society of a gay and vicious age, he soon became conspicuous by the brilliance of his wit, and his reckless debauchery. In 1757, after being previously rejected at Berwick, he bought himself a seat at Aylesbury. In June, 1762, with Churchill's help, he started a periodical, known as the *North Briton*. In it he cleverly managed to suit the popular sentiments of the time, and especially pandered to the general indignation against Bute, and the animosity felt towards the Scotch nation. On April 23, 1763, appeared "Number 45," which attacked the royal speech at the close of the late session. Grenville signalised his entrance into office by arresting Wilkes under a general warrant. After being examined before Lords Halifax and Egremont, the Secretaries of State, he was sent to the Tower, from which he was soon released in virtue of his prerogative as a member of Parliament. He then retired to Paris. On the meeting of Parliament in November, a resolution was passed, declaring No. 45 to be "a false, scandalous, and malicious libel;" and it was also resolved that privilege of Parliament does not extend to the case of writing and publishing seditious libels. Being prevented from obeying an order of the House to attend in his place, he was expelled in his absence. The peers went further; and, on the information of Lord Sandwich, who had himself been a partner in nearly all Wilkes's vices, ordered prosecution to be instituted against him on account of a work entitled *An Essay on Woman*, of which thirteen copies only had been printed, and those for private circulation. Wilkes knew that the Court of King's Bench, under the presidency of Lord Mansfield, would decide against him, and preferred to be condemned in his absence. The sentence passed on him was outlawry, and for four years he remained abroad. In Feb., 1768, he ventured again to appear in London, and in the conspicuous position of candidate for the City. He was defeated in the City, but at once announced himself as a candidate for Middlesex. He was welcomed with acclamations by the electors, and carried by an overwhelming majority. The outlawry was at length reversed; but on the original charge Wilkes was ordered to pay a fine of £1,000, and sentenced to imprisonment for twenty-two calendar months. In Nov., 1768, Wilkes addressed a petition to the House, in which he claimed his privilege against further imprisonment. This was disallowed. In the February following, his expulsion was voted, and a new writ was issued for Middlesex. The electors, however, again elected him. The Commons replied by a decision that Wilkes having been expelled was incapable of being returned to the same Parliament, and that his election was null and void; but the electors of Middlesex again returned him by a majority of 800 over the court candidate, Colonel Luttrell. The House now decided that Luttrell ought to have been elected. A petition against his election was lodged; but the House was not to be convinced by the arguments of Grenville, Wedderburn, and Burke, and confirmed his election. In January, 1770, Dowdeswell twice attacked the resolution of the Commons in a substantive motion, and the protest was annually renewed by Sir George Savile, only to meet with a contemptuous rejection. At length, in 1774, the Parliament was dissolved; and Wilkes was returned again for Middlesex, while he held the office of Lord Mayor. The contest was not re-opened, Wilkes was allowed to take his seat, and he now bent all his efforts to have the resolution which had declared his incapacity expunged from the journals of the House "as subversive of the rights of the whole body of electors." Year after year he proposed his motion, but it was not till May, 1782, when the Rockingham government was in power, that all the declarations, orders, and resolutions on the Middlesex election were expunged from the journals. Thus at length, by his firm conduct, Wilkes had obtained from Parliament a clear recognition of the right of every constituency to return the member of its choice. But in the meantime he had been waging another contest with the same body. The right of reporting the debates of the House had been always denied by Parliament, and had been watched with cautious jealousy, and the printers who issued reports of debates were prosecuted. Wilkes took up their cause, and was backed by all the strength of the City authorities, and the contest finally took the form of a struggle between Parliament and the City, in the course of which the Lord Mayor Crosby, and Alderman Oliver, both members of the House, were in March, 1771, committed to the Tower. The House, however, shrank from a new contest with Wilkes, who was the chief offender. The imprisoned members were released on the prorogation of Parliament, and the contest thus ended in the defeat of Parliament. As a Parliamentary speaker Wilkes was an utter failure, and never carried any weight in the House. The electors of Middlesex still stood by him as long as he chose to ask for their suffrages. His cheerful disposition was not affected by the change in his position, and he was never happier than in the society of his dearly loved daughter. At length, "reconciled to every reputable opponent, from the king downwards," he died at the close of 1797.

Almon, *Memoirs of Wilkes; Grenville Papers;* Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.;* Trevelyan, *Early Life of C. J. Fox; Parliamentary History; Annual Register.*

William I., King of the English (Dec. 25, 1066 — Sept. 9, 1087). This, the most

masterly spirit of the most masterly race of his time, was a grandson, alike of Richard the Good, Duke of Normandy, and of Fulk, the tanner of Falaise, and was born at Falaise in 1027 or 1028. The tanner's daughter, Harlotta, or Herleva, is said to have caught the eye of the duke's son as she was washing linen; an irregular union followed, which lasted through the remainder of Robert's life and brief tenure of the duchy (1028—1035). Of this union William, famous as the Bastard, and a daughter, Adelaide, afterwards Countess of Ponthieu, were the issue. After her lover's death, Herleva wedded a noble Norman, Herlwin of Conteville, and bore him two children, Odo and Robert, who were both to share in the greatness of their half-brother. Odo became Bishop of Bayeux and Earl of Kent; Robert, Earl of Mortain and of Cornwall. William was barely eight years old when his life entered the domain of history. In 1035 his father died at Nicæa, as he was returning from Jerusalem. Before leaving Normandy, Duke Robert had persuaded his chief nobles to swear allegiance to the lad as heir to the duchy, and they now nominally kept their word. William became Duke of Normandy, but his first twelve years of rule were such as few princes have been called on to face, as only a rarely-gifted boy could live through. The Norman nobles threw off all governance; despising the child-duke and his guardians, they did what was right in their own eyes; they waged private war, and plotted against and killed one another as if no central authority existed. The other members of the ducal family, resenting the preference of a bastard to one of themselves, made their young kinsman the constant mark of murderous designs, and William had more than one miraculous deliverance out of their hands. His friends were few and weak; even the French king, Henry, who owed his crown to William's father, turned against him, and robbed him of an important frontier fortress, Tillières. His boyhood was one of unceasing mortifications, anxieties, treacheries, perils, and alarms, but redeemed by one reassuring experience, the touching fidelity of his guardians and humble friends. Two of these were poisoned, and one laid down his life to save his young master's. This was Osbern, who held the door of William's sleeping-room in the castle of Vaudreuil against a sudden inburst of armed men seeking his life, and, before falling dead, had won him the time needed for his escape. Then his maternal uncle, Walter, took up the task of self-devotion, patiently keeping watch over his steps, and sheltering him from harm, till his character had begun to show its natural strength, and Ralph of Wacey, an honourable kinsman, had accepted the post of guardian. The ground was now somewhat firmer under William's feet; at fifteen he was able to give his earliest proof of a capacity for bridling anarchy by wresting Falaise Castle from a rebellious vassal. His independent career began in 1047 in a very striking manner. The lawless spirits of the Cotentin, where the Danish blood and temper still abounded, had risen in rebellion, surprised the castle of Valognes, where William was lying, and forced him to flee for his life through the darkness of the night. Not long afterwards he met them with the most loyal of his vassals and his reconciled lord, the French king, at Val-ès-dunes, near Caen, and beat them utterly, crushing the revolt at a single blow. Then, as generally through his life, he treated his vanquished rebels with singular clemency. Thus firmly fixed in his ducal seat, he proceeded to achievements that gained him a European fame before he ever drew sword in England. He established law and order throughout his duchy, adding such correctives to the prevalent feudalism as might make a strong central government possible. His measures met with a stubborn resistance, and over and over again he reduced to submission the ungovernable among his subjects. With the hereditary foe of his house, Geoffrey Martel of Anjou, he resolutely grappled, and in 1049 recovered Alençon, and snatched Domfront from him, departing at the former place from his accustomed lenity by striking off the hands and feet of thirty-two of its defenders, who had beaten hides over their walls in scornful reference to his origin. He took the first step towards his conquest of England by visiting King Edward, his childless kinsman, in 1051, and receiving from him the assurances, necessarily vague, that he afterwards gave out to have been a promise of the succession to the kingdom. In 1053, apparently, he took to wife, despite Pope Leo's inhibition, his cousin, Matilda of Flanders, Count Baldwin's daughter, whom he had loved for four years. The papal ban under which he then fell was not removed till 1060; and religious and charitable foundations were erected by him and his wife as the prescribed atonement for their defiance of the Church. His growing greatness then gave offence to his suzerain, King Henry, who twice led an army into Normandy to clip the wings of his power. On the first occasion (1054) one of his two invading columns was surprised and routed by Robert of Eu at Mortemer, whereupon the other made all haste to get home again. On the second (1058), just when his force had been halved by the rising tide of the Dive, near Varaville, William came down upon the hinder half thus isolated, and cut it in pieces, scaring Henry not only into a swift retreat, but also into the making of a peace that restored Tillières, and proved lasting. By this time the duchy had increased considerably at the expense of its neighbours, especially of Anjou, and in the wisdom of its rule and general prosperity outdistanced most other states. In 1063 William made his great Continental acquisition in the conquest of Maine,

upon which a compact with its last count, Herbert Wakedog, gave him a claim, but which the resistance of a part of the people obliged him to reduce by force of arms. Next year he made war on Conan of Britanny with complete success. This was probably the expedition on which Harold of England, an impressed guest, was his companion, and after which Harold took the oath that Norman writers declare to have pledged him to uphold the duke's claim to the English throne: for the greatest crisis of William's life, and one of the greatest in European history, was approaching.

Early in 1066 it came. Edward of England died on Jan. 5, and the vacant throne was at once filled by Harold. William felt himself overreached, and lost no time in making himself even with his ready rival, and vindicating his position as a candidate for the English crown. He proceeded to seek material and moral support from every quarter that could supply either, won over the Pope, won over his unwilling subjects, drew to his banner swarms of volunteers from surrounding lands, and thus gathered round his cause not merely a noble host of fighting men, but the general sympathy of Europe. On Sept. 28 he landed at Pevensey, marched to Hastings, and on Oct. 14 decided Harold's fate, his own, and England's, at the terrible fight of Senlac. It was his battle in every sense; above all earthly forces, it was his own skill, ready resource, and prowess that gave him the victory. His subsequent movements made him master of the south-eastern counties; at Berkhampstead he was offered, and accepted, the kingdom, and on Christmas Day he was crowned at Westminster. Thus he became a conqueror. But the task of completing and securing his conquest still lay before him, and it cost him four years of rarely exampled vigilance, toil, and endurance. After a long visit to Normandy in 1067, he was recalled thence to deal with risings of his new subjects. He won Exeter, and subdued the western counties; marched to Warwick, and brought the Earls Edwin and Morcar, who had rebelled against him, to their knees, entered York, and subdued the northern counties. Next year (1069) he had to confront a general outburst of the west, midlands, and north, and a great Danish invasion, but by wise management and indomitable valour he overcame both insurgents and invaders. He found arguments that persuaded the Danes to withdraw, scattered the rebels, or drove them before him, stormed York, while the men of the west sank under the blows of his captains. On the authority of later writers he is said to have utterly laid waste, and practically depopulated all northern England, but this seems to be a heightened way of describing a thing that, in its broader features at least, is not above question. A winter march upon Chester, across a country impassable to an army less resolutely led, finished the work of conquest (1070). But other work remained. The Church was more firmly linked to the centre of western Christendom; its administration was separated from the general, of which it had hitherto been a part; the ranks of the clergy were strengthened by the preferment to high place among them of foreign genius and learning, such as was Lanfranc of Pavia and Bec, and an impulse given to the building of churches after a grander type. Rules of law, not inequitably fitted to the wants of a mixed population, were framed and established; a strict execution of justice was everywhere enforced, and trading in slaves was forbidden. Edgar the Atheling was conciliated, and became one of William's most favoured courtiers. The stubborn mind of Hereward was overcome; he is thought to have even taken service under William. Conqueror as he was, William strove hard to prevent the Norman yoke being excessively galling to the conquered. But he had still much fighting to do, both abroad and in Britain. Abroad he had, in 1073, to recover rebellious Maine, with a force that was in a large measure English, to suppress a rising of his son Robert against him, to counteract the enmity of Philip of France and Fulk of Anjou. At home he saw reason to invade Scotland in 1071; and, marching as far as Abernethy, made a peace there with King Malcolm, and in 1075, during one of his absences, the Earls of Hereford and Norfolk, whose feudal instincts he had curbed, rebelled, but were defeated by Lanfranc. For his part in this affair Waltheof died on the scaffold. William's greatest deed was his last, the compilation of Domesday Book, accomplished in 1086. Sorrows came upon him in later life; his son Richard was killed in the New Forest; in 1083 his wife, Matilda, died; his brother, Odo, entered into intrigues that forced William to throw him into prison. On Sept. 9, 1087, his own busy and brilliant career came to a close. Philip of France had once more picked a quarrel with him; this exploded in war, in the course of which Mantes was burnt, and William received a mortal injury by a fall from his horse. Borne to the priory of St. Gervais, near Rouen, he there died. He was buried in his own foundation of St. Stephen's in Caen. William was a man of extraordinary power and of many virtues, intellectual and moral, a certain greatness of soul being the chief. To Englishmen his value has been principally this—he was the founder of strong government in England. We must bear in mind that his best known title is now misleading; "conqueror" in his days meant merely "acquirer," a gainer of possessions in any other way than by regular process, such as inheritance. Strictly speaking, William III. was also a conqueror.

Freeman, *Norman Conquest*. All other works on William the Conqueror have been superseded

by Professor Freeman's elaborate and exhaustive history, *The Norman Conquest of England.* [J. R.]

William II., King (*b.* 1060, *s.* Sept. 26, 1087, *d.* Aug. 2, 1100). William the Red (Rufus) was the third son of the Conqueror and Matilda of Flanders. He was the Conqueror's favourite son; for he had never swerved from his filial obligations, and had shown his father a seemingly sincere affection. He was, moreover, a young man of good parts and steadfastness—knowing well, and always acting upon, the distinction between substance and shadow. Nor did his vices develop early. It is nothing surprising, then, to be told that when the elder William lay upon his dying bed, he expressed a wish that this most dutiful of sons should have England after his death; he is said to have even given Rufus a letter to Lanfranc, recommending his cause to the influential primate's support. With this, William at once hastened to England. There was much in the situation to discourage him. Most of the barons would have preferred his eldest brother, Robert, and Lanfranc himself was undecided at first. The primate's indecision, however, soon gave way; he may have concluded that the strong-tempered William, despite his faults, would probably be a more effective king than the easy-natured Robert, when feudal anarchy was the most menacing evil; at any rate he secured the crown for William. But he made conditions. These were, that William should swear to maintain justice and mercy throughout the kingdom, to defend, against all, the peace, freedom, and security of all churches, and to comply with his instructions and counsels in and through all things. William took the prescribed oaths with the utmost readiness; and seventeen days after the father's death, and possibly after observing some form of election, Lanfranc crowned the son. A few months later a powerful section of the nobles, discontented at the separation of the kingdom from the duchy (of whom Odo, now released and restored to his earldom of Kent, Roger, Earl of Shrewsbury, William of St. Carileph, Bishop of Durham, were the chief), took up arms with the design of reuniting the two countries by making Robert king; and a force sent by Robert crossed to Pevensey to their aid. By Lanfranc's advice William threw himself on the support of the native English, solemnly promising them better laws, lighter taxation, and other good things; and the English, urged on by expectation and St. Wulfstan, crowded to his standard. Their success was complete. The invaders were driven back from Pevensey over the sea; Rochester was taken after a dogged siege; and when Odo perfidiously renewed the strife, William once more called the natives to his help, commanding all those who did not wish to be branded as *nithing* to join him. They joined him in flocks; and Odo was chased with ignominy from the land. But William soon forgot his promises. And the death of Lanfranc, in 1089, left him uncontrolled. His subsequent career was marked by selfishness and wanton tyranny, moderated only by occasional fits of sickness. The Church in particular felt his grasping hand. The revenues of vacant sees and abbeys were seized, and, to further enrich the crown, the vacancies were deliberately prolonged. It was his policy to deal with clerical exactly as with lay fees, to get the entire Church organisation into his power, and make it a perpetual feeder of his own revenues. In Anselm, however, whom he had nominated to the see of Canterbury in 1093, after four years' vacancy, when he was prostrated at Gloucester by a dangerous illness, he found an uncompromising adversary. The meek primate stoutly withstood all William's efforts to enslave the Church and degrade the clergy; he carefully avoided every trap that William laid in his path to surprise him into an admission of an authority over the Church, or doing anything that had the appearance of simony; a prolonged quarrel ensued; the Council of Rockingham failed to reconcile the two; and Anselm went into exile for a time. Then William had his unrestrained will. His confidential adviser and instrument was the notorious Ranulf Flambard, the Justiciar, who earned much infamy in his service by the zeal and callousness with which he executed his purposes. The Danegeld was revived; in 1094 the *fyrd* of the kingdom was marched down to Hastings, and dismissed on payment of ten shillings a man*; not a pretence that ingenuity could suggest for extorting money was overlooked; the forest law was mercilessly enforced. The nobility of the Conquest also suffered grievously; gaps were made in their ranks, and forfeitures were frequent. No class escaped oppression. In 1091 he carried the war against Robert into Normandy, then combined with him to despoil Henry, and succeeded. He took Cumberland from the King of Scots in 1091, settled a southern colony there, and refounded Carlisle. In 1095 he took advantage of Robert's eagerness to get away on the first Crusade to make a keen bargain with him for the administration of Normandy and Maine. He afterwards suppressed with astonishing promptitude a rebellion in Maine. On Aug. 2, 1100, he was accidentally killed in the New Forest by an arrow that was originally despatched by his own or some unknown hand. William Rufus was the most graceless of all our early kings, was irreligious, greedy, and utterly devoid of principle. He was, however, a man of excellent mental gifts; and was a sayer of sharp sayings, chiefly cynical.

Freeman, *Reign of William Rufus.* [J. R.]

William III., King of England and

* The contribution of his shire to his maintenance in the king's service.

Prince of Orange (*b.* Nov. 4, 1650, *s.* Feb. 13, 1689, *d.* Mar. 8, 1702), was the son of William II., Prince of Orange, and Mary, daughter of King Charles I. of England. He was born a few days after his father's death, and his youth was passed under the jealous guardianship of the aristocratic party in the Netherlands, headed by John de Witt. His exclusion from the Stadtholderate was suggested by Cromwell, and agreed to by the States (1654). William received but little education, but early showed great interest in political and military questions, and in the doctrines of Calvinism. From a child he was weak and sickly. His chief and almost only amusement was the chase. At the age of fifteen he was deprived of his personal attendants by the jealous government. He took a part in the Councils of State at eighteen. The French invasion changed this state of affairs. The De Witts were murdered by the populace; and William, who neglected to punish the murderers, became the head of the government. In 1672 he took command of the army, recovered Naerden, and took Bonn. Louis XIV. thereupon confiscated his principalities and gave them to the Count of Auvergne. During the next four years he fought the French without much success. He was defeated by Condé at Senef (1674), and failed in his attempts to take Oudenarde and Maestricht (1676); he was driven back at Cassel, and compelled to raise the siege of Charleroi. Nevertheless the Dutch had already elected him Stadtholder, Captain-General and Admiral-General, and extended the offices to his descendants (Feb., 1674). Charles II. of England determined thereupon to marry him to his niece Mary, daughter of James, Duke of York. After some deliberation on the part of William, the marriage took place (Nov., 1677), and a scheme was formed for an alliance with England which the States-General declined to ratify. Aided by the English he attacked Marshal Luxemburg near Mons with some success, but the news of the conclusion of the Treaty of Nimeguen caused him to suspend operations (1678). We next find him planning a great European combination against Louis XIV. A scheme was on foot for making him the future Protector of England (1681). He attempted to mediate between Charles II. and his Parliament, and proposed a congress for the settlement of all questions at issue in Europe (1683). On the accession of James II. the Prince of Orange drew nearer to him, although steadily opposing his Romanising schemes. He opposed Monmouth's rash attempt on the crown, advising him to go and fight the Turks; and although the blunders of the States-General permitted his departure for England, William sent back the English regiments which were in the Dutch service. His attention was now entirely absorbed by his design of uniting the nations of Europe in resistance to Louis XIV., and he rejected all ideas of an invasion of England to which he was urged by Mordaunt. He saw that his claims would clash with those of his wife. Still the Romanising schemes of James II. gradually made him the head of the English Opposition. He wrote to the king strongly recommending the withdrawal of the Declaration of Indulgence. In 1686 he sent his envoy Dykvelt to England to confer with the leading statesmen. He was now completely estranged from James II., who was much annoyed by the publication at this time of William's views concerning the Indulgence. On the birth of the young Prince of Wales William sent his congratulations to James. In May, 1688, Edward Russell went over to Holland to sound the prince, but received a guarded reply. In August he received an invitation to England, signed by seven leading men, which he accepted. Great difficulties lay before him. He was afraid of the veto of the States-General, and of the alienation of the Catholic powers. James's treatment of the clergy, and importation of Irish troops to England, removed his difficulties there. Having completed his preparations William issued a declaration, in which he declared his intention of going to England with an armed force as husband of the heiress of England. After being driven back by the winds, he landed at Torbay (Nov. 5). At Exeter he was joined by many influential personages, and James was deserted by the army at Salisbury. William advanced towards London, and negotiations were opened between him and the king. James, however, resolved to fly, but was stopped by some fishermen and returned to London. William's position was now extremely difficult, but he was greatly relieved by the final escape of James to France. The Convention, which met on Jan. 22, 1689, declared the throne vacant, and after passing the Declaration of Right (q.v.), caused William and Mary to be proclaimed King and Queen of England (Feb. 13, 1689). The reign may be said to be roughly divided into two parts by the Treaty of Ryswick (1697), during the first of which William was engaged in active resistance of Louis XIV., while the second is modified by the Spanish Succession question. William's first ministry was of a mixed character. War was declared against France in May. In Ireland the native race showed every inclination to hold out for King James, who betook himself thither. Londonderry was besieged, but relieved by Kirke, and the battle of Newton Butler gave William the advantage for the time being. Meanwhile in Scotland the crown was offered to William (April 11). Dundee, however, raised the Highlanders in favour of James, and won a battle, but lost his life at Killiecrankie. Mackay, by his victories at St. Johnstone's and Dunkeld, concluded the war. At home, party quarrels reached a great height, but

Parliament passed the Bill of Rights. Next year William determined to go to Ireland and relieve Schomberg. He won the battle of the Boyne (July 1), but was compelled to raise the siege of Limerick and return home. The English fleet had been disgracefully beaten at Beachy Head. In 1691 Ginkell concluded the Irish war by taking Athlone, winning the battle of Aghrim, and besieging Limerick. The Pacification of Limerick settled the Irish question for a time. At home Preston's Plot was discovered and thwarted. Abroad, though unsuccessful in the field, William greatly strengthened his great coalition by the Congress at the Hague. Early in 1692 Marlborough's intrigues with the Jacobites in France were discovered, and he was dismissed from his offices, and in consequence the Princess Anne quarrelled with the queen. The massacre of Glencoe (Feb. 13) must ever remain a stain on the memory of William III. The projected invasion of England was thwarted by Russell's great victory off La Hogue (May 19). William was defeated by Marshal Luxemburg at Steinkirk in August. In Parliament Montague's financial ability re-established the Land Tax, and started a loan which proved the origin of the national debt. Military and naval affairs were unfortunate in their results in 1693. The loss of the Smyrna fleet was followed by the defeat at Landen in July. William, disgusted with party quarrels, determined to form a united Whig ministry. The year 1694 is important from a financial point of view. The Bank of England was established, and the East India Company's charter renewed. The disclosure of the venality in connection with the East India Company compelled the Tories, Sir John Trevor and Carmarthen, to retire from office. The naval events of the year are unimportant, although Marlborough's treachery had resulted in the destruction of the expedition against Brest. The Triennial Act, which had previously been vetoed by William, passed in December. In the same month Queen Mary died of small-pox, and William was almost heart-broken at her loss. In the next year William was successful in his operations against Namur, which surrendered in August. The year 1796 opened successfully with the re-establishment of the currency. The Tory Land Bank, however, proved a failure, and the money required by the king was furnished by the Bank of England. The discovery of Berwick's Plot, and the infamous Assassination Plot, created great enthusiasm, and an association was formed for the protection of the king. The chief business of the session was the trial and attainder of Sir John Fenwick, who was executed in the following January. The ministry was now completely Whig. The war with France was concluded by the Treaty of Ryswick (Sept., 1697). William was deeply mortified by the successful introduction of the bill for the reduction of the standing army. The Irish Parliament of this year passed several statutes of a highly penal nature. In 1698 Montague formed a General East India Company as a rival to that already existing, but the scheme was eventually a failure. An attempt to settle the Spanish Succession question resolved itself into the First Partition Treaty (Oct. 11). The Tory party, now very strong, succeeded in carrying a bill which necessitated the dismissal of the Dutch guards. The king, deeply mortified, formed the intention of abandoning England, and was only dissuaded by the prayers of Somers. The majority in the Commons severely attacked the measures of the late ministry, their favourite objects being Montague and Russell. They also "tacked" to the Land Tax Bill a clause empowering commissioners to inquire into the disposal of forfeited lands in Ireland. William in anger prorogued Parliament (May 4, 1698). Discontent in Scotland reached a high pitch when certain news arrived of the utter failure of the great Darien scheme. The Resumption Bill was passed in April, 1700, greatly to the annoyance of William and at the risk of a permanent breach between the two Houses. Meanwhile the diplomacy of William had brought about the Second Partition Treaty. It was not well received in England. William now dismissed his old ministry, and relied on an entirely Tory administration, which passed the Act of Succession necessitated by the death of the young Duke of Gloucester, the heir to the throne. The Commons hurried on impeachments against the late ministry on account of their share in the Partition Treaties, which, however, proved abortive. The Kentish Petition and the Legion Memorial proved at the same time that popular feeling was on the king's side. He ventured, therefore, to prorogue Parliament (June, 1701). He went to Holland, and there consolidated the grand alliance between England, Holland, and the Emperor, directed against the evident intention of Louis XIV. to seize the Spanish throne for his grandson. Soon afterwards James II. died and the French king acknowledged the Pretender as King of England (Sept. 6). This thoroughly roused English patriotism, and loyal addresses poured in on all sides. William, who had returned in ill-health in November, accordingly seized the opportunity to summon a new Parliament. It was of a far more Whig temper than its predecessor. The "pretended Prince of Wales" was attainted of high treason, and an abjuration oath made necessary for every employment in Church and State. But William's days were numbered. On Feb. 20 he fell from his horse and broke his collar-bone. He gave his assent to the Succession Act, and surrounded by his old friends breathed his last on March 8 (1702). "Wherein," says Ranke, "lay his greatness? It lay in the

position he took up and steadily maintained; in the world-wide historic results, some of which he himself achieved in his lifetime, while of others he only laid the foundations, or advanced them a stage. . . . The most important question of the day, and that of the highest importance for the future of mankind in Europe, was the rise of the French monarchy to universal preponderance, which threatened the independence of every country and every race. The living impulse, then, which determined King William's career, sprang out of his opposition to this already domineering and over-grasping power. If this was to be carried through, no political or theological party attitude was to be thought of. To have brought a coalition of heterogeneous elements into existence, and to have successfully opposed it to the overwhelming might of France—this is the historic achievement of William III. No one was ever cleverer at building up confederations and holding them together, or in commanding armies of the most various composition without arousing national antipathies; no one knew better how in contests at home to await the right moment, to give way, and yet to hold fast."

Clarendon, *Correspondence*, 1689 — 1690; Echard, *Hist. of the Revolution*; Burnet, *Hist. of his Own Time*; Luttrell, *Relation of State Affairs*; Kennet, *Hist. of Eng.*; Macpherson, *State Papers*; Ralph, *Hist. of Eng.* The standard modern account is Macaulay's *Hist. of Eng.*, of which William III. is the hero. The brilliant pages of the Whig historian may be usefully supplemented, by a reference to Ranke's learned and impartial *Hist. of Eng. in the Seventeenth Century*, to Hallam's sober and judicious *Const. Hist.*, and to Martin's *Hist. de France*.

William IV., King (*b.* Aug. 21, 1765, *s.* June 26, 1830, *d.* June 20, 1837), was the third son of George III. At the age of thirteen he was entered as a midshipman on board the *Prince George*, a ninety-eight gun ship. In 1779 he saw active service under Rodney, and served his time as a midshipman in cruising vessels on the West Indies, and off the coasts of Nova Scotia and Canada. He served under Lord Keith on the North American station, under Lord Hood off the Delaware River, and under Nelson upon the Leeward Island station. Between the latter commander and himself a strong and lasting friendship grew up. In 1785 he received his lieutenant's commission. In 1786 he was appointed captain of the *Pegasus*. In 1787 he sailed for the West Indies as commander of the *Andromeda* frigate. In 1790 he was made rear-admiral of the blue by order in council. On May 19, 1789, he was created Duke of Clarence and St. Andrews and Earl of Munster, and on June 8 following took his seat in the House of Lords. In 1811 he was made admiral of the fleet, and in 1814 hoisted his flag to convoy Louis XVIII. of France to his kingdom. During the earlier part of the same year he was present as an amateur before Antwerp, and distinguished himself by his coolness and courage. A marriage was negotiated for him with the Princess Adelaide Louisa, daughter of the Duke of Saxe-Coburg Meiningen. They were married at Kew, 1818, and shortly after proceeded to reside in Hanover, Parliament having granted on the occasion an accession of only £6,000 to the duke's income. The duchess had two daughters, who both died almost immediately. At the prosecution of Queen Caroline (1820) the Duke of Clarence supported the bill of pains and penalties. On the death of his brother, the Duke of York (1827), he became heir presumptive to the crown, and received an accession to his income, which raised it to £40,000 a year. On April 17, 1827, he was appointed Lord High Admiral. His conduct in the office was eccentric, and after much friction with the Lords of the Admiralty, he insulted one of them (Sir George Cockburn) and had to resign the office (1828). At the death of George IV. the Duke of Clarence, from a position of comparative obscurity, succeeded to the throne (June 26, 1830). In the presence of the Privy Council assembled on that day, according to custom, the new king, with marked emphasis, expressed to the Duke of Wellington his entire approval of the way in which his grace had carried on the government hitherto. Nevertheless, he was at first favourable to Reform, but the disturbances at home and the fall of Charles X. of France frightened him, and in the crisis of May, 1832, when the Lords were preparing to reject the bill a third time, he would not consent to create new peers, and allowed the Grey ministry to resign. But the failure of Wellington to form a ministry convinced him that the feeling of the nation was emphatically in favour of the bill. He used his personal intercession with the peers to induce them to pass the bill, and was even prepared to "swamp" the House of Lords with new peers if the advice was rejected. The bill, however, was carried, and followed by the other reforming statutes which have made William IV.'s short reign an eventful period in modern English history. The king liked neither the Whig ministers nor their policy, and in 1834 (Nov. 15) he exercised his prerogative, and suddenly dismissed Lord Melbourne and his colleagues. But the Peel ministry was hopelessly weak, and in 1835 (April) the king found it expedient to recall Lord Melbourne to his councils. William IV., though not greatly distinguished for talent and character, was a kindly and good-natured man, with the courage and firmness of his race, if also with its hereditary obstinacy. "He would have passed," says Mr. Walpole, "in private life for a good-natured sailor."

Walpole, *Hist. of Eng. from 1815*; Greville,

Memoirs; Molesworth, *Hist. of the Reform Bill*; Hansard, *Debates*.

Williams, John, Archbishop of York (*b.* 1582, *d.* 1650), was a member of an old Welsh family, and, after a brilliant university career, received many valuable preferments in the Church, being at length made Dean of Westminster in 1620. He was also one of the royal chaplains, and high in favour both with James I. and Buckingham. In 1621 he was made Lord Keeper of the Privy Seal, in which office his great ability and industry supplied the place of early legal training, and in the same year was appointed Bishop of Lincoln. But Buckingham's favour did not last long, and by his influence Charles I. removed Williams from his office in 1625. Laud also was a great antagonist of his, and through his influence Williams was condemned in 1637 to pay a heavy fine, be imprisoned, and suspended from his ecclesiastical functions on the charge of having revealed the king's secrets, and tampered with witnesses. In 1640 he was released, and soon regained the king's favour by supporting the cause of the prerogative and episcopacy, and in 1641 was advanced to the archbishopric of York. Soon after this he was insulted by the mob, and on protesting with the other bishops against their being thus excluded from Parliament, he was sent to the Tower. After the outbreak of the Civil War he zealously assisted the king, both with money and advice, and is said to have mourned sincerely for his death. His character is very unfavourably painted by Clarendon. He is said by this writer to have been "of a proud, restless, and overweening spirit, a very imperious and fiery temper, and a very corrupt nature." On the other hand, Mr. Foss, summing up his character, comes to the conclusion that he was "though too much of a temporiser, honest and sincere, and generally wise in the advice which he offered, and to the monarchs whom he served he was faithful and true."

Hacket, *Life of Williams*; Foss, *Judges of Eng.*; Masson, *Life of Milton*.

William Clito (*d.* 1128) was the eldest son of Robert of Normandy. After the battle of Tenchebrai he was placed under the care of Helie de St. Saen, who guarded him most loyally against Henry's attempts to seize him. His claims were supported by the French king and Fulk V. of Anjou, the latter of whom affianced his daughter Sibyl to him. The victory of Henry at Brenneville (1124) destroyed his hopes, and he had to content himself with claiming the country of Flanders, to which he had succeeded by the failure of the male line. He had almost succeeded in making himself master of the country when he was pierced by a lance while besieging the town of Alost, and died in 1128.

William the Lion, King of Scotland (1165—1214), son of Prince Henry and Ada de Warenne, succeeded his brother, Malcolm IV., as King of Scotland (1165). Having failed in obtaining the restoration of Northumberland from the English king, he listened eagerly to the proposals of Prince Henry of England, and in 1173 hurried to the north of England, whence, however, he was driven back by Richard de Lucy and Humphrey de Bohun. The following year he again invaded England, took several castles, and laid waste the country. He was taken prisoner at Alnwick (July 13), and thence hurried with every symptom of indignity before Henry at Northampton. The English king sent his royal prisoner to Falaise in Normandy, where, in December, 1174, a treaty was concluded acknowledging the supremacy of England over Scotland, and making all Scotchmen the vassals of the English king. This subjection lasted until Richard I. restored Scottish independence for the sum of 10,000 marks in 1189. On William's release after the Treaty of Falaise, he found himself compelled to quell an insurrection in Galloway, and to subdue Ross a few years later (1179). In 1181 a fresh insurrection, due partly to dissatisfaction at the Treaty of Falaise, broke out in the north in favour of Donald Bane MacWilliam, and lasted six years, during which time William was also at variance with the people of Galloway. In 1188 an abortive conference was held at Brigham between the King of Scotland and the Bishop of Durham as the representative of Henry II. In 1196 William took Caithness from the Norwegian Earl Harold, but restored it to him on payment of a sum of money (1202). The suppression of another insurrection under Godfrey MacWilliam, in Ross (1211), was the closing act of William's domestic troubles. William in the early part of his reign had quarrelled with Pope Alexander III., who placed his kingdom under an interdict, which was, however, removed by Lucius III. in 1182; in 1203 he expressed his satisfaction at the interdict laid by Innocent III. on England, owing to the unsatisfactory nature of an interview he had with John at Lincoln in Nov., 1200. From this time for twelve years England and Scotland were frequently on the point of coming to blows owing to John's persistence in attempting to build a castle at Tweedmouth to overlook Berwick. In 1212, however, a close alliance was made between the two kings at Durham. In Dec., 1214, William died at Stirling, leaving behind him a reputation for energy of character and impetuosity. It was his constant endeavour to carry out the policy of his grandfather David. He left Scotland in a far more advanced state of feudalism than his predecessor had done. William married Ermengarde de Bellomonte.

Williams, Sir Roger (*d.* 1595), one of the bravest soldiers of Elizabeth's reign,

served in the Netherlands under Sir John Norris and the Earl of Leicester, the latter of whom treated him exceedingly badly from jealousy of one who had so distinguished himself. In 1587 the Prince of Parma in vain endeavoured to induce Sir Roger to quit his allegiance, and enter the Spanish service.

Willoughby OF PARHAM, WILLIAM, LORD (*d.* 1666), was for some time connected with the Parliamentary party. After the execution of Charles I. he joined the Royalists, and in 1650 went out to Barbadoes, where in the following year he defeated an expedition under Admiral Ayscue, who had been sent out by Cromwell to punish the Royalist proclivities of the Barbadians. He was soon afterwards compelled to return to England, where, after the Restoration, he obtained substantial marks of favour from Charles II. In 1663 he returned to Barbadoes as governor, and in the following year took St. Lucia. Two years later he perished in an expedition against Guadaloupe.

Willoughby, ROBERT, LORD, was a distinguished military commander of the fifteenth century. In 1415 he was present with Henry V. at the siege of Harfleur, and the battle of Agincourt. In 1418 he was at the siege of Rouen, and in 1424 at Verneuil. The following year, in company with Sir John Fastolfe, he defeated the French and relieved Alençon. In 1428 he accompanied Cardinal Beaufort in his expedition to Bohemia. Returning, he again took part in the French war, assisted at the capture of St. Denis and Pontoise in 1435, and was charged with the defence of Paris in this year. He was obliged to surrender the capital in April, 1436. One of his last exploits was the defeat of the French at Amiens, in 1441. The date of his death is uncertain.

Willoughby OF BROOK, ROBERT, LORD (*d.* 1508), was a zealous adherent of the house of Lancaster. As a distinguishing mark of Henry's gratitude for his past services, Sir Robert Willoughby was raised to the peerage during the sitting of Henry's first Parliament in 1485, under the title of Lord Willoughby of Brook. In 1488 he was given the command of the English force sent to the aid of the Duke of Britanny in 1488, and in 1497 relieved Exeter when besieged by the Cornish rebels.

Wills, THE STATUTE OF (1540), was explained and re-enacted in 1543. Its object was to remove the restrictions imposed under the Plantagenets, on the testamentary power over freehold land. It provided, therefore, that any one being seized in fee simple and being a person capable of making a will, might devise to any other person, except to bodies corporate, two-thirds of their lands and tenements held in chivalry, and the whole of those held in socage. On the abolition of chivalry after the Restoration, this practically included all landed property except copyhold tenements.

32 Henry VIII., cap. 1, and 34 & 35 Henry VIII., cap. 5.

Wilmington, SPENCER COMPTON, LORD (*d.* 1743), a son of the Earl of Northampton, was chosen Speaker of the House of Commons in 1715. He was a favourite of George II. while Prince of Wales; and on the prince's accession he was commissioned to form a ministry. Walpole, however, gained over the king by proposing to increase the civil list; and Queen Caroline's influence was employed in his favour. Compton could not even draw up the speech from the throne, and had to apply to his rival for assistance. He saw that his power was gone, and soon accepted the position of President of the Council, with a peerage as Lord Wilmington. He gave a lukewarm support to Walpole, and remained neutral when, in 1741, Mr. Sandys' motion that he should be removed from the king's council was brought forward. On the fall of Walpole in January, 1742, Pulteney, who refused the premiership, proposed Wilmington as First Lord of the Treasury and nominal head of the government. He retained most of the old ministers. The only incident in his brief administration was the committee of inquiry against Walpole [WALPOLE]. "He was," says Stanhope, "respectable in his public, regular in his private, character . . . but the seals of office were too heavy for his hands."

Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.*; Coxe, *Walpole.*

Wilson, SIR ARCHDALE (*b.* 1803, *d.* 1874), entered the Bengal army 1819, served at the siege of Bhurtpore (1825—26); commanded the artillery as lieutenant-colonel in the Jullundhur Doab in 1848—49, and rose through various grades to brigadier-commander of the Bengal artillery at Meerut (1857). Here the Indian Mutiny (q.v.) first broke out, and here Wilson gained the first victory over them. On June 7 he joined Sir H. Barnard at Alipore, and on the latter's death succeeded to the command of the army besieging Delhi. On the 20th Delhi surrendered to him. Wilson subsequently commanded the artillery at the siege of Lucknow. For these services he was thanked by both Houses, made in succession a Companion, Knight-Commander, and Grand Cross of the Bath, granted a pension of £1,000 a year by the Company, and created a baronet.

Wiltshire, THOMAS BOLEYN, EARL OF (*d.* 1539), was the father of the ill-fated Anne Boleyn. When first made aware of the king's passion for his daughter, he does not appear to have given Henry's wishes any sort of encouragement. On the contrary, when the king, after breaking off the courtship

then going on between Anne Boleyn and Lord Henry Percy, visited him suddenly at his house at Hever, Sir Thomas Boleyn, though fully aware of the real object of Henry's visit, did not give him any opportunity of seeing or conversing with his daughter. In course of time, however, both he and his daughter yielded to the king's perseverance, and Sir Thomas, in view of his future greatness as father-in-law of the king, was made successively Viscount Rochford and Earl of Wiltshire. [ANNE BOLEYN.]

Wiltshire, WILLIAM LE SCROPE, EARL OF (*d.* 1399), was the son of Richard le Scrope, Chancellor of England. He was highly in favour with Richard II., who made him his treasurer, and created him Earl of Wiltshire in 1397. He was one of the king's chief advisers during the latter years of his reign, and on the landing of Henry of Lancaster in 1399, he was seized at Bristol and beheaded without trial.

Wiltshire, JAMES BUTLER, EARL OF (*d.* 1461), was the son of the Earl of Ormonde, and was created Earl of Wiltshire by Henry VI. He was a staunch Lancastrian, and fought for that party in the first battle of St. Albans, at Wakefield, Mortimer's Cross, and Towton. After this last engagement he was captured by the Yorkists and beheaded at Newcastle.

Wimbledon, EDWARD CECIL, LORD (*d.* 1638), an admiral who is chiefly known to history as having in 1625 commanded a disastrous expedition against Cadiz, which was to form part of a general attack on Spain, planned by Charles I. and Buckingham. The appointment proved very unfortunate. The crews were raw and the officers quite incompetent. Lord Wimbledon failed to destroy the shipping in the harbour of Cadiz, and was soon compelled to re-embark, owing to the disorderly behaviour of his crews. After having allowed the Plate fleet from the West Indies to escape him, he returned to England. On the return voyage pestilence, due to bad food, broke out, but Buckingham's influence saved Cecil from punishment.

Winchelsey, ROBERT (*b. circa* 1245), Archbishop of Canterbury 1294—1313, was born at Winchelsea, and after a most distinguished academical career, during which he was successively Rector of the University of Paris and Chancellor of Oxford, he was elected to the archbishopric. Not long after his appointment Boniface VIII. issued the famous Bull *Clericis Laicos*, forbidding the payment of taxes to the king by the clergy without the leave of the Pope; Winchelsey gladly availed himself of the excuse to decline to allow any more great grants of Church revenue to the king. The contest with Edward I. was a protracted one, the clergy refusing to pay were outlawed, and the possessions of the see of Canterbury seized, but a compromise had to be made. The archbishop showed that the papal prohibition did not apply to money required for purposes of national defence, and offered to do his best to obtain a grant from the clergy if the king would confirm the Charters. This was agreed to, and in 1297 and 1300 the Charters were confirmed, in the latter case certain important articles being added to them. In 1301 Winchelsey again quarrelled with the king. The circumstances are doubtful, but it would seem that the archbishop was accused of treason, and of plotting to dethrone Edward in favour of his son. In 1305 the archbishop was formally accused and summoned to Rome, nor did he return again till after the death of Edward I. During Edward II.'s reign we find him opposing Gaveston, and doing what he could to restrain the excesses of the young king. Winchelsey was eminent as a scholar and a divine, and famous for his charity and piety; but in public affairs he attempted to play the part of Langton, for which he was unsuited, and for which there was no necessity. His policy was also complicated by the foolish arrogance of Boniface, and by the determination of Edward. By his want of tact and steadiness, the archbishop alienated both the king and the Pope.

Rishanger, *Chronicle;* Freeman, *Essay on Edward I.;* Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, and *The Early Plantagenets;* Hook, *Archbishops.*

Winchester (the GWENT of the Celts, and VENTA BELGARUM of the Romans) was probably an important town before the Roman invasion. It was conquered by the Saxons under Cerdic in 519, and became the capital of the West Saxon kingdom in the seventh century. In 662 it was made the seat of a bishopric. In 860 it was taken by the Danes. During the later West Saxon and Danish period it was very frequently the centre of government for England, and the place where the Witenagemots was held. In 1141 it was burnt during the war between Stephen and the Empress Maud, and was the place where the treaty between the two powers was concluded (1153). In June, 1216, it was taken by Louis the Dauphin. In 1265 it was sacked by Simon de Montfort. In 1285 the important *Statute of Winchester* was passed here by Edward I. The cathedral begun by Cenwealh in 643, and completed in 984, was rebuilt in the eleventh century, and reconstructed by Bishops Wykeham, Beaufort, and Waynflete in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. The college was founded by William of Wykeham in 1393. In March, 1644, Waller inflicted a defeat on the Royalists at Clinton Down near Winchester. On Oct. 6 of the following year it was captured by Cromwell, and the castle was demolished; on the site of this fortress a palace was begun in 1683, but was left unfinished.

Winchester, Sir William Paulet, Marquis of (*b.* 1476, *d.* 1572), Lord St. John of Bassing (1539), Earl of Wiltshire (1556), and Marquis of Winchester (1551), "the crafty fox with a fair countenance," was Treasurer of the Household to Henry VIII., and one of the judges at the trial of Anne Boleyn. By the will of the king he was appointed one of the Council of Regency, and became President of the Council. As a firm supporter of the Protector Somerset, Paulet succeeded Wriothesley as Lord Keeper (March 7, 1547), but only held the office till October, when, owing to his incompetence as a judge, he was succeeded by Lord Chancellor Rich. On Somerset's fall he joined the party of the Earl of Warwick and actually presided as Lord High Steward at the duke's trial in the year 1551, pronouncing sentence of death upon his benefactor. For some time he remained a supporter of Warwick, but his leaning towards the Catholic religion, together with the instinct of self-interest, gradually enlisted his sympathies on the side of the Princess Mary, though after her accession he continued in opposition to Gardiner and the persecuting party. At the age of eighty-four, Lord Winchester obtained the office of Lord High Treasurer to Queen Elizabeth, an office which he held until his death.

Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Tytler, *Reigns of Edward VI. and Mary*; Foss, *Judges of England.*

Winchester, The Statute of (1285), was one of those enactments by which Edward I. sought to remodel and improve upon the legislation of Henry II. This statute was intended to place the military system on a better footing, and reorganises the watch and ward. It revived and developed the military and police action of the hundred, the hue and cry, the watch and ward, the *fyrd* or militia of the counties. The Assize of Arms, with its provisions that every man should keep armour and weapons proper to his condition, is re-enacted. The statute, in fact, attempts to restore the ancient and popular military system of the English, which had lasted through the Conquest. "It is," says Dr. Stubbs, "a monument of the persistence of primitive institutions, working their way through the superstratum of feudalism, and gaining strength in the process."

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, ii. § 179; and *Select Charters.*

Winchester, The Annals of the Monastery of, extend from A.D. 519 to A.D. 1277. The first part is, as usual, meagre, and from 1066 to 1267 the compiler relies on the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, Matthew Paris, and other obvious sources of information. The last part is contemporary, but even then the interest is chiefly of a local nature. The annals have been edited by Mr. Luard in the second volume of the *Annales Monastici* in the Rolls Series.

Windebank, Sir Francis (*d.* 1646), son of Sir Thomas Windebank, was educated at St. John's College, Oxford, where he took the degree of B.A. in 1601. He became Clerk of the Council, and was, by the influence of his old friend, Laud, appointed Secretary of State (June, 1632). He was the king's agent in the secret negotiations with Spain in 1634, the intermediary between Charles and the papal agent, Panzani, and one of the committee of eight entrusted with Scotch affairs (1639). In May, 1640, he applied to the Pope's agent, Rossetti, for money and arms to be employed against the Scots. On the assembly of the Long Parliament he was attached for non-execution of the penal laws against the Catholics, and fled to France (Dec. 10, 1640), where he died.

Windham, William (*b.* 1750, *d.* 1810), was educated at Eton and Oxford. His first appearance in politics was at a meeting of the county gentlemen of Norfolk in 1778, where he spoke with much vigour against a proposal to subscribe to aid the government in carrying on the war against the American Colonies. In 1782 he was returned to Parliament for Norwich, and very soon made himself conspicuous, and he was in the following year appointed Chief Secretary to the Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, which place he resigned within four months, on finding that it required the employment of acts which he felt to be dishonourable. He became very intimate with Burke and Dr. Johnson, and although at first, like all the Whigs, he hailed with joy the outbreak of the French Revolution, yet in 1793, horrified by the later outrages of the movement, he took Burke's view of it, and was a warm advocate of the policy which Burke wished to see adopted towards the Revolutionary government. In the following year he went on a mission to the Duke of York, who was in command of an expedition in Flanders, and was in the same year appointed Secretary at War, with a seat in the cabinet. He followed Pitt out of office in 1801, nor did he again take office until, after Pitt's death, he became Secretary at War and of the Colonies in the administration of "All the Talents." On their dismissal, Windham too returned to opposition, and remained in that position until in Jan., 1810, he died of a tumour produced by his extraordinary endeavours to rescue a great library from flames. "In him were strangely mingled a zealous love of literature, and an ardent passion for field sports of every kind. And so genial were his manners that in spite of his liberal views he was almost as great a favourite with the king as he was popular with the nation at large." Of his position as a speaker and a statesman, Sir E. May says, "Superior to Sheridan in education and attainments, and little inferior in wit, he never achieved successes so dazzling;

yet he maintained a higher place among the debaters of his age. Though his pretensions to the higher qualities of a statesman were inconsiderable, and his want of discretion and temper too often impaired his unquestionable merits in debate, his numerous talents and virtues graced a long and distinguished public life."

Lord Colchester, *Diary*; Pellew, *Life of Sidmouth*; Buckingham, *Memoirs of the Court of the Regency*; May, *Const. Hist.*

Window Tax, The, was first imposed in 1695 by the Act 6 & 7 Wm. III., c. 18, and was frequently re-imposed, notwithstanding its injurious effect in offering an obstacle to good ventilation. It was repealed and the house-tax substituted for it in 1851.

Windsor Castle appears to have been first regularly used as a royal residence by Henry I., although there seems to have been a fortress there previous to the Conquest. To Henry I.'s building, Henry III. made several additions; but it was in the reign of Edward III., under the designing hand of William of Wykeham, that the castle as we now know it began to rise. St. George's Chapel was rebuilt by Edward IV., its architects being Richard Beauchamp, Bishop of Salisbury, and after his death in 1481, Sir Reginald Bray, architect of Henry VII.'s Chapel at Westminster. Elizabeth formed the terraces, and erected or altered the gate known by her name. Charles II. erected the Star building, which was afterwards Gothicised by James Wyatt. Traces of Sir Christopher Wren are to be found in the edifice, but his plan of rebuilding the south side of the Upper Ward was not carried out. St. George's Chapel, which was much injured by the Puritans in 1648, was re-decorated in 1787—90. Of late years no additions of much importance have been made.

H. Ashton, *Illustrations of Windsor Castle*; W. H. Dixon, *Royal Windsor.*

Wingfield, Sir Anthony, Vice-Chamberlain to Henry VIII. (1547), was named in the king's will one of the council who were to govern during the minority of Edward VI. He bore a leading part in the measures taken against Protector Somerset.

Winter, Sir William, Admiral, was in Dec., 1559, sent to the Firth of Forth by Elizabeth to do any damage he could to the French. The queen, as was her wont, commissioned him to act on his own responsibility, being thus enabled to disavow his actions in case of failure. On his arrival in the Firth he managed to provoke the French to attack him, and retaliated by seizing Burntisland, which had been occupied by the enemy, and destroying some of their vessels. Had his successes at sea been backed up by energetic action on the part of the land forces, Leith would have fallen at once. In 1569 Winter commanded an expedition to La Rochelle, which brought supplies to Condé, and in 1580 did good service on the Irish coast, being present at Smerwick. He is credited with having originated the plan of sending fire-ships amongst the Spanish vessels, which proved so destructive to the Armada. The mixture of caution and dashing courage which he displayed, together with his steadfast loyalty, made him one of the most valued servants of Elizabeth, and he well deserved Cecil's praise—"of Mr. Winter all men speak so well, I need not mention him."

Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*; Barrow, *Naval Worthies.*

Winton, Gregory of, was a monk of St. Peter's, Gloucester. His (as yet unprinted) *Annales*, which extend from A.D. 681 to A.D. 1290, are chiefly of local interest.

Wintoun, Andrew of, a Scotch annalist, lived about 1400. His *Originale Cronykil of Scotland*, printed in 1795, is a valuable source of information for early Scottish history.

Winwæd, The Battle of (655), between Penda of Mercia and Oswy of Northumbria, resulted in the defeat and death of the former. The place is, probably, Whinmoor, near Leeds, the river Winwæd being identical with the Aire.

Wishart, George, was one of the Protestant preachers who incurred the wrath of Cardinal Beaton. He was tried at St. Andrews, and burnt (1546). He is said to have entered thoroughly into the plot for assassinating the cardinal.

Wishart, Robert, Bishop of Glasgow, was one of the Scotch commissioners (1289) who tried to arrange for the marriage of the Maid of Norway and Prince Edward. He joined Wallace's party in 1297, but a few months later negotiated the treaty by which many of the Scotch nobles made submission to Edward. In 1303 he was exiled for two years, but the next year recovered Edward's favour. He counselled the English king to hold a general assembly of the Scotch nation at Perth in 1304, and to appoint commissioners to regulate the government of Scotland. He was continually taking oaths of fealty to one side or another, and breaking them. Having sided with Robert Bruce in 1306, he was taken prisoner in the same year at Cupar in Fife, and imprisoned at Nottingham.

Witenagemot, The, means the meeting or council of the wise men (*Witan*), and in Anglo-Saxon times was the highest council in the land. The theory that the Witenagemot was an assembly to which every freeman had a right to come (as he undoubtedly had to the shire-mote) is scarcely tenable. We have little evidence of any such right beyond the fact that at certain national crises, as at the exile of Godwin in 1051, or on sudden Danish invasions, and even at the election of a new

king, a tumultuous concourse of spectators attended the meetings of the Witan, and shouted applause or disapprobation of the proposals made. But this right, if it existed, must have been purely theoretical. Whatever claims the Witenagemot has to the position of a national council rest upon the fact that it contained the official leaders of the nation, both in Church and State. But it was primarily a royal council. It consisted of "the king, sometimes accompanied by his wife and sons; the bishops of the kingdom, the caldormen of the shires or provinces, and a number of the king's friends and dependants. These last generally describe themselves as *ministri*, or king's thegns, and numbered amongst themselves no doubt the chief officers of the household, and the most eminent of the persons who, in the relation of *gesith* or *comes* to the king, held portions of folkland or of royal demesne, and were bound to him by the oath of fealty. Occasionally a *præfectus* or *gerefa* appears in the early charters; he is probably the *heah-gerefa* or high-steward of the household. . . . Under the later kings a considerable number of abbots attest the charters." Thus the Witan were a small body of men, of high position, and all closely connected with the administration. The tendency was towards the increase of the king's thegns, who at the end of the West Saxon period outnumber all the other members of the council. Probably the Witenagemot met at regular intervals, and at fixed places, but in the absence of exact dates it is impossible to speak with certainty about this. With regard to the functions of the Witan Mr. Kemble has laid down twelve canons on the subject as follows:—(1) They possessed a consultative voice, and a right to consider every public act which could be authorised by the king. (2) They deliberated upon the making of new laws which were to be added to the existing folk-right, and which were then promulgated by their own and the king's authority. (3) They had the power of making alliances and treaties of peace, and of settling their terms. (4) They had the power of electing the king. (5) They had the power to depose the king if his government was not conducted for the benefit of his people. (6) They had the power with the king of appointing prelates to vacant sees. (7) The king and the Witan had also power to regulate ecclesiastical matters, appoint fasts and festivals, and decide upon the levy and expenditure of ecclesiastical revenues. (8) The king and the Witan had power to levy taxes for the public service. (9) The king and his Witan had power to raise land and sea forces when occasion demanded. (10) The Witan possessed the power of recommending, assenting to, and guaranteeing grants of land, and of permitting the conversion of folkland into bookland and *vice versa*. (11) The Witan possessed the power of adjudging the lands of offenders and intestates to be forfeit to the king. (12) The Witan acted as a supreme court of justice both in civil and criminal causes. Thus the Witenagemot was a supreme council for deliberation, administration, and assent, as well as for judicial and taxative purposes. Its real power naturally varied inversely with that of the king. "Under a strong king," says Bishop Stubbs, "many of these claims are futile; the whole public land seems, by the eleventh century, to have been regarded as at the king's disposal really if not in name; the sheriffs, caldorman, and bishops are named by the king; if he be a pious one, the bishops are chosen by him with respect to the consent of the diocesan clergy; if he be a peremptory one, they are appointed by his determined will. But the powers of legislation and taxation are never lost, nor does the king execute judgment without a court which is in name and in reality perhaps a portion of the Witenagemot." It may also be added that the power of election tended to become formal, and that the power of deposition was very seldom exercised. After the union of the kingdoms, the crown remained in the West Saxon family, and ordinarily went by hereditary descent, though in all cases a formal election was made, and though in several cases an uncle of full age was preferred to the infant son of the deceased sovereign. The elevation of Canute to the throne is an exception, but his title rested rather on conquest than on election, so that the election of Harold II. remains the sole instance of the Witan freely electing a king outside the royal house. Of deposition, there is likewise but a solitary instance after Egbert, that of Ethelred II. in 1013.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, chap. vi.; Gneist, *Verwaltungsrecht*; Kemble, *The Saxons in England*; Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, vol. i., appendix Q; Waitz, *Deutsche-Verfassungs Geschichte*; Schmid, *Gesetze der Angelsachsen*.

[S. J. L.]

Wolfe, General James (*b.* 1727, *d.* 1759), entered the army at the age of fourteen, and was present at the battles of Dettingen (1742), Fontenoy (1745), and Lawfeldt (1747). He first attracted Pitt's notice in 1757, when a combined military and naval expedition was despatched against Rochefort under Admiral Hawke and General Mordaunt. In 1758 he served under General Amherst at the siege of Louisbourg on Cape Breton Island. In 1759 Pitt entrusted him with the attack on Quebec (q.v.). Wolfe captured the town, but died at the moment of victory. [Quebec.]

Wolseley, Field-Marshal Garnet Joseph, Viscount, was born in 1833, served in the Burmese (1852–53) and Crimean Wars, in the Indian Mutiny and the Chinese War. In 1869 he was appointed to the command of the Red River Expedition, and in 1873, as major-general, commanded the troops in the Ashantee War. Upon his return General

Wolseley was thanked by Parliament, and a grant was conferred upon him. In 1875 he was sent to administer Natal, and in 1876 became a member of the Council of India. In 1878 he was appointed High Commissioner in Cyprus, and in 1879 returned to Natal as governor, and reduced Secocoeni to submission. In 1882 he commanded the Egyptian expedition, won the victory of Tel-el-Kebir, and was rewarded by a barony. In Sept., 1884, he led the expedition to Khartoum for the relief of General Gordon, and was made a Viscount. In 1890 he became Commander-in-Chief of the army in Ireland, field marshal in 1894, and in 1895 Commander-in-Chief of the British army, for a term of five years.

Wolsey, Thomas, Archbishop of York (*b.* 1471, *d.* 1530), was the son of a wealthy Ipswich butcher. Educated at Magdalen College, he obtained his degree when barely fifteen; and, as a consequence, became familiarly known among his university associates as the "Boy Bachelor." In virtue of this early proficiency Wolsey soon succeeded to a Magdalen fellowship, and was shortly afterwards appointed master of the school attached to his college. Among his pupils at this school were the sons of the Marquis of Dorset, who presented Wolsey, in Oct., 1500, to the living of Lymington, in Somersetshire. Here Wolsey is said to have on one occasion played so unbecoming a part in his parish revelries as to bring upon himself the degradation of the stocks, and to have been compelled to abandon his living. By this time, however, he had made many influential friends, and through the interest of some of these he obtained the post of secretary and domestic chaplain to Henry Deane, Archbishop of Canterbury, which he continued to hold till the death of the primate in 1503, when he secured an appointment in the chaplaincy at Calais. The strong common sense Wolsey displayed in the discharge of his duties caused him to be appointed one of the chaplains to the king. Wolsey soon secured the notice and friendship of Bishop Fox, the Lord Privy Seal, and of Sir Thomas Lovel, the Treasurer of the Royal Household. He was thus speedily selected for the transaction of Henry's more confidential business; and so highly appreciated were his diplomatic services at the courts of Germany and Scotland, that the king, some two months before his death, conferred upon him the deanery of Lincoln (1509). While, however, Wolsey's tact and energy were a strong recommendation of him to a keen judge of men like Henry VII., his wit, gay humour, and varied personal accomplishments made him the indispensable companion of that monarch's successor; and his upward progress under Henry VIII. was rapid and brilliant. Soon occupying the position of almoner to the king, and of a royal councillor, Wolsey received in quick succession the living of Torrington, in Devon, the registrarship of the Order of the Garter, a Windsor canonry, and the important deanery of York. Accompanying Henry to France in 1513, he was appointed by him to the see of Tournay, which the fortune of war had temporarily placed in English hands; and as compensation for the purely nominal character of this last preferment, Wolsey was promoted in Feb., 1514, to the bishopric of Lincoln, whence he was translated, before the expiration of the year, to the archbishopric of York. In the following year (1515) his English dignities were crowned by the reception of a cardinal's hat from Pope Leo X., with the title of St. Cecilia, an honour which was quickly succeeded by a commission from the pontiff as Legatus *a latere*. About this time, too, his revenues from various sources were still further increased by the gift from the king of the administration of the see of Bath and Wells, and the temporalities of the wealthy abbey of St. Albans; and by the enjoyment, one after the other, of the bishopries of Durham and Winchester. Wolsey's position at Henry's court was now not only one of enormous emolument, but one that carried with it a degree of power and influence more extensive than had ever previously been wielded by a minister of the crown. For several years, indeed, he directed the foreign policy of his country, lending the English support to France and Germany alternately, according as it seemed to suit the varying necessities of his own personal interests, while his supremacy in all that related to the domestic government of the kingdom was only nominally subordinate to that of Henry himself. Difficult and dangerous, however, as was the commanding position to which he had attained with such unexampled rapidity, Wolsey succeeded in holding his place in the king's favour for some considerable time, and his good fortune in this respect was due not only to the watchful tact with which he on all occasions conducted himself in his dealings with Henry, but also partly to the fact that the primary object of his ambition, viz., the reformation and aggrandisement of the English Church, was one for which, in the early period of his reign at least, the king had felt a considerable degree of sympathy. While he impressed the popular mind with the pre-eminent state and magnificence of a Church dignitary, by the every-day pomp of his household arrangements, and by his gorgeous preparations for the reception of his cardinal's hat, he endeavoured to awaken a more permanent respect for the clergy as a body by instituting a series of greatly-needed ecclesiastical reforms. Conspicuous among his measures for purging the Church of some of the more crying abuses into which she had fallen latterly was the suppression of several of the smaller monasteries, and the devotion of the funds thus

obtained to the establishment of Cardinal's College (now Christ Church) at Oxford, and of a new grammar school at Ipswich, designed to serve as a sort of preparatory institution for the university. In his endeavours to raise the social status of the Church, and to make her ordained servants an example to the country of sound learning and morality of life, Wolsey was compelled to make the utmost use of the power at his command. It was his zeal in this matter that led him to hazard a breach of the Statute of Præmunire by accepting the appointment of papal legate from Leo X., for experience speedily taught him that the authority of an ordinary English prelate was quite insufficient to act with any effect against the monasteries and other strongholds of ecclesiastical corruption.

Rapid beyond all comparison as had been Wolsey's rise to the position of the most influential subject in Europe, his fall was fully as sudden and conspicuous. By the indecision he exhibited in the matter of Henry's divorce, he not only lost the king's confidence, but excited against himself the disappointed fury of Anne Boleyn. His enemies, who were many and powerful, were not slow to take advantage of his misfortunes, and to revive popular indignation against him on account of his oppressive taxation and his arbitrary system of government. Prosecuted in 1529 under the Statute of Præmunire, he had to resign the Great Seal and retire to his see of Winchester. This evidence, however, of his lost influence, was not sufficient to satisfy the jealous vengeance of his political rivals; and, though he received several kind messages from the king, his troubles were speedily augmented by his impeachment in the House of Lords. The faithful devotion of Wolsey's servant, Thomas Cromwell, and some lingering remnant of regard in Henry's heart for the once powerful cardinal, caused the bill to be thrown out in the House of Commons; but the Statute of Præmunire was allowed to have its full course, and all Wolsey's property was declared forfeited to the crown. The fallen minister was allowed subsequently to withdraw to his diocese of York; but he was again arrested in 1530 on a charge of high treason. On the way to London to meet his trial he died at Leicester Abbey on Nov. 29, 1530. [Henry VIII.; Cromwell; Cranmer; Anne Boleyn.]

The *State Papers* of Henry VIII., with Mr. J. S. Brewer's invaluable Introductions, give the fullest history of Wolsey's administration and perhaps the fairest estimate of his character. The historians of the sixteenth century. Hall, Holinshed, and Grafton, are of little real value for Wolsey.

Wolverhampton, Henry Fowler, Viscount (*b.* 1830), entered Parliament as member for Wolverhampton in 1880. In 1884 he took office as Under-Secretary of the Home Office; in 1886 he became Financial Secretary to the Treasury, and was sworn of the Privy Council. In 1892 he entered the Cabinet as President of the Local Government Board, and gained great increase of reputation by the skill with which he piloted the complicated Parish Councils Bill. In 1894 he was Secretary for India, and on the fall of the Government in 1895 was created G.C.S.I. He became Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster in 1905, and was appointed Lord President of the Council in 1908.

Wood, Sir Andrew, of Largs, was the first great naval officer Scotland possessed. On the murder of James III. he declared for his son against the council. In 1490 he captured five English vessels with only two of his own; and subsequently took the three ships which had been sent under the command of Stephen Ball to avenge the insult.

Wood, Anthony (*b.* 1632, *d.* 1695), was an antiquarian of great research and industry. He was educated at Merton College, Oxford, and took his B.A. degree in 1652. In 1674 he published his *History and Antiquities of Oxford*, the copyright of which was purchased by the university, a work which was subsequently continued by Gutch in 1786. In 1691 appeared the *Athenæ Oxonienses: an exact History of all the Writers and Bishops who have had their Education in the University of Oxford from 1500 to 1695, to which are added the Fasti, or Annals of the said University.* An attack on Lord Clarendon, contained in this work, procured for its author expulsion from the university, and he was afterwards embroiled in disputes with Bishop Burnet.

R. Rawlinson, *Life of Anthony Wood* (Bliss's edition of the *Athenæ* is the best).

Woodfall, William, a printer, was tried in 1770 for publishing Junius's "Letter to the King." The right of the jury to judge of the criminality of the libel having been denied by Lord Mansfield, they found the prisoner guilty of "printing and publishing only." Lord Mansfield was severely taken to task in the House of Lords for his arbitrary conduct, but the question was not settled until twenty years after, by Fox's Libel Act.

State Trials, vol. xx.

Wood's Halfpence. There was no mint in Ireland in 1722, and there being a want of small coin, and a great deal of base money dating from the times of Elizabeth and James I., a patent for coining copper money was granted to the royal mistress, the Duchess of Kendal, and by her sold to Wood, an English ironmonger. He was to be allowed to coin £108,000 worth of halfpence and farthings, a pound of copper to be coined into thirty pence, for Ireland. In England twenty-three pence only were coined from one pound, but as the cost of transport and an import duty had to be considered, the difference was not really unreasonable. The gains Wood would make were calculated at

£4,000, and no doubt the amount of copper to be put in circulation was excessive, since about £15,000 worth would have been enough. The excitement in Ireland, however, was out of all proportion to the real importance of the matter. The Irish House of Commons absurdly enough pretending that Ireland would lose £150 on every 100 lbs. of copper coined; it was also intimated that the coin as actually issued was debased. Sir Isaac Newton, however, examined it and found it fully as good as was required. In 1723 the sum to be coined was reduced, but in 1724 Swift's *Drapier's Letters* appeared, and all Ireland, including even the Chancellor and the Archbishop of Dublin, was unanimous in refusing the new halfpence. Carteret came over and attempted to prosecute the "Drapier," but the grand jury not only ignored the indictment, but presented all persons who had accepted the new coin. At last in 1725 Walpole gave in to the clamour raised in Ireland, the patent was revoked, and the Irish Parliament passed a vote of thanks to the king. Wood got 3,000 guineas for eight years as compensation from the Irish Pension List, but under a false name.

Swift, *Drapier's Letters*; Lecky, *Hist. of Eng.*; *Leaders of Public Opinion in Ireland*; Coxe, *Walpole*; Craik, *Life of Swift*.

Woodstock, The Assize of (1184), was the great code of regulations relating to the royal forests, issued by Henry II. It was subsequently considerably modified by Magna Charta, and Henry III.'s Charter of the Forest. The Assize of Woodstock is the first formal Act relating to the forests that is in existence. The Act was somewhat less severe than the legislation on the subject under William the Conqueror and Henry I. But the punishment for breaches of this law were heavy, and it was carried out with burdensome rigour. "And this," says Dr. Stubbs, "is altogether the part of his [Henry's] legislation that savours most strongly of tyranny." The Assize carefully preserves the game and wood of the forest, orders a jury of twelve men in each forest county to be chosen for the custody of vert and venison, and requires every person of twelve years and upwards living within the bounds of the forests to take the oath of peace. Death was to be the penalty for a third infraction of the forest laws. [Further information given under Assize of Woodstock.]

The Assize is given in Stubbs, *Select Charters*.

Woodville, Edward, Lord, was a brother of Edward IV.'s wife, and consequently uncle to the queen of Henry VII. He obtained a temporary notoriety in the reign of this latter monarch by his expedition at the head of 400 men to aid the Duke of Britanny in 1488, notwithstanding the king's positive orders against the despatch from England of any expedition with such an object. Besides exciting considerable indignation in France, this proceeding on the part of Lord Woodville had the effect of forcing Henry to adopt a definite position with regard to the dispute between France and Britanny. The news of the French victory at St. Aubin (July 28, 1488), and of the death of Lord Woodville, with the almost total destruction of the small English force which he commanded, raised public feeling in England to an extent which Henry could no longer afford to ignore; and, although there continued to be a secret arrangement with Charles VIII. on the subject, a supply of troops was at once sent to the aid of Britanny. At the time of the ill-starred expedition which ended in defeat and slaughter at St. Aubin, Lord Woodville was Governor of the Isle of Wight.

Woodville, Elizabeth. [Elizabeth Woodville.]

Worcester, Florence of. [Florence of Worcester.]

Worcester, John Tiptoft, Earl of (*d.* 1470), was a strong Yorkist partisan. He held the office of Treasurer in 1452, and early in Edward IV.'s reign was made Constable, and rendered himself odious by his cruelties. He was Lieutenant of Ireland in 1467, and held other important offices. In 1470, on the restoration of Henry VI., he was captured, and beheaded on Tower Hill. He was illustrious for his learning and his patronage of learned men; he translated many works into English, and spent a great part of his life in travel and study.

Worcester, Thomas Percy, Earl of (*d.* 1403), was the younger brother of Henry Percy, Earl of Northumberland, and served with distinction in the French wars. He afterwards become Steward of the Household to Richard II., who created him Earl of Worcester. He joined Henry of Lancaster, but in 1403 took part in his brother's rebellion against him. He fought in the battle of Shrewsbury, where he was taken prisoner, and beheaded two days after.

Worcester, William of (*d. circa* 1480), a physician, wrote the *Annals of England from 1324 to 1468*, which were subsequently continued by another hand to 1491. It has been published by Hearne.

Worcester, The Battle of (Sept. 3, 1651), was fought between the Scottish and Parliamentarians during the unsuccessful expedition of Charles II. to England previous to the Restoration. After the battle of Dunbar and the capture of Edinburgh by Cromwell, Charles made a sudden movement southwards in January, hoping to cut off a portion of the English army, which lay south of the Forth. Cromwell thereupon moved northwards towards Perth, and so left open the way to England. The king promptly hastened across the frontier, and advanced rapidly to

Worcester, which he entered on Aug. 22. There he lay inactively, and allowed Cromwell to overtake him. The Parliamentary army attacked in two divisions, connected by a bridge of boats, Fleetwood on the west bank of the Severn, Cromwell marching on the east bank upon the town itself. Charles first attacked Cromwell, but without success, and he was driven back into the town, where the two divisions of the enemy met, and drove the Royalists through the streets. They made no attempt to rally, and the war soon came to an end.

Carlyle, *Cromwell's Letters.*

Worcester, The City and Borough of, has, perhaps, had a more disturbed history than any town in England. From 894, when it was almost entirely destroyed by the Danes, its annals present a long series of sieges, burnings, and captures. Rebuilt by Ethelred, it was retaken by Hardicanute in 1041. In 1074 it was occupied by the barons of Hereford, and a conspiracy against William crushed. The cathedral, founded by Bishop Oswald in 983 on the ruins of a previous building, was destroyed by fire. It was rebuilt by Bishop Wulstan in 1084, but again suffered twice from fire, and was repaired and reconsecrated in 1280. During the troubles of Stephen's reign Worcester was plundered by the Empress, and besieged by the king, and again by his son, Eustace. Hugh of Mortimer held the castle against Henry II. in 1157. A council was held there in 1240. In Henry III.'s reign it became a stronghold of the baronial party, the king being taken there after the battle of Lewes. Worcester was plundered in 1401 by Owen Glendower, who held it until driven off by Henry IV. In 1642 it was taken by Prince Rupert, but was recovered by the Parliamentarians under Colonel Fiennes in the same year. Lastly, Charles II. was defeated there in Sept., 1651.

Green, *Antiquities of Worcester;* Nash, *Worcestershire.*

Worms, The Treaty of (Sept. 17, 1743), was signed by England, Austria, and Sardinia. After the battle of Dettingen in the War of the Austrian Succession, negotiations for peace were set on foot, but were abruptly broken off owing to the desire of England to carry on the war with France. Accordingly the treaty was signed at Worms on Sept. 13. It was negotiated by Carteret without reference to the ministers at home, and they accordingly refused to ratify a separate and secret convention by which Maria Theresa was to be supplied with a subsidy of £300,000 a year as long as "the necessity of her affairs shall require." The treaty agreed to assure the Pragmatic Sanction and the European balance; the King of Sardinia was to have a yearly subsidy of £200,000 from England, the cession of the Vigevenese from Austria, and the command of the allies in Italy, on condition that he should bring to the field an army of 45,000, and renounce his pretensions to the Milanese. This alliance was met by the League of Frankfurt, of which the most important members were France and Prussia.

Koch and Schoell, *Traités de Paix;* Arneth, *Maria Theresia.*

Wotton, Dr. Nicholas (*b.* 1497, *d.* 1567), was employed by Thomas Cromwell (1537) to arrange the marriage of Henry VIII. and Anne of Cleves. Made Dean of Canterbury and York by Henry, who had a high opinion of his abilities, he was named one of the council of executors appointed by the king's will, and subsequently became a trusted servant of Mary, for whom he discovered the plot of Sir Henry Dudley (1556). In the same year he laid bare a conspiracy to seize Calais, and averted the danger for the moment. In 1558 he was one of the English representatives in the discussion of a proposed peace with France, which took place at Cercamp, and in the following year was present at the negotiations at Cambray, while in 1565 he was sent to Bruges to discuss the subject of the suppression of English pirates who were alleged to be doing great damage to the Spanish shipping. Dr. Wotton was offered the primacy in 1559 before the appointment of Archbishop Parker, but refused it, knowing that he was no theologian, and that "more than administrative ability and knowledge of the world was at this time required in the primate."

Lloyd, *Worthies;* Tytler, *Eng. under Ed. VI. and Mary.*

Wray, Sir Christopher (*d.* 1592), one of the favourite judges of Queen Elizabeth, was an active member of Parliament during the reign of Mary, and up to 1571, when he was chosen Speaker. In 1572 he was made a judge, and two years later became Chief Justice of the Queen's Bench, in which capacity he presided at the trial of Secretary Davison. Sir Edward Coke calls him "a most reverend judge, of profound and judicial knowledge, accompanied with a ready and singular capacity, grave and sensible elocution, and continual and admirable patience."

Foss, *Judges of England.*

Wright, Sir Nathan (*b.* 1654, *d.* 1721), was called to the bar in 1677. He assisted at the trial of the Seven Bishops. In 1697 he was created King's Sergeant. On the dismissal of Somers, he was appointed Lord Keeper of the Privy Seal. In 1702 we find him addressing the commission which had been appointed to frame the union with Scotland. He rendered himself objectionable by his partisanship of the Church. He was restricted to silence in the Upper House, where he performed the duties of a Speaker, for want of a peerage. We find him accused

of leaving out, in his list of the Justices of the Peace, all who were not of Tory politics. He was removed in 1705. Mr. Wyon says of him that "his legal acquirements were below the requisite standard, and his character for meanness and avarice ill-qualified him to preside over the most august assembly in the kingdom." [SOMERS; COWPER.]

Burnet, *Hist. of his Own Time*; Wyon, *Reign of Queen Anne.*

Wright, WILLIAM, a doctor of law, who flourished in the reign of Henry VIII., and is famous as being Henry's first envoy to Rome respecting his projected divorce from Catherine of Aragon. Wright's mission was entirely without any tangible results, and the facts that (1) Clement VII. was at that time a prisoner in the hands of Charles V., and (2) that Henry's ideas on the subject of the divorce had not reached the decided stage they attained a little later, naturally prevented Wright from doing much more than preparing the papal mind for a favourable reception of Henry's wishes.

Writs, PARLIAMENTARY, are addressed to the sheriff of a county directing him to cause to be elected a member or members to the House of Commons in case of a general election or vacancy. They issue upon the warrant of the Lord Chancellor, or, during the sitting of the House, upon the warrant of the Speaker. The first instance of a writ of summons in their later form is in 1213, when the king directed that four discreet men should be returned from each shire *ad loquendum nobiscum de negotiis regni nostri*, and at the same date four men and the reeve were summoned from the township or demesne. It was not until the end of the reign of Edward I. that Parliament assumed its final form, and that the possibility of the merchants and lawyers being summoned as separate sub-estates ceased. Of the other estates of the realm, writs of summons were addressed in the times of Henry III. and Edward I. to a certain select number of hereditary barons, who, in conjunction with the prelates, formed, by the middle of the fourteenth century, the House of Lords. The form of the early Parliamentary writs illustrates very clearly the different functions of the three estates. The magnates are usually summoned *ad tractandum*; the Commons, *ad consulendum et consentiendum*, that is, the latter body are regarded as having inferior powers. Prelates were summoned *de fide et dilectione*; lords temporal, *de fide et homagio* or *de homagio et ligeantia.* Writs of summons to the Commons are important in the qualifications introduced, which vary from the formula "*de discretionibus et legationibus*" of 1275 to the qualification that members should be "*gladiis cinctos*," or belted knights, introduced in 1340. Later changes depend upon the election Acts in force at different periods, such as those imposing a property qualification on electors, and directing the methods of election.

Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, chs. xv. and xx. For specimens of Parliamentary writs, see Stubbs, *Select Charters*, and Palgrave, *Parliamentary Writs*; see also May, *Parliamentary Practice.*

Wroth, SIR THOMAS, was sent to Ireland (1564) as a special commissioner, in conjunction with Sir Nicholas Arnold, to inquire into the complaints which had been made against the English army. He had previously been employed on diplomatic missions in Germany, and had been one of the witnesses to Edward VI.'s "device" for altering the succession in favour of Lady Jane Grey.

Wrotham Heath, THE BATTLE OF (Jan., 1554), resulted in the defeat of the Kentish insurgents under Sir Henry Isley by Lord Abergavenny. Wrotham is a small town near Sevenoaks in Kent.

Wulfhelm, Archbishop of Canterbury 923—942, was translated from Wells. His episcopate saw the commencement of the movement in favour of monasticism and rigid celibacy, which was to agitate the Church in the reigns of his immediate successors.

William of Malmesbury; Hook, *Archbishops.*

Wulfhere, King of Mercia (659—675), was the son of Penda and brother of Peada. On the death of the latter, Oswiu of Northumbria assumed the government of Mercia, but in 659 the Northumbrian yoke was shaken off and Wulfhere proclaimed king. He was successful in his wars against Wessex, and having conquered the Isle of Wight, granted it to Ethelwald of Sussex. He carried on the work of conversion begun by Peada, and founded the bishopric of Lichfield. One of his daughters was St. Werburgh.

Bede, *Eccles. Hist.*; Hook, *Archbishops.*

Wulfred, Archbishop of Canterbury 805—832, was chosen on the death of Ethelhard. "He was," says Dean Hook, "a good, easy, prudent man; equally intent on serving his own family and on improving the property and estates of the chapter and the see." And this is all that can be said of him, for though he held the archbishopric for more than twenty-six years, he did nothing worthy of record.

Florence of Worcester; Hook, *Archbishops.*

Wyatt, SIR THOMAS (*d.* April 11, 1554), was the son of Sir Thomas Wyatt the poet. In Jan., 1554, he became one of the leaders in the rebellion against Mary, though he is said to have had nothing to do with the origin of the plot. The insurrection which was caused by national discontent at the contemplated marriage of Mary with Philip of Spain, had for its object the deposition of the

queen in favour of the Princess Elizabeth and Courtenay, Earl of Devon. Sir Thomas Wyatt was charged with the duty of raising Kent, and so well did he perform his mission, that Kent was the only part of the country where the rebellion assumed at all formidable dimensions. "He excited," says Mr. Lingard, "the applause of his very adversaries by the secrecy and address with which he organised the rising, and by the spirit and perseverance with which he conducted the enterprise." A delay, however, in taking possession of London, proved fatal to Wyatt's success; and after a sharp engagement he found himself compelled to surrender at Temple Bar to Sir Maurice Burkeley. After his capture he implicated Courtenay by his confessions; but though every endeavour was made to extort from him a full revelation, he steadfastly refused to buy his life at the price of an accusation of the Princess Elizabeth, which was what her enemies, with Bishop Gardiner at their head, were labouring to obtain; and at the last moment retracted what he had said concerning Courtenay's guilt.

Stow, *Annals*; Noailles, *Ambassades en Angleterre*; Lingard, *Hist. of Eng.*; Froude, *Hist. of Eng.*

Wycliffe, John, was born about the year 1320, or a little later. Leland, the antiquary, names his birthplace as Ipreswel, or Hipswell, near Richmond in Yorkshire, and states that he derived his origin from the family which held the lordship of Wycliffe-on-Tees. It was this connection plainly that drew him to Balliol College, Oxford, which had been founded by John Balliol, of Barnard Castle, on the borders of Durham, in the preceding century. By an old mistake, Wycliffe has been described as first a commoner of Queen's College, and a confusion (as it appears) with a namesake, makes him fellow and seneschal of Merton. In all probability, however, he remained a member of Balliol until he was chosen master of the college some time after 1356, but not later than 1360. In 1361 he was instituted to the college living of Fillingham, near Lincoln, and shortly afterwards resigned the mastership. He does not appear, however, to have given up his work as a teacher in Oxford, for we find him renting rooms at Queen's College, doubtless with this object, at various dates between 1363 and 1380. But in this interval—if we are to accept a view now nearly universally credited, which rests indeed upon abundant contemporary evidence, but which none the less may have arisen from the confusion above referred to with the other John Wycliffe, of Merton—the future Reformer was nominated by Archbishop Islip in 1365, warden of his foundation of Canterbury Hall, the site of which now forms a portion of Christchurch, Oxford. Wycliffe and three fellows, secular clergymen, were appointed in the place of three monks whose position in the hall had been a source of disturbance; but in 1367 Islip's successor, Archbishop Langham, himself a monk, expelled Wycliffe and the fellows who had entered with him, and substituted regular clergymen. Wycliffe appealed to Rome; judgment was given against him in 1369 and published in 1370, and the sentence was enforced by royal writ in 1372. His living of Fillingham he exchanged in 1368 for Ludgershall, in Buckinghamshire, and in 1374 he was presented by the crown to the rectory of Lutterworth, in Leicestershire, where he remained until his death.

During these years Wycliffe had written a variety of scholastic treatises; then, turning to theology, he had devoted himself in particular to expanding and applying his theory of the divine government, known to us as the doctrine of dominion. He erected a sort of theocratic feudalism where each man "held" of God, without the interposition of any mesne lord, and where "grace" or "charity" was the sole indispensable condition of tenure. When Wycliffe went on to explain that the universal power claimed by the Pope could only belong by right to the "Lord-in-chief," who had never delegated his authority in that sense to man, it was evident that in the *doctrinaire* might be found one able to do good service to his country, especially at a time when England was pressed by demands for tribute to the Pope, and overrun by his emissaries. Accordingly we find that Wycliffe was made chaplain to the king; in 1366 he wrote against the papal claim, and in 1374 acted as one of the royal commissioners at the conference held at Bruges, with the object of settling the disputed question of "provisions." Wycliffe now appears as a hearty co-operator with John of Gaunt, though it should seem that the only point they had in common was a desire to repress the overgrown power of the endowed clergy. Through this connection rather than from any serious charge of incorrect doctrine, Wycliffe was cited by William Courtenay, Bishop of London, a declared opponent of the Duke of Lancaster, to appear before him at St. Paul's in Feb., 1377; but the trial broke up in an undignified quarrel between John, who accompanied Wycliffe, and the bishop. Wycliffe's teaching, however, with regard to the rights of the Church, especially as to the temporalities, had already reached Rome; and a few months later a series of bulls were directed against him by Gregory XI. But the king's death in June delayed their execution, and the attempted action of the Archbishop of Canterbury was thwarted for some time by the independent attitude of the University of Oxford. Meantime Wycliffe published his answer to the papal accusation. At length, in the spring of 1378, he had to appear at Lambeth; but here again the

session was interrupted by an uproar of the people, who resented the intrusion of papal bulls: and Wycliffe was simply forbidden to lecture upon the subjects which had given offence. The Great Schism, however, which began in the same year, exasperated his opposition to the papacy. He went further than before, and ventured to dispute the doctrine of transubstantiation. He turned from the clergy to the commonalty, and began to address them in English tracts; he denounced the papacy, the monastic, and now particularly the mendicant, orders. He planned and mainly executed, with the help of John Purvey and other friends, a translation of the Bible into English, the first complete version ever attempted, which was quickly spread abroad in innumerable copies; at least 165 manuscripts of it, in whole or in part, have come down to us, in spite of the strong measures taken by the Church for its suppression. He sent out his disciples, the "poor priests," to preach his doctrines throughout the country. But the hostility among the leading churchmen aroused by these movements was much more languid than might have been anticipated. A vigorous attack was made upon his principal adherents in Oxford, Nicholas Hereford, Repyngdon, Ashton, and Bedeman, in 1382, and they were induced to recant. But the heresiarch himself was hardly at all molested, though his doctrines were condemned by the Chancellor of Oxford, and by a provincial council held at the Blackfriars in London, in May, 1382: it is said also that he had to appear in person at another council at Oxford in November of that year; but no sentence was passed upon him. He retired unmolested to Lutterworth and died there from a paralysis on Dec. 31, 1384. Wycliffe was a strenuous and conscientious, if in some respects injudicious, advocate of Church reform. So far he was in unison with perhaps a majority of the earnest clergy of his day. With the Franciscans he found a chief cause of the corruption of the Church in the excessive possession of temporal goods by the clergy. He parted company with them, as with all loyal Catholics, when he sought to reform the doctrinal system, and to destroy almost everything upon which the sacerdotal principle was based. But by this very course of teaching he attached the multitude to him, weary as it was of the perfunctory ministrations of a corrupt order. It is in his English works, his short, robust tracts and sermons—far more than in his Latin ones, which, although of a high interest, are but too plainly the products of a declining and artificial period of scholasticism—that Wycliffe shows his real genius; and he may almost be said to have invented English prose as a vehicle of literary exposition. His influence was permanent, though not perhaps very extensive; but the fact which makes him a true herald of the Protestant Reformation was his assertion of the rights of the individual conscience before God and against any human intermediary whatsoever.

Biographies, by J. Lewis (2nd ed., Oxford, 1820), Professor G. V. Lechler (1873), and A. R. Pennington (1884); also in Shirley's introduction to the *Fasciculi Zizaniorum* (Rolls Series); and in F. D. Matthew's introduction to his *English Works of Wyclif*. The two last are of special value. Wycliffe's English works have been published by T. Arnold (3 volumes) and Matthew (1 volume). His Latin works, of which hitherto little more than the *Trialogus* has seen the light (ed. Lechler), are now in course of publication by the Wyclif Society.

[R. L. P.]

Wykeham, William of (*b.*1324, *d.* 1404), was born at Wykeham in Hampshire. He long served Edward III. in the capacity of surveyor of works, and built for him many noble edifices, Windsor Castle among the number. He became warden of the forests south of the Trent, Keeper of the Privy Seal President of the Council, Bishop of Winchester, and at length Chancellor in 1367. In 1371 he was driven from court, and his temporalities seized on charges of corruption, which were subsequently proved to be unfounded. On the accession of Richard II. he was restored to favour, but took little further part in public affairs till 1389, when he was induced, much against his inclination, to accept again the office of Chancellor. He held the Great Seal for two years and a half, during which period tranquillity and good government prevailed. In 1391 he retired from public life, and devoted his energies to the administration of his diocese, and the founding and endowing of the noble establishments of New College, Oxford, and St. Mary, Winchester. Wykeham was a man of such a blameless life that one of his contemporaries said that his enemies in attacking him were trying to find a knot in a rush.

Wykes, Thomas, Canon of Osney (*flor. circa* 1250), was the author of a chronicle otherwise incorrectly called *Chronicon Salisburiensis Monasterii*, covering the period 1289 to 1304. Only the part dealing with the struggles between Henry III. and the barons is of much value. The chronicle has been published by Gale in the second volume of *Rerum Anglicarum Scriptores*, 1687, and by Mr. Luard in the *Annales Monastici*, vol. iv. (Rolls Series).

Wymund, a monk of Furness, was made Bishop of Man (1134). As soon as he had obtained this position he gave out that he was a son of Angus, Earl of Moray, assumed the name of Malcolm MacHeth, and, supported by the Norwegian King of the Isles, and by Somerlaed of Argyle, whose daughter he had married, invaded Scotland, causing great trouble to David, who, however,

at length took him prisoner (1137), and confined him in the castle of Roxburgh. He was liberated, and made Earl of Ross by Malcolm IV. (1157). Mr. Robertson considers that Wymund and Malcolm MacHeth were two different people.

Wyndham, Sir William (*b.* 1687, *d.* 1740), sat for the county of Somerset (1710), and in 1713 became Chancellor of the Exchequer. He was a follower of Bolingbroke's, and introduced in the House that Schism Act which drove Oxford from office. In Bolingbroke's projected ministry he was to have been head of the commission of the Privy Seal. Wyndham's Jacobitism had at any rate the merit of sincerity. On the accession of George I. he was dismissed from office. In Opposition he vigorously opposed the proclamation for a new Parliament, for which he was reprimanded by the Speaker, and defended the fallen ministry. In 1715, on the outbreak of the Jacobite insurrection in the north, he was promptly arrested, and committed to the Tower. Bolingbroke informs us that he and Lord Lansdowne were the only two men who could possibly have organised an insurrection in the west of England, and there is no doubt that he held the threads of the conspiracy. On his release he continued until his death a vigorous opponent of Walpole, his eloquence, which was very great, being especially directed against that statesman. He was the recognised leader of the Tory part of the composite Opposition. His best speech was made in 1734 against the Septennial Act. In 1739 he announced that he and his friends were going to secede from the House, and solemnly took leave of it for ever. But the manœuvre was not a success, and the Opposition returned to their places. It was generally believed at the time that Wyndham wished to play the part of a political martyr, and be sent to the Tower. "As a statesman," says Lord Stanhope, "he wanted only a better cause, a longer life, and the lustre of official station for perfect fame. His oratory, more official and stately than Pulteney's, and, perhaps, less ready, was not less effective."

Wynendaal, Skirmish at (1708), was one of the episodes of the siege of Lille during the War of the Spanish Succession. On Sept. 27 a huge convoy departed from Ostend for the English army. Lamotte, the officer in command of the French cavalry, hastened to intercept it towards evening at Wynendaal, near which the road passes through a wood. He found the wood, however, occupied by an officer named Webb, with 6,000 men, supported towards the end of the action by Cadogan, with some squadrons of horse, who drove off the enemy at all points. The convoy arrived safely at the English camp.

X

Xiphilinus was a Greek monk who lived in the eleventh century, and who has left us an epitome of several of the lost works of Dio Cassius, from which we get considerable information concerning the early history of Britain.

Y

Yandaboo, Treaty of. [Burmese War.]

Yarmouth, Sophia de Walmoden, Countess of (*d.* 1765), was a mistress of George II. He had known her in Hanover, and shortly after the death of Queen Caroline she was brought to England, and created Countess of Yarmouth—"the last instance," says Stanhope, "in our annals of a British peerage bestowed on a royal mistress. Her character was quiet and inoffensive, and though she did not at first possess, she gradually gained considerable influence over the king." She was summoned when George was found dead, and by a codicil to that king's will was bequeathed £10,000. [George II.]

Hervey, *Memoirs.*

Yaxted, Francis (*d.* 1565), one of the household of Mary Queen of Scots, was employed by her in various confidential missions, the details of which he invariably betrayed to Elizabeth's minister. In 1565 he was sent to Philip of Spain to obtain the aid of that monarch against the English queen, and was drowned on his way back in charge of a large sum of money, which he was conveying as a present from Spain to Mary. "Yaxted," says Mr. Froude, "was a conspirator of the kind most dangerous to his employers—vain, loud, and confident, fond of boasting of his acquaintance with kings and princes, and 'promising to bring to a good end whatsoever should be committed to him.'"

Yelverton, Sir Christopher (*d.* 1612), who had on several occasions distinguished himself by his Parliamentary speeches in favour of the restriction of the royal prerogative within due limits, was in 1597 elected Speaker of the House of Commons. By his conduct while holding his office he managed to regain the favour of the queen, which he had forfeited by his previous speeches, and in 1602 was made a judge of the Queen's Bench. His character is described as that of "a gentleman, a learned man, and a lawyer; one that will deliver his mind with perspicuous reason and great comeliness."

Foss, *Judges.*

Yeomanry, The (England), was the name given to a force of volunteer cavalry, first raised in 1761, and embodied in 1797, when numerous regiments were formed. In

1814, when the Volunteers were disbanded, many of the Yeomanry Cavalry were allowed to exist, under regulations providing that they should be called out for short periods of exercise every year. In 1900 the Imperial Yeomanry was raised for service in the Boer War. By the Territorial and Reserve Forces Act, 1907, the Imperial Yeomanry became the cavalry of the Territorial Army (q.v.).

Yeomanry, The (Ireland), were embodied in Sept., 1796, as the Militia could not be trusted in so dangerous a time. The government being afraid of a religious war, had long refused the applications of the gentry to be allowed to raise men at their own expense, but could not refuse any longer. The Orangemen entered largely into these corps, of which Dublin alone raised four regiments of foot and four troops of horse. Thirty thousand men were soon under arms, nearly all of whom were Protestants. It was the Yeomanry who effected the disarmament of Ulster in 1797, and to them more than to any other force was the suppression of the rebellion of 1798 due. It cannot, however, be denied that their free use of the lash, the picket, and the pitchcap may have prevented the insurgents from laying down their arms, and led to many of the cruelties committed by the peasantry.

Froude, *English in Ireland*.

Yonge, Sir William (*d.* 1755), was the eldest son and successor of Sir Walter Yonge, Bart., of Culloden, near Honiton, in Devonshire. He was elected member for Honiton at the beginning of George I.'s reign, and succeeded to his father's estates in 1731. In 1717 he was appointed a commissioner for examining the debts due to the army; in 1724 a Lord-Commissioner to the Treasury. About 1730 he was made Secretary of War and a member of the Privy Council. He was a strong supporter of Walpole, who was accustomed to say of him, "that nothing but Yonge's character could keep down such parts, and nothing but his parts could support his character." In 1746 he was a member of the committee for managing the impeachment of Lord Lovat.

York (Latin, *Eboracum*; Old English, *Eorforwic*) was the capital of Roman Britain, a fortress where the head-quarters of the Sixth Legion, and for a time of the Ninth, were situated, and the site of an important colony. Its two rivers, the Ouse and the Foss, strengthened its walls, and the former made it an important commercial centre. Constantius Chlorus died there, and Constantine the Great was there hailed Emperor by his troops (306 A.D.). It was also the seat of one of the bishoprics of the Romano-British Church. Under the Anglian kings it preserved its position as a capital; first of Deira, afterwards of the greater kingdom of Northumbria. In 627 Paulinus baptised King Edwin in the hastily-built chapel where the cathedral afterwards rose. The organisation of the English Church, effected by Theodore, made York an archbishopric, though quite dependent on Canterbury, until Archbishop Egbert vindicated its claims to metropolitan independence. In 867 it was taken by the Danes, and its recovery by Athelstan took place in 937. At the Conquest it contained about 10,000 people. It submitted to William, who built a castle there in 1068. It was taken in Sept., 1069, by an English revolt aided by a Danish fleet, but retaken by William without opposition at the end of the year. In the reign of John, York had a merchant gild, and possessed a mayor and aldermen. During the long wars with Scotland it was very frequently the meeting-place of Parliaments. In 1298 Edward I.; in 1314, 1318, 1319, and 1322 Edward II.; in 1328, 1332, 1333, 1334, and 1335 Edward III. held sessions at York, and again in 1464 a Parliament was summoned thither by Edward IV. Its commerce continued to flourish, although diminished by the rise of Hull, and Edward III. for a time freed the staple there. Richard II. made the city a county, and Henry VI. extended its jurisdiction over the Wapentake of the Ainsty. The Yorkist kings cultivated the favour of the citizens, and Richard III. counted them his trustiest supporters. York suffered greatly at the Reformation from the destruction of the hospitals, chapels, and chantries which abounded there. It was captured by the rebels during the Pilgrimage of Grace (1536), and became the seat of the Council of the North, which was erected there during those disturbances. At York also met the commission which commenced the inquiry into the charges against Mary Queen of Scots (1568). In the civil wars of the next century the city played a still more important part. There, in 1642, Charles I. collected his partisans, and the surrender of York in July, 1644, sealed the fate of the north of England. Its occupation by Fairfax in Jan., 1660, enabled Monk to advance into England, and materially forwarded the Restoration. Like most other corporations York lost its charter in 1684, and had it restored in Nov., 1688. In the same month Lord Danby seized the city, then governed by Sir John Reresby, and declared for a free Parliament and the Protestant religion. At the time of the Revolution of 1688, York probably contained about 10,000 inhabitants. Though its trade was fast diminishing, and its political weight decreased as great manufacturing towns grew up in the north of England, it still retained its importance as a social centre. "What has been, and is, the chief support of the city at present," wrote Drake in his *History of York* (1737), "is the resort to and residence of several country gentlemen with their

families in it." As the judicial and political centre of the largest of English counties, as the ecclesiastical centre of a much wider district, it continues to rank amongst the great cities of England.

Wellbeloved, *Eboracum;* Drake, *Eboracum, or the History and Antiquities of York;* Davies, *York Records;* Barnes, *Yorkshire, Past and Present;* Raine, *Fasti Eboracenses.*

York, Archbishops of. [Archbishops.]

York, House of. The regal house of York was the most short-lived of our dynasties. Beginning with the proclamation of Edward IV. (March 4, 1461), it ended with the fall of Edward's youngest brother, Richard, on the field of Bosworth (Aug. 22, 1485). It sprang from a marriage, made early in the fifteenth century, between Richard, Earl of Cambridge, and Anne Mortimer, his first cousin twice removed. Richard was the younger son of the fifth son of Edward III. (Edmund, Duke of York), and Anne was the great grand-daughter of the third son (Lionel, Duke of Clarence). Thus the designation of the house came from a younger, its title to the crown from an elder, son of Edward III. Another Richard, born in 1410, was the issue of this marriage, and as early as 1424 a succession of events had made this Richard heir general of Edward III. It came about in this way. The Black Prince's line expired with Richard II.; King Edward's second son died in his infancy; Lionel's sole child, Philippa, and her husband, Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March, had a son, Roger, whose children, Edmund and Anne, were in Henry V.'s reign the only descendants of Lionel, Duke of Clarence. In 1424 Edmund died childless. Consequently, just when the most inefficient of the royal descendants of John of Gaunt, Edward's fourth son, was beginning to reign, the undoubted representative of the third was growing up into a manly vigour and a healthy robustness of character, which promised a really competent ruler. Richard had also become the only representative of the family of York, for his father, having conspired with others against Henry V., had been beheaded in the summer of 1415, and a few months afterwards his uncle, Edmund, Duke of York, had fallen at Agincourt, leaving no issue.

Notwithstanding his father's treason, the full favour of the court shone upon Richard's path from the first. He was carefully brought up as his father's, mother's, and uncle's heir, and was allowed to connect himself by marriage with the wide-spread and influential Neville family, whose head, Ralph, Earl of Westmoreland, had indeed been his guardian for a time. He wedded Ralph's daughter, Cicely, and thus, when the big moment arrived, had linked to his aspirations and fortunes such powerful nobles as his brothers-in-law, Richard Neville, Earl of Salisbury, and William, Lord Fauconberg, and Richard's sons, Richard, Earl of Warwick, and John, Lord Montacute; while the advisers of Henry VI. took every pains to add to his greatness. By giving him command in France and then making him regent there, and appointing him to the Irish lieutenancy, they threw opportunities in his way which he was able and willing to turn to account. He was, therefore, between 1450 and 1460 the foremost man in England. Yet his claim to the throne was not put forward till the meeting of Parliament in Oct., 1460. Its soundness is not indisputable. Succession to the crown did not then follow the same rule as succession to private property; the transmission of a right to the throne through an heiress, such as Philippa of Clarence, had never been established, and, even if it were admitted, its virtue was destroyed by the sixty years' prescription, the Acts of Parliament, and the oft-repeated oaths of allegiance, that made for Henry's right. The lords of Parliament shrank from giving judgment, and Richard agreed not to press his claim on being declared Henry's heir. Slain in the following December with his second son, Edmund, after the fight of Wakefield, he left his rights to his eldest son, Edward, Earl of March, who soon asserted them with a strong hand. Edward simply seized the crown on March 4, 1461. The victory of Towton, and the voice of a Parliament that met in November, ratified the act, and Edward IV. was recognised as full king from the date of his proclamation. Mismanagement, and the alienation of Warwick, expelled him from the kingdom in 1470, but in 1471 he recovered his royalty, holding it in security till his death in April, 1483. By that time his second brother, George, Duke of Clarence, was dead, despatched, on a condemnation for treason, in some unknown fashion; but Edward left two sons, Edward, called the Fifth, and Richard, and five daughters. His youngest brother, however, Richard, Duke of Gloucester, cunningly supplanted and then murdered the two sons, reigning as Richard III. for two years. Richard's crimes estranged from him several staunch Yorkists, who then promoted a marriage between Edward IV.'s eldest daughter, Elizabeth, and Henry Tudor. Before the combination that ensued Richard perished on Bosworth Field on Aug. 22, 1485. Henry married Elizabeth, and thus the rival houses coalesced. Another daughter of Edward IV.'s married the Earl of Devon, and was the mother of the Marquis of Exeter, so fortunate and unfortunate in Henry VIII.'s reign. Clarence, who was married to the Earl of Warwick's elder daughter, Isabella, left two children, Edward, Earl of Warwick, who was kept in prison by Henry VII. till complicity with a design of Perkin Warbeck's led to his execution, and Margaret, created Countess of Salisbury, and executed by Henry VIII. The chief historical distinction of the

house of York is, that it was the first to set the fashion of constitutional despotism in England.

Gairdner, *Richard III.*; Stubbs, *Const. Hist.*, vol. iii. [J. R.]

York, Edmund of Langley, Duke of (*b.* 1341, *d.* 1402), was the fifth son of Edward III. In 1362 he was made Earl of Cambridge, and on the accession of Richard II. was appointed one of the council of regency. He did not take any prominent part in the battles of his nephew's reign, but in 1385 was made Duke of York, and in 1399, during the king's absence in Ireland, was appointed regent. On Bolingbroke's landing, York raised a force to oppose him, but finding him more powerful than he had expected, he was induced to make terms with him, and to believe that Henry had no traitorous designs against the king. Subsequently he proposed to Richard to resign the crown, thereby preserving a semblance of legality to what was in reality a revolution. After this he retired to his domain, where he spent the last years of his life. He figures as a weak man, of moderate views, and always ready by mediation to prevent civil strife. His desertion of Richard, whose representative he was in England, can scarcely be palliated, particularly as, if he had made a firm stand on hearing of Bolingbroke's landing, the barons would probably have submitted. Edmund was twice married, first to Isabella, daughter of Pedro the Cruel of Castile, and secondly to Joan, daughter of Thomas Holand, Earl of Kent.

York, Edward, Duke of (*d.* 1415), was the son of Edmund of Langley. In the lifetime of his father he was created Earl of Rutland, and subsequently Duke of Albemarle by Richard II. He accompanied the king on his expedition to Ireland in the year 1399, but, on learning of Bolingbroke's success, deserted Richard. Henry deprived him of his dukedom, but despite the fact that Lord Fitzwalter and many other barons accused him of abetting Richard in his tyrannical acts, he received no other punishment. In 1400 he conspired with the Earl of Huntingdon and others against Henry, but turned traitor, and revealed the plot to the king. He accompanied Henry V. to France, and was one of the commanders in the battle of Agincourt, where he was slain. He married Philippa, daughter of Lord Mohun, but left no issue.

York, Frederick Augustus, Duke of (*b.* 1763, *d.* 1827), was the second son of George III., and, as early as his elder brother, broke away from the rigid discipline by which their parents fondly hoped to preserve them from the evils of the world. At the age of twenty-one he was created Duke of York and Albany, and Earl of Ulster. But already in his third year he had been elevated by his father to the half-secularised bishopric of Osnabrück. In 1791 he married Charlotte, eldest daughter of Frederick William, King of Prussia, when his income was increased by a vote of £30,000 per annum. In 1793 he was placed in command of an expedition to the Netherlands, to act with the Prince of Saxe-Coburg against France. Though giving some proofs of personal gallantry, he soon made it clear that his royal birth was his only qualification for command. Fortunately for England the duke became disgusted at his want of success, and retreated, leaving Abercromby in command. As a reward for the military ability displayed in this campaign, he was in 1795 appointed Commander-in-chief of the Forces, and in 1799 was again entrusted with the command of an expedition to the Low Countries, in which, however, the only successes gained were due to Abercromby. The campaign finally ended in a disgraceful convention with the French. The duke was compelled to resign his office because of the shameful disclosures as to the way in which he allowed his mistress, Mrs. Clarke, to influence the military appointments, but was later restored to his old office under his brother's regency. His last act in public life was a most violent speech in the House of Lords against Catholic Emancipation in 1825. In January, 1827, he died.

York, Richard, Duke of (*b. circa* 1410, *d.* 1460), was the son of Richard, Earl of Cambridge, by Anne, daughter of Roger, Earl of March. In 1425 he was relieved from the effects of his father's attainder, and succeeded to the estates and titles of his uncles, Edward, Duke of York, and Edmund, Earl of March. In 1430 he was made Constable of England, in 1432 he was appointed guardian of the coast of Normandy, and in 1436 was made regent of France, and advanced with an army almost to the gates of Paris. In the next year he was recalled, but in 1440 was appointed regent again, holding office till 1445. In 1449 he was made Lieutenant of Ireland, and governed that country with great wisdom and moderation during the one year for which he held this post. On his return to England in 1450 he came prominently forward as the opponent of the Duke of Somerset. He was as popular as Somerset was odious, and had powerful allies in the Nevilles, with whom he was closely connected by his marriage with Cecily, daughter of the Earl of Westmoreland. In 1451 a proposal was made in Parliament that York should be declared heir to the crown, but this was not seriously entertained, and the proposer was imprisoned. In 1452 York, declaring that his sole object was to rid the king of Somerset and other evil counsellors, raised a force, and marched to London. Henry met him at Blackheath, and York laid before him a bill of accusation

against Somerset, at the same time swearing fealty to the king, and promising for the future to sue for remedy in legal form. The birth of an heir to Henry in 1453 deprived York of all hope of succeeding peacefully to the throne, while the imbecility of the king gave him the office of Protector, which he held till Henry's recovery in 1455, Somerset being in prison during this period. On the king's restoration to health York was dismissed and Somerset reinstated. The first battle of St. Albans followed, in which the latter was slain, and the king shortly afterwards becoming once more imbecile, York was again appointed Protector. When in Feb., 1455, Henry recovered, and York was relieved of his office, two years of comparative peace followed, and in March, 1457, a great pacification took place at St. Paul's. The misgovernment and misfortunes of the country, and the alienation of the Nevilles gave York another opportunity in 1459. The Yorkists were marching south when Lord Audley tried to stop them at Blore Heath, but was defeated, and battle was imminent at Ludlow when the defection of Trollop alarmed the Yorkists, and they fled. The duke went to Ireland, and in the Parliament held at Coventry at the end of the year was attainted. In 1460 the Yorkist lords planned a return to England, and York issued a manifesto against the royal ministers. The battle of Northampton placed the king at their mercy, and the Parliament which met repealed the duke's attainders. York now for the first time asserted his claim to the throne, and after a long discussion a compromise was effected, by which Henry was to retain the crown during his life-time, after which it was to revert to York and his heirs. Meanwhile the duke and his sons were not to molest the king, any attempt on the duke's life was made high treason, and the principality of Wales was handed over to him. However, Margaret, who refused to recognise this arrangement, had been collecting an army in the north, and against her the Duke of York marched. The battle of Wakefield ensued on the last day of the year, when York was slain. His head was placed on the walls of York, garnished with a paper crown, but was taken down after the battle of Towton. By his marriage with Cecily Neville the duke had eight sons and four daughters, of whom four sons and one daughter died in childhood. Of the others, Edward and Richard became kings, Edmund was killed at Wakefield, and George was created Duke of Clarence. His daughters were Anne, who married the Duke of Exeter, and secondly Sir J. St. Leger; Elizabeth, who married John, Earl of Suffolk, and Margaret, who married Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy.

Brougham, *Eng. under the House of Lancaster*; *Wars of the English in France* (Rolls Series); *Paston Letters.*

Yorke, Charles (*b.* 1723, *d.* 1770), was the second son of the first Lord Hardwicke. Called to the bar in 1743, he soon obtained a large practice, and in the next year made his reputation as a jurist by the publication of *Some Considerations on the Laws of Forfeiture for High Treason.* In 1747 he was returned to Parliament for Reigate, and in Nov., 1756, he was appointed Solicitor-General. In the following July he was doomed to a bitter disappointment when Pitt insisted on making Pratt Attorney-General over his head. For this slight he never quite forgave Pitt, and on the accession of George III. attached himself to Bute. On Pratt's appointment to the Chief Justiceship of the Common Pleas in Jan., 1762, he became Attorney-General. Bute's administration, however, was short-lived, and early in 1763, he made way for Sir Fletcher Norton. Out of office Yorke's reputation in the House rose. He strongly condemned the action of the government in issuing general warrants. In 1765 he became again Attorney-General during the Rockingham administration, but resigned his office on their falling in the following year, and continued in opposition until the last few days of his life, but his activity was confined for the most part to the courts, and was not employed in any vigorous opposition to the government. Towards the beginning of 1770, on the resignation of Lord Camden, he was offered the chancellorship—a post which he accepted after having declined it twice. Within a week of this date he died, suspected of having put an end to his own life by suicide.

Campbell, *Lives of the Chancellors*; Trevelyan, *Early Life of Fox*; Jesse, *Memoir of George III.*; Walpole, *Memoir of George III.*; Rockingham, *Memoir*; *Letters of Junius.*

Yorke, Sir Roland (*fl.* 1587), was a "soldier of fortune," who was the bitter enemy of Leicester, and who is said to have been instrumental in bringing about the treachery of Sir William Stanley in delivering up Deventer to the Spaniards (1587). At the same time Yorke himself gave up the forts at Zutphen, of which he was in command, and went over to Philip.

Yorktown, The Surrender of (Oct. 19, 1781), is memorable as the last important act of the American War of Independence. Early in August Cornwallis had, in obedience to orders from Clinton, withdrawn into Yorktown, a place whose safety required a naval superiority in its defenders, and at this time that superiority had passed away to the French, who had a large fleet under De Grasse in those waters. Cornwallis was aware of the danger of his position, especially so when, on Sept. 28, the combined French and American armies appeared in sight. On Oct. 1 the investment was com-

pleted, and works were begun with a view to the bombardment of the English position. After an ineffectual attempt to carry the infantry across the strait into Gloucester, a small town on the opposite headland, Cornwallis sent a flag of truce proposing to capitulate on condition that the garrisons of Gloucester and Yorktown should be sent home on their word of honour not again to serve against America or her allies. Washington would not accept these terms, and finally Cornwallis surrendered his public stores and artillery in the two forts, as well as all the shipping in the harbour, the men to remain prisoners of war in America, the ships to become the property of France. With the surrender at Yorktown the war was virtually at an end.

Bancroft, *History of United States;* Mahon, *History.*

Young, Arthur (*b.* 1741, *d.* 1820), was a writer of numerous works on agriculture and rural economy, to collect information on which subjects he made numerous journeys through the British Isles and on the Continent. In 1784 he published a periodical work called the *Annals of Agriculture.* In 1789 he was appointed Secretary to the Board of Agriculture. Young's works, especially his *Political Arithmetic* (1774) and his *Travels* (1792), are of very great value for the light they throw on the state of society, trade, and agriculture in England, Ireland, and France. Young's account of France, which he visited on the eve of the Revolution, is of singular interest.

Young, Robert (*d.* 1700), one of the most disreputable informers of the seventeenth century, was ordained a deacon in the Irish Church, but was expelled from his first parish for immorality, and from his third for bigamy. In 1684 he was convicted of having forged Sancroft's signature, and was sentenced to the pillory and imprisonment. When Monmouth's insurrection broke out he gave witness of a pretended conspiracy in Suffolk against the king, but his evidence was proved to be false. After the Revolution he determined to become an accuser of the Jacobites, and concocted a story of a plot against William and Mary. In 1692, he forged a paper purporting to be an association for the restoration of the banished king, to which he appended the names of Marlborough, Cornbury, Salisbury, Sancroft, and Sprat, Bishop of Rochester. A subordinate agent named Blackhead dropped the paper in one of Sprat's flower-pots. Young thereupon laid information before the Privy Council. Marlborough was committed to the Tower, and Sprat taken into custody, but the document could not be found. Blackhead thereupon rescued it from its hiding-place, and gave it to Young, who had it conveyed to the Secretary of State. But when confronted by Sprat, Blackhead lost his presence of mind, and confessed all. Young, however, with unblushing effrontery persisted in his denial. Young was imprisoned and pilloried. He was finally hanged for coining.

Young England Party, The, was the name given to a group of Tory politicians during the Corn-Law struggles of 1842—46, mostly young members of aristocratic families. They came prominently before the public in the autumn of 1844. It was the theory of the Young England Party that what was supposed to be the ancient relation between rich and poor should be restored. The landowners and wealthy classes were to be the benevolent protectors and leaders, while the poor were to be obedient and trustful dependents. Every effort was to be made to improve the material condition of the labouring classes, while at the same time a firm resistance was to be offered to the levelling spirit of the age, to free-trade, and to the principles of the Liberals generally. Combined with a good deal of coxcombry and conceit, there was an element of usefulness in the Young Englanders. "What the Tractarian priesthood were at this time requiring of their flocks," says Miss Martineau, "the Young England politicians were striving for with the working classes; and the spectacle was seen of Sunday sports encouraged, as in the old Catholic times; and popular festivals revived at which young lords and members of Parliament pulled off their coats to play cricket with the labourers, or moved about among the crowd in the park or on the green, in the style of the feudal superior of old." In Parliament the Young England politicians, affecting to believe in the "Old Tory principles" of the preceding century, chiefly distinguished themselves by their noisy opposition to the Whigs. They opposed the repeal of the Corn Laws, violently attacked Peel for his change of policy, and declined to join the Peelites. Among their most prominent members were Lord J. Manners, and the Hon. G. Smythe, member for Canterbury; and Mr. Disraeli lent them his support, and was looked upon in some sort as their leader.

Martineau, *Hist. of the Peace,* ii. 520.

Young Ireland Party. The group of men known under this name, among whom Gavan Duffy, Meagher, and Mitchell are the best known, were at first followers of O'Connell, and did much for the Irish cause by writing papers, historical romances, and national songs, and by publishing old ones. In 1843 they separated from O'Connell after his failure to repel force by force at Clontarf, and began to be known as the Physical Force Party. In 1848 Smith O'Brien became their leader, and as a consequence of his futile attempt at rebellion, many of them were sentenced to transportation, or at least had to leave Ireland. Some of them, like Gavan Duffy, attained high distinction in the colonies.

Z

Zemaun Shah (*d.* 1802), the ruler of Afghanistan, threatened to invade India during the years 1795–98, and even entered into negotiations with Tippoo Sultan. Lord Wellesley, however, concluded an alliance with Persia against him, and internal factions prevented his intended invasion. He was slain during the civil war in 1802.

Zemindars, The, are Indian revenue officers, to whom the right of collecting so much revenue was originally farmed out by the Mogul dynasty. These officers tended to become hereditary, and thus to assume the position of an aristocracy collecting tribute from the land, a quota of which was paid into the coffers of the state. In Cornwallis's settlement of Bengal these tax-gatherers were elevated into landed aristocracy, on the model of the English. The term "zemindar" has consequently become identified in meaning with the expression "landed proprietor."

Zulestein, William Henry Nassau (*d.* 1709), was greatly trusted by William of Orange, afterwards William III., and employed by him in the intrigues with the English Opposition in 1687. He was sent to congratulate King James on the birth of the Prince of Wales. When William invaded England, Zulestein was sent to James declining a proposed conference with the Prince of Orange. On the accession of William he was made Master of the Robes. In 1691 he accompanied William to Holland. In 1695 Zulestein was created Earl of Rochford, and received large grants of property in Ireland, which were attacked by the Commons in the Resumption Bill.

Macaulay, *Hist. of England.*

Zululand. In January, 1879, a war broke out between the British and the Zulu king, Cetewayo, owing to the refusal of the latter to make reparation for the raids by his subjects upon Natal. A British force under Lord Chelmsford crossed the frontier, but was surprised and attacked at Isandhlwana (Jan. 22, 1879), and defeated with the slaughter of several hundred British troops. The war was continued, and on July 4, 1880, Cetewayo was completely defeated at Ulundi, was taken prisoner by the English, and was sent to Capetown. Zululand was divided into a number of small principalities under the native chiefs, and a "Reserve" territory on the borders of Natal, with a British Resident to watch over the country, was instituted. In 1883 Cetewayo was allowed to visit England, and subsequently was replaced (Jan. 26, 1883) in possession of a large part of his dominions. The result, after some months of continual fighting between Cetewayo and the most powerful of his rivals, Usibepu, was that Cetewayo was driven from his throne (July, 1883), and soon afterwards died (Feb. 8, 1884). The country remained in a state of considerable disorder, owing to civil war among the chiefs, aided by adventurers from the Transvaal; and in 1888 a rebellion of Dinizulu was crushed, and the country annexed. In 1905–6 the Zulus grew restless under the imposition of a poll-tax, and fighting occurred between the natives and colonial troops. A large colonial force was raised and the rebellion suppressed after some heavy fighting. [South Africa.]

Zutphen, The Battle of (Sept. 22, 1586), was fought in Guelderland between the Spaniards under the Prince of Parma and the English forces, who were assisting the Dutch, under the Earls of Leicester and Essex and Lord Willoughby. The English were besieging Zutphen, and attempted to cut off a force which was bringing provisions to the beleaguered garrison; but were completely foiled. The battle is famous as the one in which Sir Philip Sidney received his death-wound.

Motley, *Dutch Republic.*

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